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THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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GENERAL CHRISTIAAN RUDOLF DE WET.

(General De Wet's notable "History of the Three Years' War" has been a leading topic of the month in Europe and America. General De Wet has changed his plans for a visit to the United States, in order to meet Mr. Chamberlain in South Africa and take part in the settlement of the questions which will have such an essential influence on the future of his country.)

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No. 1.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Meaning of "Progress." It is a good practice, whether in private or in public affairs, to take account of stock at the beginning of a new year,—to review and consider the past, to give some thought to the future. Every year must have its difficulties to cope with, and there promises to be no surcease, in this world, of perplexity and of struggle. But if it can be seen, as past events fall into perspective, that right principles are gaining more general recognition in private and in public life, and that true civilization makes some solid gains as each year goes by, there is room for hope, and the optimist is vindicated. The great public concerns are the progress of peace and good-will among men; the diffusion of that kind of true education among the children of the people that fits for all the relations of life; the growth of justice and of tolerance; the narrowing of the domain of tyranny and of oppression in the world; the advance of science and of new kinds of useful knowledge that alleviate human distress; the increase of efficiency and productiveness in agriculture and industry,—giving a larger sum total of wealth and a steady rise in the working-man's standard of living, with such improvements in the economics and mechanics of distribution as may insure the widest possible spread of prosperity and comfort among the people. In these things there has been progress.

Economic High Tides. If we mistake not, the year 1902 has witnessed in the United States by far the highest total of economic productivity ever attained in any single year. It has also witnessed the widest diffusion of comfort and prosperity. In town and country alike, there has never before been so much lucrative employment for all who are willing and able to work. In spite, for example, of the great anxiety in New York and other large cities on account of the shortness of the coal-supply, there has been very little need for distribution of fuel as a matter of charity. Work-

ingmen's families have been able to pay a standard price for coal, and the trouble has been due simply to the lack of a sufficient amount to supply the demand. If the purchasing power of the people had been far less,—as in some former seasons of industrial depression,—the coal famine would not have been so formidable, because the demand from all classes would have been smaller. With factory and business establishments of all kinds running at full pressure, and many of them operating with shifts of labor by night as well as by day, the shortage of fuel has been due in part to the uncommonly large demand for it in boiler-rooms, growing out of a high state of general prosperity.

"Good Times" and the Wage-Earner. This condition that we call "good times," moreover, has been widely extended throughout the country. The autumn crops of no State or section were seriously below the average when taken as a whole, and this, in a country of such diversity of climate, soil, rainfall, and other physical conditions, is a remarkable fact. The iron and steel manufacturers have had the largest year in their history by an enormous margin of gain over the banner year 1901. Nearly all our other industries have good reports to make. The earnings of the railroads have been much larger than ever before, and many of them have advanced the wages of their employees by from 10 to 20 per cent. There cannot, of course, be a brisk demand at good, profitable prices for what everybody has to sell without some corresponding increase in the price of those things that everybody has to buy. The consequence is, that along with abundant labor and good wages there has been a noticeable increase in the average cost of living. The advantage that the community, as a whole, derives from these periods of industrial activity with profitable prices consists, most of all, in the abundance of employment for everybody. The dread of the poor man is not so much the high cost of living as the lack of work.

It remains to be seen whether, under the new economic conditions that now prevail, it may not be possible largely to avert those sharp periodical reactions that in other days were attributed by many people to overproduction, but which were in fact due largely to unwise uses of capital and the imperfect organization of credit. With better knowledge and better control of these instruments of production, it ought to be possible to discourage wild speculation, and to keep a fairly normal and harmonious relation between supply and demand, production and consumption. The past year has shown a great growth of understanding and knowledge in the field of practical economics. The protracted discussion of questions having to do with the relations of labor and capital has been highly useful. The discussion of trusts and corporations has also been valuable, and bids fair to lead gradually to some steps for the better public oversight and regulation of these powerful institutions.

The great coal strike has been a very costly experience for the country, but the lessons the American people have learned by reason of it could not perhaps be mastered in any less expensive way. The country had looked on rather indifferently at the spectacle of a group of common carriers illegally assuming the business of operating coal mines, and subsequently forming an agreement among themselves amounting to a method for monopolizing the production, transportation, and sale of an article of common and necessary use. This association of interests was able, first, to bring into subjection the independent owners and operators of coal mines; next, to obtain arbitrary profits by increasing the cost of coal to all consumers. Finally, it attempted to put the labor of the coal-mining regions into a position of virtual servitude;—that is to say, into a position where the employer should dictate to the worker the price at which the worker should sell his labor. Such a situation is intolerable in a free country. The first step toward relief was fought successfully by the United Miners, who undertook to vindicate the principle that in the making of contracts of employment each side is entitled to a hearing. The miners were not claiming any right to control the business of the operating companies. They were simply claiming the right to have something to say about the market price and other conditions of mine labor. The trust managers have, many of them, come into places of large power and responsibility by sudden methods that remind one of Arabian Nights tales; and it is not strange

that here and there such men should be so much intoxicated by success as to be arrogant toward certain other forces in the community with which they have not as yet had full opportunity to measure their relative strength. The coal strike has begun to teach them that organized labor can, when necessary, make a very strong stand against organized capital; and that the strongest force of all is the public opinion of the country, to which the agencies of government must sooner or later respond.

Scope of the Anthracite Inquiry.

The miners had last month practically completed their testimony before President Roosevelt's strike commissioners. They had introduced testimony which threw much light upon the painful conditions that exist even in those few coal-mining districts that have been noted for their superior treatment of labor, and for the philanthropic activities of the operators. It is to be hoped that the commissioners will not flinch from a thorough and symmetrical inquiry into the real causes of this strike. They ought not to come short of a full understanding of the patient efforts made by Mr. Mitchell and the representatives of the miners through nearly two years to arrive at some basis of permanent understanding with the operators. From the public point of view, their inquiry will be incomplete, furthermore, if they do not acquaint themselves with all the facts relating to the combination of railroad companies which alone was responsible for this protracted labor difficulty, and which acted as if it wanted the strike, in the belief that it could once for all break down labor organization in the anthracite regions.

American Concern for the Children.

The greatest underlying task of the people of any civilized and self-governing country is the transmission of its best wisdom to the rising generation. Our destiny as a nation is bound up with the question of education. We have perhaps never in our history had a year in which so much valuable effort has been made in the educational field. The public schools are improving their methods, and public and private money is being expended as never before,—not merely to prevent the growth of illiteracy, but to make education practical and useful, and to make the individual an efficient worker and a good citizen. In the South especially there has been a renewal of effort along educational lines, and this is due in considerable part to the work of certain new educational boards, which have found not merely generous financial backing, but—what is equally necessary—wise methods of obtaining the maxi-

num of educational results with a minimum of expenditure. The growth of cotton mills and other industries in the South, while making for general progress, has involved some incidental evils, such as the considerable employment of child labor. This will sooner or later be ended by the application of such factory acts as exist in England and in our Northern States. Meanwhile, it is much to be regretted that New England capitalists, who largely own these Southern mills, are to some extent engaged in thwarting the efforts of humane Southern people in their endeavors to secure proper legislation on this subject. The important thing to note is the splendid determination and spirit of the movement which is opposing child labor, and which is certain to win its cause in the near future. We have such questions in one form or another always with us, and eternal vigilance is the price of continued progress. It is reassuring, therefore, to note, upon the whole, that there is a steady improvement in social conditions in this and in other regards. Child labor laws need revision and better enforcement in Pennsylvania and New York.



MAIL WAGONS FOR FARM ROUTES AT AN ILLINOIS VILLAGE POST OFFICE.



REV. EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY, OF ALABAMA.
(Leading advocate of laws against child labor in factories.)

*"Free Delivery"
and Rural
Progress.*

We publish an article in this number of the REVIEW upon the remarkable progress that our Post Office Department has made during the past year in the extension of the free-delivery system to rural communities. A movement of this kind once entered upon cannot well be checked. Such advantages cannot be arbitrarily extended to a few favored districts without clamor for like favors from the rest of the country. This postal innovation well illustrates the steadily improving outlook in the United States for life in the farming regions and away from the great population centers. With better roads, better schools, the increase of coöperative enterprises like butter and cheese factories, the telephone, and many other of the modern methods and devices that are making life easier and pleasanter in the country, there is a marked improvement in the value of farm lands and a fresh zeal for agricultural education and rural science, and some prospects that there may be established a reasonable balance between city and country. Constantly increasing numbers of city dwellers are finding it possible to spend a considerable part of their time in the country, while, on the other hand, an increasing number of people from the country spend occasional vacations in the large towns and cities. Thus, the peculiar advantages that belong to each mode of life are becoming better distributed.

*Countrifying
the Cities.*

As for our cities, with all their faults and shortcomings, they are in many ways better places for their inhabitants to live in than they used to be. For one thing, they are spreading over more ground,

and transit facilities are accelerating the suburban tendency. The electric trolley is adding large fresh-air zones to all of our populous towns and helping, in a marked manner, to lower the average death rate. In old days, in all of our cities, the death rate was larger than the birth rate, and population was only maintained by accessions from without. That condition is completely changed, and improved sanitation and better understanding of public and private rules of living tend to give us a lowering death rate, large exemption from epidemics, and a prevailingly vigorous and well-favored town population. New York has been the most congested of our great cities, but the past year has seen the development of plans which are to bring about an almost revolutionary improvement in the housing conditions of the people.

Revolutionizing New York.

Not only is the main underground transit system rapidly approaching completion, but there has been adopted a plan which is to give the Pennsylvania Railroad Company a vast terminal station in the heart of the city, with a tunnel connecting Manhattan Island with New Jersey and the American continent to the westward, and with Brooklyn and Long Island to the east. This project, together with another tunnel in course of construction for trolley lines, will make it feasible for many more New Yorkers to live in New Jersey suburbs, while, with new bridges and rapid-transit tunnels now under construction or definitely agreed upon, the residential development of Long Island will be enormous. The New York Central Railroad system, moreover, has within the past year decided upon a plan for greatly increasing its terminal facilities in New York, and for bringing in its suburban as well as its through trains by electricity. Its projected improvements will add greatly to the transit facilities of the adjacent parts of the States of New York and Connecticut. Thus, Manhattan Island will tend more and more to become a place for the concentration of offices and business enterprises, hotels, theaters, and public places of various sorts, while population will spread itself over increasing suburban areas.

One Year of Mayor Low.

The city of New York has assumed a metropolitan character of such importance that its chief affairs are no longer of merely local interest. Its well-doing or its ill-doing must in some measure concern the whole country. Even where its problems are peculiar rather than typical, they concern, after all, a city that in some sense belongs to the nation at large. This year it is to go through

one of its biennial municipal campaigns. The chief organized factors in the recurring fight for supremacy in city government are already carefully preparing for the contest. With January 1, Seth Low completes his first year as mayor, following the Tammany administration of Van Wyck. Mr. Low has been handicapped in many ways. The civil-service laws and conditions are such that it has been extremely difficult to weed out inferior and unworthy public servants and replace them with honest and efficient men. The mayor had full authority, however, to name the heads of departments, and, as we explained at the beginning of the year, his choices were remarkably good. In our opinion, his administration has, in its principal methods and results, been a gratifying success. The police situation has been the most difficult to cope with, principally through conditions that no man as chief of police could in one year have overcome. Colonel Partridge, who had served as commissioner of police, now retires, — for reasons of ill-health in part, and also in part because his management has been criticised as lacking in vigor. Nobody has said a word reflecting upon his character or his intelligence.

Mr. Cutting's Indorsement.

Mr. Robert Fulton Cutting, the head of the Citizens' Union, made a valuable review late in November of the work of the new administration by departments. His summing up was a remarkable tribute. Even in the police department, he found that much had been done to make things better. High praise, backed up with ample facts and figures, is accorded to the work of the board of education, that of the health department, that of the department of water, gas, and electricity, the park department, the department of charities, that of correction, the new tenement-house department, the dock department, and other branches of the service. The New York public is particularly fond of sensational events; and the vast improvement in the administration of the various departments of municipal government has not been sufficiently spectacular to be fully appreciated. The New York newspapers print scores of columns about some ineffectual raid upon an alleged gambling house, while the public knows almost nothing about the amazingly fine work of the health department, by which thousands of lives are saved, or of the improvements in the educational department, which are of vital consequence to the future of scores of thousands of children. We have no hesitation in pronouncing Mayor Low's administration by far the best in the history of New York since it attained any degree of metropolitan importance.



THE NEW HOME OF ANDREW CARNEGIE, FIFTH AVENUE AND NINETY-FIRST STREET, NEW YORK.

*Conditions of
Life in New
York.*

Apropos of the unprecedented recent increase in the value of real estate in certain parts of New York, it is interesting to note the fact that the authorities have now determined to assess real estate upon the basis of full valuation. Mr. Andrew Carnegie has come home from Europe to enter his splendid new home on upper Fifth Avenue; and we make this allusion to his New York house because it reminds us of the fact that the building department reports, for the past year, only forty or fifty new private residences on the whole of Manhattan Island. The building of individual residences has practically ceased within what was formerly New York City. Immense business blocks, hotels, and apartment houses have been going up by the hundreds, and population has been growing apace; but the people of Manhattan Island are dwelling more and more in tenement-houses and apartment buildings. The separate house belongs to the dwellers north of the Harlem River, in Brooklyn, and in the Long Island, Staten Island, and New Jersey suburbs. Most of the few houses now built from year to year belong to men of great wealth.

*Ohio's New
Code for
Cities.*

The new municipal code of Ohio went into effect on November 15. It had been prepared, as our readers will remember, at a special session of the Legislature called by reason of decisions of the Supreme Court of the State. Ohio's constitution requires that cities should be chartered under

the terms of general law. Ingenious evasions by the Legislature had gradually built up for each city a separate code of charter legislation, so that no two municipalities in Ohio were governed alike. The new system cannot be given unqualified praise; it lacks scientific balance, and fails to focus responsibility. The English system, which centers everything in one board of directors called the town council, is the simplest form of city government; and in the long run, other things being equal, it is the best. The American method has been to divide authority between an elected municipal council and the mayor, with a strong tendency in recent years to centralize in the mayor an almost complete and unrestricted power of appointment and of control over executive business. The new Ohio plan is hard to classify, and difficult to understand, except as it is examined concretely. There is a council, which in the large towns is principally elected from wards, with a small proportion elected on general ticket. The mayor, of course, is elected by the people, and he has considerable power of appointment and removal, and has a veto power upon the acts of the council.

*A Complicated
Mechanism.*

But it is neither in the hands of the mayor nor yet in the city council that the principal administrative authority is reposed, but rather in a separate body called the board of public service, consisting of three or five members elected by the people on general ticket, having charge of all public works and contracts, with an immense appointive power

and authority to fix both the numbers and the pay of the people employed. The only check, we are told, that the council has upon this board lies in the council's general power to refuse appropriations of money. The chiefs of the police and fire departments are to be appointed by the mayor. But there is also a so-called board of safety, which seems to have charge of the business affairs of both fire and police departments. This is a board of small membership, not elected by the people, like the public service board, but appointed by the mayor subject to confirmation by a two-thirds vote of the council. The Ohio enactment is, of course, a well-intended instrument, with many meritorious provisions. Our one sweeping criticism of it is that it does not center responsibility anywhere, and that some of its attempts to protect the people against themselves by mechanical devices will be found more embarrassing than useful. The important thing after all is not so much the mechanism of municipal government as the way in which the citizens use whatever system they have. Any kind of municipal machinery can be made productive of good results in the hands of good men.

*Chicago's
Municipal
Situation.*

In Chicago, a so-called New Charter Convention, made up of men of local prominence, was at work last month devising plans for making possible a much-needed improvement of Chicago's municipal system, together with radical changes in the financial and taxation methods, to give the city an adequate revenue. In order that the Legislature may make the desired charter changes, it will be necessary to amend the Illinois State constitution. A mayoralty election occurs in the coming spring, and two candidates for the Republican nomination came out last month. One of these is Mr. John M. Harlan, son of Justice Harlan, who made so remarkable a run for the mayoralty as an independent candidate in 1897; the other candidate is Mr. Graeme Stewart, who is the Illinois member of the Republican National Committee. It is thought quite possible that the present Democratic mayor, Carter H. Harrison, may run for a fourth term.

*The "Augean
Stables" of
St. Louis.*

From St. Louis came the news last month that on December 19 five more boodlers, all members of the House of Delegates, which is the lower branch of the city's legislative body, were sentenced to terms of five years in the penitentiary for taking bribes. It was shown that they belonged to a group of men who had combined to grant the Suburban Railway franchise in return for a fund of \$75,000 supplied by the promoters of that

enterprise. As a result of the recent attempt to punish bribe-givers and bribe-takers in St. Louis, thirteen men have been found guilty and sentenced. Nothing so sweeping, perhaps, in the way of exposure of wrongdoing has occurred in any American city since the overthrow of the "Tweed Ring" in New York. It had been well known for some years that in both branches of the Municipal Assembly were corrupt combines, organized for granting franchises and privileges. Just one year ago, a new circuit attorney, Mr. Joseph W. Folks, a young man only thirty-two years old, came into office. He began a single-handed fight against tremendous odds. The reputable business men of St. Louis, for the most part, did not dare to identify themselves with the stirring up of a situation that might have very wide bearings. Mr. Folks began to investigate, and then to prosecute, with great results to show for a year's brave work. Besides the men who have been convicted, many others are under indictment, and others have fled.

*The
Truth About
Minneapolis.*

After all, it is not the city which eventually exposes and punishes its rascals that is in so sorry a plight as the city which goes on comfortably and smugly, either condoning or ignoring the bad conditions that prevail. Minneapolis, for example, has had much unpleasant notoriety as a result of the misdeeds of the recent Ames administration; but it does not follow that this Northwestern city is worse than others, or even as bad as most. The fact is that Minneapolis, upon the whole, has been one of the most reputable and well-conducted cities in the entire country. The election of Ames as mayor was due, more than anything else, to the curious working of the new primary law, which unexpectedly gave him the Republican nomination,—a result almost as absurd as would be the nomination of Richard Croker by the Republicans of New York. Ames had previously served several terms as Democratic mayor, and had run the city in avowed imitation of New-York Tammany methods. It is greatly to the credit of Minneapolis that the misdeeds of the administration last year were promptly exposed and punished. The remainder of the unexpired term was served out by the president of the Council, Mr. Jones, a man whose ability and character would do honor to any city in the world. Mr. Jones refused to be a candidate for mayor at the recent election, but the voters chose Mr. Haynes, a Democratic lawyer. We are assured that Mr. Haynes was elected by the aid of the independent vote purely on merit, the Republican ticket otherwise prevailing by a large majority.

Congress at Work.

Congress entered upon its work with unusual earnestness and diligence at the beginning of December, meaning to accomplish more than is usually done before the Christmas vacation. The appropriation bills were well advanced in committee, and one or two important ones were passed through both houses, with others reported and under consideration. The pension bill, which went through with little delay, calls for practically \$140,000,000, this being about the usual amount. The total estimates,—that is to say, the amounts asked for altogether by the different departments of the executive government,—amount to almost \$600,000,000. The present and prospective revenues of the Government are ample, in spite of the recent sacrifice of the special taxes levied for Spanish-American War purposes. There have been important hearings before many committees, and a good deal of business of first-class importance is under serious consideration this winter at Washington. The Senate last month gave particular attention to the Statehood question, discussed in our December number, and the House showed lively interest in the subject of regulating the trusts and corporations.

The Statehood Contest.

We have little need to take up again at length the subject of the admission of Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico, except to report briefly the situation at Washington. The committee of which Senator Beveridge is chairman made an admirable report, based upon a thorough investigation of facts and upon broad principles of statesmanship and Constitutional history. The report recommended the restoration of old lines by bringing together Oklahoma and the Indian Territory into one commonwealth, which should be promptly admitted to the Union. This was wholly wise and right from every standpoint, and to our ample knowledge it is in accordance with the wishes and judgment of the people of Oklahoma who represent the best public opinion. The bill for the admission of Oklahoma was presented and advocated by Senator Nelson, of Minnesota, in a cogent speech. The majority of the committee



HON. KNUTE NELSON.

(Who introduced the bill for the admission of Oklahoma.)

further reported its most unqualified condemnation of the proposal to admit Arizona and New Mexico. The summarized report, together with the volume of printed evidence, will suffice to convince any disinterested person of the validity of the objections to the present admission of New Mexico and Arizona. The debate is to be taken up again on January 5. There has been an immense amount of lobbying and logrolling in favor of admission, and Senator Quay, of Pennsylvania, who is in charge of the measure, declares that he has on his list enough Senators to make the passage of the bill certain.

Will the President Veto the Bill?

If that be the case—which we doubt—the responsibility will have to be faced by President Roosevelt. The Omnibus bill was logrolled through the House of Representatives with very little consideration. The clause in the last Republican national platform in favor of the “early” admission of New Mexico and Arizona was slipped in,—as minor provisions are often inserted in such platforms,—by the alertness of a few interested parties like Mr. Quay, and it altogether escaped scrutiny and discussion. It would be ridiculous to say that its accidental presence there made it any essential part of the creed of the Republican party. The intelligence and best sentiment of Republicans throughout the whole country are absolutely against the Statehood project. The Democrats are supporting Statehood for strictly party reasons, which everybody familiar with politics understands. The Republican Senators who are committed to the bill are not regarded as supporting it upon public grounds, but in fulfillment of pledges either given inadvertently at some former time, or else on personal or so-called logrolling considerations. If President Roosevelt should veto the bill, the country would accept the result with genuine satisfaction. The country is, in fact, entirely prepared for a veto. It would be surprised, and perhaps shocked, if the President should allow the Omnibus bill to become a law.

The Trust Question at Washington.

It is as yet very uncertain what Congress will do about the trust question. The House last month passed a bill appropriating \$500,000 for the use of the Government in the further attempt to enforce the Sherman anti-trust law as it stands. The vote was taken on the 17th, quite unexpectedly, and was forced by the Democrats as an amendment during the debate on the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill. Meanwhile, a very large number of general measures relating to trusts had been introduced in both

houses and referred to committees. In the House, these bills have gone to the Judiciary Committee, where they have, in turn, been referred to a sub-committee to deal with that particular question, consisting of Mr. Littlefield, of Maine, Mr. Overstreet, of Indiana, Mr. Powers, of Massachusetts, Mr. De Armond, of Missouri, and Mr. Clayton, of Alabama. There is much difference of opinion in Congress as to the desirability of a Constitutional amendment to increase the authority of Congress to deal with corporations doing interstate business. The prevailing Republican opinion seems to be moving toward the suggestions made by Attorney-General Knox several months ago, in his speech at Pittsburg. Mr. Knox holds that Congress has more power than has yet been drawn upon, and that it will be in order to make some amendments to existing laws. The House sub-committee quite early in its deliberations last month agreed upon a leading feature of the bill it was preparing. This feature is a provision for publicity through compulsory reports of certain corporations to the Interstate Commerce Commission. It amounts to a virtual adoption by the Judiciary Committee of Mr. Littlefield's measure, about which a good deal has been said for several months.

*Littlefield
at the Helm.*

The Littlefield plan provides that every corporation or joint-stock company doing interstate business shall make an annual return of certain prescribed information, similar in some respects to the reports that corporations in the States of Massachusetts and New York, for example, make to the State authorities. Mr. Littlefield for a time was regarded rather as a free lance and an independent factor than an authorized spokesman for the policy of the Republican party in the matter of dealing with the trusts, but since the November elections seemed so fully to sustain the position of President Roosevelt both on trusts in general and on the anthracite monopoly in particular, Mr. Littlefield's position has been altogether changed. More than any other man in the House of Representatives, he is now regarded as in a position to draft, and to push to a successful vote, an important measure for the regulation of the great corporations. The new chairman of the Judiciary Committee is Mr. Jenkins, of Wisconsin, who succeeds to that post by virtue of the retirement of Mr. Ray, of New York, who was appointed to a United States District judgeship by President Roosevelt. But the Judiciary Committee has a vast amount of general business to attend to, and the trust question will doubtless be left largely to the management of the sub-committee headed by Mr. Littlefield.

The Senate will, of course, deal with the subject in its own way. Mr. Hoar, of Massachusetts, chairman of the Senate Judiciary Committee, has himself prepared a trust bill, which he received permission to file during the vacation in order that it might be in the hands of the Senate on its reassembling early in January. One thing is more apparent each month,—namely, that the merits and the demerits of the so-called trust methods of doing business are being better understood

*Trusts in the
Senate.*



HON. CHARLES E. LITTLEFIELD, OF MAINE.

all the time. Some simple steps in legislation looking, first, toward greater publicity and, second, toward the prevention of a few definite evils, might doubtless be taken at once without detriment. Anything very elaborate or novel could not at present be carried through the Senate, and would probably in any case be premature and unwise.

*The
Tariff and
Reciprocity.*

It is evident enough that no important direct action about the tariff is going to be taken this winter, although one or two slight amendments may be passed, and some important beginnings of indirect modification through reciprocity treaties may be hoped for. It is likely, for example, that the tariff on anthracite coal will be abolished. A more important proposition, though not likely to pass,



HON. JOHN J. JENKINS.

(New chairman House Committee on Judiciary.)

looks toward an arrangement with England and Canada for free trade in coal of all kinds across the line between the Dominion and the United States. Senator Cullom, now chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, began the session by a resolute attempt to secure the ratification of the long-delayed reciprocity treaty with France. He met, however, with discouraging opposition from some of the foremost Republican Senators. The reciprocity treaty with Newfoundland, to which we referred last month, is not finding favor with the representatives of the fishery interests of Maine and Massachusetts. The fishermen of Gloucester have gone before the Foreign Relations Committee in force to oppose the ratification of the treaty. We have as yet no indication as to the result. The New England Senators, however, stand behind their fishermen.

The Cuban Treaty.

Reciprocity with Cuba, however, seems to be altogether probable. With the friendly and skillful aid of Gen. Tasker H. Bliss, who was sent to Havana for the purpose, the Cubans overhauled our draft of a proposed reciprocity treaty until it was acceptable to them and was duly approved by the Havana authorities. In this shape it was forwarded to the Senate by President Roosevelt

on December 17. It is understood that as regards sugar the measure provides for a reduction of 20 per cent. on the Cuban product from existing Dingley tariff rates. Important reciprocal concessions, of course, are made upon a variety of American commodities entering the Cuban ports. There seems to be a good prospect that the Senate will ratify the treaty, although a dispute exists between the Senate and the House as to the final steps necessary to give effect to a treaty that affects the public revenues. The treaty-making power is lodged by Congress in the hands of the President, who acts by the advice and consent of the Senate. But the initiation of revenue measures, under the Constitution, belongs to the House of Representatives. A reciprocity treaty that modifies import duties is certainly a revenue measure. This difference of opinion between the houses is not likely to be allowed to delay an arrangement with Cuba.

Problems of the Philippines.

We hear very little from the Philippines nowadays, and it may fairly be inferred that no news is good news,—that is to say, that matters are running on with comparative smoothness. The great difficulties now to be faced there seem to be economic rather than political or military. Secretary Root and the Philippine Commission have worked out an excellent constabulary system, quasi-military in its character, making very large employment of natives as peace officers. It is planned to detail to some extent the officers of the United States army to hold permanent positions in the Philippine constabulary, and the recommendation,—in which the army, the War Department, and the Philippine Commission all concur,—seems to meet with favor in Congress. Under Governor Taft and his able associates, the civil administration is reasonably successful, and progress is reported in many directions. Mr. Atkinson, who had been superintendent of schools, has retired, and he has been succeeded by an exceptionally able educator, Mr. Elmer B. Bryan, of Indiana, who carried to the Philippines a high reputation as a normal-school man, which he has since increased by the ability he has shown in establishing and supervising normal instruction in the archipelago.

Urgent Economic Measures.

It will be remembered that Congress at the last session fixed the tariff rates between the United States and the Philippines at 75 per cent. of those regularly proposed by the Dingley law. It is now urgently asked by the Philippine Commission that these tariff rates should be reduced to 25 per cent. Chairman Payne, of the Ways and Means Com-

mittee, reported this bill favorably on December 17. The Democrats favored the removal of all duties and the establishment of free trade between this country and the Philippines. The Republicans favored the retention of a 25 per cent. duty, because low enough not to obstruct trade, while rendering very material assistance to the Philippine treasury. Vice-Gov. Luke E. Wright, of the Philippine Commission, who spent much of last month in Washington, strongly urged the reduction of the tariff, and the measure will doubtless become a law in the near future. General Wright was not alone insistent upon the necessity of doing something to establish a satisfactory currency situation in the islands. Great confusion has arisen lately as a result of the depreciation of silver. In one form or another, it has become absolutely necessary to establish the gold standard in the islands. Our presence in the Philippines, while in some respects vindicated by results, cannot be regarded as a brilliant success until it has relieved the present paralysis of agriculture and commerce and brought about a state of prosperity not simply normal but in advance of anything ever known before. The proposed tariff measure will help, and a proper adjustment of the currency trouble will be of still more use. The labor problem will continue to afford difficulties, however, and to this topic Professor Jenks gives much consideration in his thoroughgoing report on certain economic questions in the far East. Professor Jenks regards it as highly essential to the prosperity of the Philippines that there should be a prompt introduction of American and foreign capital, with railroad-building and the opening up of mines and the establishment of enterprises in a large way. But the difficulty of getting efficient labor seems to him to stand in the way of such enterprises. He proposes, therefore, with certain restrictions, to open the doors again to the incoming of Chinese coolie laborers. This proposal has met not only with newspaper criticism in this country, but with organized opposition from labor unions and other representative bodies.



PROFESSOR J. W. JENKS.

*Professor
Jenks' Pro-
posals.*

Professor Jenks had been appointed in August, 1901, as special commissioner of the War Department to report upon economic questions, particularly in the English and Dutch colonies of the Orient. Our readers have had the benefit, in two recent articles, of Professor Jenks' observations in the East. His report to the Secretary of War deals especially with currency systems, labor, taxation, and police systems. It is a very compact and careful review of the subjects it takes up. It indorses Mr. Conant's recommendations as to

Philippine currency reform, — which, in the main, are doubtless to be approved by Congress this winter. Its most striking contribution is in its discussion of the labor question, whether or not its conclusions may be wise. It advocates a system of registration of Chinese laborers and their admission to the Philippines on the plan of a three years' contract system. Perhaps, however, its most important statements and proposals are those that relate to the land tax and land tenure. The recommendations are intended to protect the native Filipino landowners and to develop their prosperity. Mr. Jenks, in his discussion of the police system, pays a high compliment to what

he calls the already splendid force of the constabulary of the Philippines. This is one of the many triumphs of the War Department under the administration of Secretary Root.

*Mr. Root's
Chief Meas-
ures.*

The matters of most importance in the Secretary's annual report are those dealing with the creation of an army general staff and the reorganization of the militia system of the country. These matters involve profound changes and are of permanent consequence. If, as seems probable, Congress should adopt Mr. Root's suggestions in both regards, it will have participated, this winter, in constructive statesmanship of a high order. His general-staff system is intended to rid us of that sort of perplexing duality resulting from the fact that we have at one and the same time a general acting as commander-in-chief, re-

garding himself as at the head of the army administration, and a Constitutional authority reposed in the President to act as commander-in-chief, carrying on military administration through the portfolio of the Secretary of War. The change desired by Secretary Root would make the commanding general a chief of staff. All the heads of the supply departments would report directly to the chief of staff rather than directly to the Secretary of War.

*The
Desired
Staff System.* In actual practice, the change gives the chief of staff decidedly greater power than is now exercised by the commanding general of the army; but it gets rid of that traditional parallelism of military and civil authority that one finds in the armed nations of Europe, and that does not at all belong to a republic like ours. The internal organization of the army must continue to be regulated upon military principles; but its external relation to the country should not be different from that of any other branch of the public service, but should—in the most direct and unambiguous way—be subordinated to the President and his executive advisers. General Schofield and most of our best army authorities are heartily in favor of Secretary Root's plan. General Miles is opposed to the plan. General Miles, however, will retire in six or seven months, and it is Secretary Root's desire that his proposed new system should not be put into effect until after General Miles' retirement. The successor of General Miles is to be General Young, who, as it happens, is in favor of Mr. Root's plan, and would take the position of chief of staff with willingness and acceptability.

*An Improved
National
Militia.* Mr. Root's other foremost recommendation relates to the militia system. This matter has been under consideration for some time. The War Department presented a bill in the last session which secured a thorough canvassing among the officers of the National Guard organizations of the country, and, with their hearty approval, was favorably reported by the House committee and was duly passed by the House. It was introduced in the Senate by General Hawley, long chairman of the Military Affairs Committee, but now, we much regret to say, seriously ill and absent—it is feared permanently—from his seat in the Senate. It is proposed to make the National Guard more efficient than ever before, to make it the great school for the volunteer soldier, and to bring it into closer relations than ever with the regular army in the defensive system of the country. To that end it is to be furnished with

the same arms used by the regular army, is to participate in the army manœuvres and field exercises each year, and is to receive honorable recognition in such ways as would make young men the more willing to belong to militia organizations. Mr. Root's recommendations regarding the creation of a militia especially trained to join in the work of coast defense, and to be instructed in the care and use of big guns and the machinery of fortifications, are of particular interest. He mentions with commendation the work of the First Massachusetts Heavy Artillery, praises the Connecticut artillery organization which took part in the recent seacoast manœuvres, mentions the Thirteenth New York Heavy Artillery, and advises the further development of these special branches of the militia.

*Supporting
Our Minister
of Finance.* It is pleasant indeed to find the well-considered suggestions of the heads of the executive departments received in so business-like a manner as Congress seems disposed to accord them in the present session. Secretary Shaw's annual report, which covers many topics with fascinating lucidity and directness, strongly urges the adoption of a plan of elastic bank currency to meet such money stringencies as have recently occurred. This recommendation has been acted upon promptly by the House, and Mr. Fowler, chairman of the Committee on Banking and Currency, reported before the Christmas holidays an excellent bill allowing banks to issue credit currency to the amount of 25 per cent. of their paid-up and unimpaired capital. The bill makes proper safeguards, and is in the line of measures recommended by most of the best banking authorities of the country. Why such a measure is needed is exceedingly well shown in an article in this number of the REVIEW from the pen of Mr. Conant, who describes the extraordinary measures resorted to by Secretary Shaw during the autumn to relieve the unsatisfied demand for currency. The first annual report made by Mr. Ridgeley, the new Comptroller of the Currency, among other noteworthy data brings out the striking fact that the growth of banking capital in the United States is so great as to amount to almost one-half of that of the whole civilized world. Mr. Roberts, the Director of the Mint, informs us that the Treasury holds now about \$500,000,000 of coined gold, which, he says, "is doubtless more than will be called for in a generation to come." There is, besides, one-quarter of that amount on hand in the form of uncoined gold bullion. Secretary Shaw deals frankly with the problem of the treasury's stock of silver, and would make it redeemable in gold.



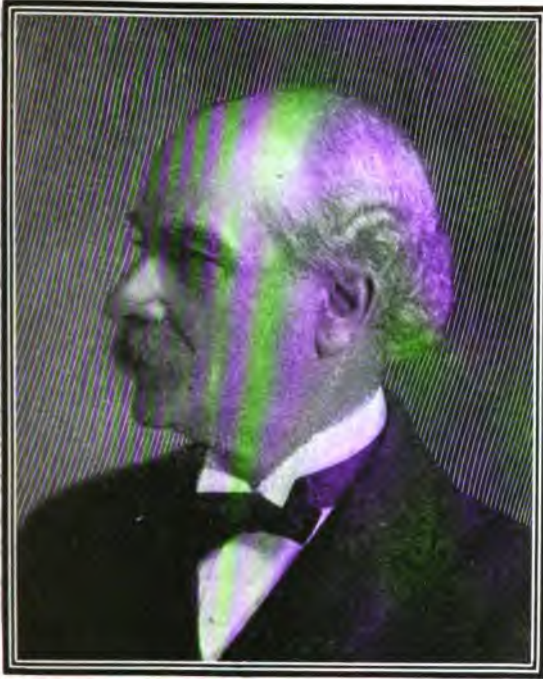
HON. CHAS. N. FOWLER, OF NEW JERSEY.
(Whose report favors a new kind of bank currency.)

Postal Affairs. The Post Office Department may point with pride to its increasing freedom from political influence in the matter of appointments, especially in the fourth-class post offices, in which, under Mr. Payne's administration, the principle of permanency of tenure has been substituted for that of a four years' rotation, with a surprising reduction in the percentage of changes. Some interesting innovations are proposed by Mr. Payne, such as the placing of letter-boxes on street cars. Labor men oppose this idea on the ground that it would give street cars the sanctity of United States mail carriers, which might lead Uncle Sam to interfere with possible trolley strikes. The Post Office Department seems not wholly agreed as yet upon the financial bearings of the rapid extension of the free-delivery system. In one matter we think that the department is advocating a mistaken and ill-considered change. It proposes to draw an arbitrary line between what it calls "genuine newspapers" and other periodicals, withdrawing from these periodicals the present second-class rate of a cent a pound, and charging their subscribers at a rate four times as high as would be charged for newspapers. It is true that there has been a great growth in the volume of second-class matter carried through the mails, and that it is carried at much less than it appears to cost the Government. But, on the other hand, the postal department is paying the railroads for carrying this matter enormously more than ought to be paid.

An Unfair Proposal. What the Post Office Department now proposes is to charge the reading people of the United States four times as much as at present for the distribution of their periodical literature, in order to continue an outrageous excess of compensation to the great railroad monopolies of the country for doing their part of the business. Furthermore, it seems to us a most arbitrary, invalid, and mischievous distinction that is proposed when the Post Office Department would give advantages to the bulky sensational Sunday newspapers of the country that it would deny to the religious and general weeklies, and to the carefully edited periodicals which disseminate political, scientific, and other useful information. The Post Office Department will have to give the country some evidence of its ability to make proper contracts for carrying the mails, and to stem the gigantic abuses on the side of its expenditures, before it can expect the American people to indorse its proposal to charge four times what they now pay for bringing to their doors the periodicals, whether agricultural, scientific, political, informational, or literary, that contribute so much to the education, the culture, and the contentment of American home life. We may add that there seems to be no evidence that the newspapers of the country have ever asked or desired a discrimination which fair-minded editors would all readily admit to be without any reasonable basis whatsoever.

In Mr. Hitchcock's Great Department. The report of Mr. Hitchcock, Secretary of the Interior, deals very prominently with the subject of the unlawful fencing of public lands. The Government proposes to act rigorously against offenders. Apropos of that topic, our readers are particularly invited to read the instructive article by President E. Benjamin Andrews, of the University of Nebraska, published in this number of the REVIEW, on "The American Ox and His Pasture." In view of the oft-repeated statement that the trust movement is checking the spirit of American invention, it is to be noted that Mr. Hitchcock's report tells us that the volume of work in the Patent Office during the past year is greater than ever before in its history, the total number of applications filed having for the first time exceeded fifty thousand. Mr. Hitchcock's report, as a whole, covers a great number of topics of stupendous magnitude relating to the development of the country, such as irrigation and mineral resources, the work of the Geological Survey, the national parks and reservations, and the Territories. The total Indian population of the United States is now placed by

the department at 269,306. The progress of the Indians toward civilization is said to be marked.



HON. ETHAN ALLEN HITCHCOCK.
(Secretary of the Interior.)

Our Naval Expansion.

The most striking statement in the report of Mr. Moody, Secretary of the Navy, is the one that conveys the information that the fighting strength of the American navy, counting ships launched, under construction, and authorized by acts of Congress, has increased to four times what it was at the beginning of the war with Spain. It is the policy of the Government to keep the army at the lowest safe minimum, while continuing to build up the navy. The work of construction is unfortunately subject to unsatisfactory delays. For some reason, American shipyards do not seem to turn out vessels nearly as fast as the British and German yards. We are in particular need of a greatly increased number of naval officers to man the new ships. Mr. Moody recommends the continuance without interruption of the increase of our vessels, and especially asks that two new battleships should be among those to be ordered at this session of Congress.

Dewey in the Caribbean Sea.

It is worth while to note the following tribute to Admiral Dewey with which Secretary Moody closes his splendid and spirited report :

I cannot close this report without acknowledging the sympathy, coöperation, and aid which I have received from the admiral of the navy. As president of the General Board of the Navy, his services have been of great value to the department and the fleet. The security of his own fame has not lessened his interest in the service or diminished his effort for its improvement. His zealous earnestness in the cause is the good fortune of the department, and gives him an added title to the favor of the nation.

There was a certain widespread satisfaction throughout the United States, last month, in the fact that Admiral Dewey happened to be in command of our North Atlantic, South Atlantic, and European squadrons, all assembled as one great American fleet in the Caribbean Sea, engaged in certain winter manœuvres and naval games, at the time when the coöperating German and English squadrons were off the Venezuelan coast in belligerent array. There was not, indeed, the slightest practical danger of any collision with the United States ; yet a part of the feeling of calmness and confidence that pervaded this country was evidently due to the fact that we now have a pretty good navy, and that the greater part of its fighting strength was assembled in the vicinity of Venezuela, with Admiral Dewey in command. Admiral Dewey, last month, cabled the following list to show the distribution of the ships under his command for the Christmas holiday period :

Proposed itinerary of vessels for Christmas holidays :
Kearsarge, Alabama, Massachusetts, Iowa, Scorpion,



YANKEE DEWEY'S NEAR LA GUAYRA,
YANKEE DEWEY DANDY.
MAYBE JUST AS WELL TO HAVE OUR
YANKEE DEWEY HANDY.

—From the Tribune (Minneapolis.)

to Trinidad; *Illinois*, *Indiana*, *Hist*, to St. Thomas; *Texas*, to Pointe à Pitre; *Chicago*, *Newark*, *Eagle*, to Curaçao; *San Francisco*, *Albany*, *Wasp*, to Mayaguez; *Cincinnati*, *Atlanta*, *Pratice*, tugs and torpedo, to San Juan; *Culgoa*, to Mayaguez and San Juan; *Olympia*, *Nashville*, *Machias*, to St. Kitts; *Detroit*, to Antigua; *Mayflower* and *Vixen*, to Porto Rican waters and vicinity, and *Dolphin* to Antigua and vicinity.

The President Has Earned New Year's Compliments. President Roosevelt is entitled to New Year's congratulations on many grounds. He is restored to perfect health after his trying experiences of the summer and autumn. He and his family are now comfortably housed in a White House that is completely transformed as respects its interior arrangements, adornments, and fitness for the purposes of a President's home. All visitors to Washington will naturally be interested in the totally altered public rooms as they now appear. The cabinet room and executive offices, which took up a large part of the second floor, have been removed, and the space thus gained is restored to private uses. A new office for the President and the clerical force under the President's secretary has been built in a very plain and simple way on the western edge of the White House grounds, and is connected with the mansion by corridors which take the place of the old conservatories. In his official capacity, the President is to be congratulated on the fact that the principal recommendations of his message to Congress have been taken hold of with energy and good-will. Some of the chief sections of that paper dealt with the trust question, the Cuban reciprocity question, the creation of a department of commerce, the legislation needed for the Philippines, the army and navy, improved currency, and so on.

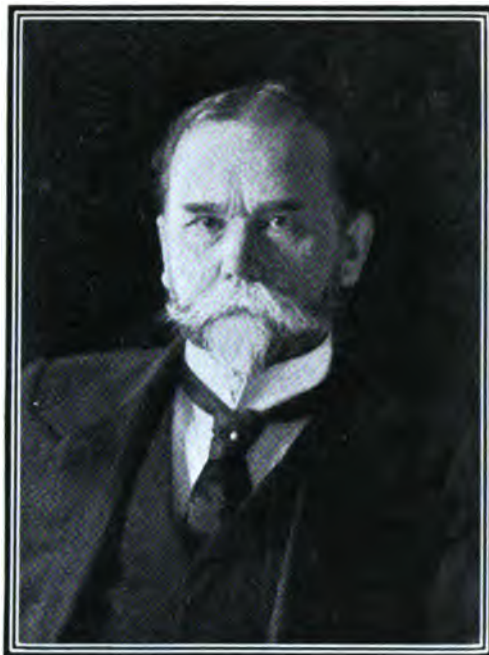


Photo by Pach Bros., New York.

HON. JOHN HAY, SECRETARY OF STATE.

Our Good Relations Abroad.

From the larger standpoint of world relations, the President is to be congratulated upon the maintenance of unbroken friendliness with all powers, great and small, and the undoubted increase of cordiality toward our government on the part of the other chief governments of the world. It is a striking commentary upon the growth both of good feeling and of good manners in the intercourse of great states that there was no appearance of the slightest acerbity or unpleasant-



(The President's private office.)



(The cabinet room.)

INTERIOR VIEWS IN THE NEW EXECUTIVE OFFICE BUILDING, ADJOINING THE WHITE HOUSE.

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Photo copyrighted, 1902, by Clineinst, Washington.

THE PRESIDENT'S NEW OFFICES, WEST OF THE WHITE HOUSE.

ness in the important discussions that were taking place between our State Department last month and numerous other governments, European and South American, relating to the Venezuelan situation. Yet nobody could say that President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay were remiss in their upholding of the Monroe Doctrine, or indifferent to the great desire of the American people that all points in dispute should be submitted to arbitration. We may congratulate the President, therefore, upon his administration at home as a working success in all its departments and relationships, and upon the high regard in which he is held by foreign nations, which at the same time understand him to be thoroughly and aggressively American.

*Proposed
Edifices at
Washington.*

Besides the alterations of the White House and the modest new offices in which the President now does business, there are other matters of architectural interest to be noted at Washington, these, however, being chiefly prospective. For one thing, both Houses have passed the important measure for a union railroad station to be located north of the one at present used by the Baltimore & Ohio road. The Pennsylvania road is to remove its tracks from the Mall, which it now disfigures, and is to enter Washington by a tunnel between the Capitol and Library buildings. The Government is to provide a plaza park in front of the new monumental station, besides contributing \$2,000,000 toward the cost of the improvement, the railroads paying at least as much. For a good while there has been under contempla-

tion a fine building for the purposes of the Supreme Court and the Department of Justice. The Supreme Court now occupies quarters in the Capitol building. It is probable that both Houses will accept the reports of their committees in favor of a building to be placed on the ground north of the Congressional Library, to cost about \$7,000,000. It is also expected that the lower House will complete the Senate legislation of last year making a liberal appropriation for a new building for the Department of Agriculture. Under Mr. Wilson's enthusiastic labors as Secretary, that department is justifying its existence in manifold directions.

*Non-Employ-
ment and
Distress in
England.*

In contrast with the widely diffused prosperity among all classes in the United States, it is sad to note the misery among the English poor in this midwinter season. It was reported last month that half a million workers were idle in the United Kingdom because of the depression of industry, the situation in that respect being worse than at any time in ten years. It happens that a good many of the suffering poor belong to the class known as reservist soldiers, of which class 70,000 who had left civil employment at the call of the government to fight in South Africa have returned to England, in large part to find their places filled with other workmen. Thousands of men, and women, too, this winter are received every night at the Salvation Army shelters throughout the great English capital. In view of these conditions, it was natural that especial interest should be displayed in labor problems, and in such in-

dustrial questions as the reorganization and revival of British industry. To this end, the greatest attention is being paid in England to the introduction of improved American methods.

The Education Bill Passed. The session of Parliament ended on December 18, and the houses will reconvene after a two months' vacation.

The one overshadowing achievement of the parliamentary term was the passage of the long-pending education bill. It secured a majority of 123 in the House of Commons, and, of course, being a Tory measure, went through the House of Lords with little opposition. It might be said that the passage of this bill, which had been proceeding almost interminably, and which seemed at one time doomed to failure, was a triumph for an American statesman who died at about the time it reached its final vote in the House of Commons. It could not have been passed except by a ruthless application of what the English call the principle of closure,—the limiting of debate to a minimum,—and the rapid disposal of the bill section by section. It was the late Thomas B. Reed, as Speaker of the House of Representatives, who taught the great parliamentary bodies of the world that in our age they were expected to do business rather than to talk perpetually, and he, more than any other man, helped to bring about the adoption of new parliamentary rules under which the majority succeeds in having its way without too much obstruction or loss of time.

A Settlement That Will Not Settle. We have asked Mr. W. T. Stead to sum up for us the main features of the new education act, and his article will be found in this number. People interested in popular education and modern democracy the world over will watch the operation of this measure with the keenest interest. We may merely add that it seems to us that Mr. James Bryce, the great parliamentary opponent of the measure, was right in pronouncing the bill a fresh deed of Church establishment that would mean not the settlement of the education question so much as the inevitable opening again of the larger question of the position in the country of the Church of England. The great leaders of Nonconformity were as powerfully arrayed against this bill as the Church of England authorities, with the Archbishop of Canterbury at their head, were in favor of it. Foremost of these Nonconformist leaders was the Rev. Dr. Clifford, the most conspicuous of the Baptists of the United Kingdom. Two great Nonconformist preachers, by the way, have died within a few weeks. One of these was the Rev. Dr. Joseph

Parker, a Congregationalist, and the other Hugh Price Hughes, a Wesleyan Methodist. Both were well known in the United States and throughout the English-speaking world.

As to Subsidies—Ships and Sugar. A committee of the House of Commons has reported in absolute condemnation of the principle of shipping subsidies, and this report is likely to determine England's general policy. It does not, of course, affect the contract already made with the Cunard Line. The report takes the ground that German shipping success is not due in any decisive manner to governmental subsidies, but to unaided energy and commercial intelligence. If the education bill was a triumph for Mr. Arthur Balfour, the Prime Minister, the approval by the House of Commons of the Brussels Sugar Convention was a personal victory for his brother, Mr. Gerald Balfour, who holds in the cabinet a position equivalent to that of a minister of commerce. The Cobden Club and many English economists were opposed to the Brussels Convention for the simple reason that they regarded the Continental bounties on sugar exports as amounting to a bonus of thirty to forty million dollars a year to the people of England. Mr. Balfour based his argument principally upon the relief to the British West Indies that would result from a restoration to normal conditions of the world's sugar markets. It is obviously true that the improved price of sugar which has come so fortunately to Cuba's relief is in part



THE LATE JOSEPH PARKER, D.D., OF LONDON.



BARON VON RICHTHOFEN, GERMAN FOREIGN MINISTER.



LORD LANSDOWNE, BRITISH FOREIGN MINISTER.

(Two eminent foreign ministers who were acting in coöperation last month to compel a settlement of disputes with a South American republic.)

due to the advance effect of the agreement under which the bounty system is soon to be abolished. The broader free-trade position, of course, was that in favor of the abolition of the artificial bounty system, and on this ground Mr. Chamberlain made a great speech in reply to his most brilliant antagonist, Sir William Harcourt.

Mr. Chamberlain and South Africa.

This was the last of Mr. Chamberlain's debating triumphs before setting sail for South Africa, whither he went with great acclaim, and with nothing short of vice-regal state and pomp. Mr. Chamberlain is so efficient a man that there is no reason to doubt in advance that he will be able to render practical service to the British Empire by spending some weeks in Cape Colony and the newly acquired British possessions. It is important to note the fact that Generals Botha, De Wet, and Delarey gave up their proposed trip to the United States in order to be in South Africa to meet and confer with Mr. Chamberlain. General Schalk-Burger and Messrs. Wessels and Wolmarans have also gone back to Africa. General Kritzinger has come on a visit to the United States. The new book by Mr. Krüger has attracted great European attention, though perhaps less successful than had been expected in the United States. General De Wet's book, on the other hand, has had a remarkably favorable reception here, as well as abroad. There must be much note worthy South African news in the near future.

Germany's New Tariff.

The most important news from Germany was the passage of the tariff bill. It had been freely predicted for a year that this measure, which has so largely absorbed the attention of all Germany, could never be passed. But, as in the case of the English education bill, the firm application of the closure principle carried the bill through to a final vote on December 14, when, in a form greatly modified from its original character, it passed the Reichstag by a vote of 202 to 100. It was approved by the Bundesrath four days later. It was pushed along by a new parliamentary rule requiring that the votes upon it should be taken by broad sections rather than by detailed items. The measure as passed is so full of compromises that it naturally does not please any element or faction; but it is regarded, upon the whole, as a triumph for the Agrarians, inasmuch as Chancellor von Bülow was obliged to accept most of their demands for higher duties on farm products than had been originally proposed by the government. In England, the broad policy for two generations has been the sacrifice of agricultural to manufacturing interests. Cheap foreign food and raw material is what England has wanted. Germany, however, while possessing highly developed new industries, remains to a very large extent a farming country, and it will be some time before the manufacturers, town dwellers, and industrial workers can completely prevail against the aris-

tocratic landowners and the farm peasantry. We shall in an early number of the REVIEW present an article explaining the German tariff situation in greater detail and setting forth some of the problems that have arisen in connection with it relating to wages, the export trade, and Germany's commercial relations with foreign countries.

*A Focus of
International
Concern.*

The Venezuela affair of last month, far from being an isolated event or topic, seemed to have more or less direct concern for every nation on the globe. Thus, all the republics of South and Central America were keenly alive to the principles involved, as well as to the happenings and to the methods pursued in the joint adventure of the English and German navies. Turkey and China were interested because they have both had recent experience of similar coercion at the hands of the European powers; and Greece and the smaller European countries had their own reasons for watching the situation. All the great powers of Europe were concerned, because any movement of an unusual sort by one is apt to have bearings upon all the others. The people of the United States felt it needful to follow events closely because of their firmly assumed responsibilities under the Monroe Doctrine.

*The Claims
Against
Venezuela.*

It is to be remembered, in the first place, that revolutions have succeeded one another with frequency in Venezuela, and that these have been desperate and destructive. President Castro himself was a revolutionary leader from a province on the slopes of the Andes who overthrew President Andrade in 1899; and within a very few years there have been several of these civil conflicts, not the least violent being the one led by General Matos, and practically crushed by Castro only a few weeks ago. Even without definite facts it would require only a moment's reflection to understand that these domestic struggles must have emptied the Venezuelan treasury, paralyzed internal and foreign trade, and largely dried up the sources of public revenue. It is also easy to understand that in the emergencies of such warfare the rights of private persons and property could not well be protected, and must indeed have been frequently violated by both of the fighting parties. There are a good many foreigners doing business in Venezuela, while other foreigners have investments there; and they have naturally made the most of any inconveniences or losses to which they were subjected by successive civil wars. Their complaints were in most cases at once made the subject of diplomatic argument.

*Germany's
Motives.*

As regards the French claims, an amicable arrangement was entered into some months ago for referring them to a mixed commission. The English claims, which even in their inflated form do not amount to much in the aggregate, might have been taken up in a friendly way and passed upon by a joint commission but for other complications. Much the largest claims were those which the Germans had succeeded in accumulating. There have been some reasons for more than a year to think that a certain German element was anxious to have the opportunity to use these claims as an excuse for making a naval demonstration in Venezuelan waters. The German Government has been straining everything at home to secure support for its policy of naval expansion; and it has been deliberately seeking opportunities in all parts of the world to assert German claims and protect German trade interests. This latest activity in South American waters might be regarded as merely an important incident in the general programme of German assertion. Such a policy may be wise, or unwise; but, such as it is, it had been entered upon by the German Emperor and his supporters in a bold, definite, clear-headed way.

*What Was Eng-
land About?*

Englishmen might well have wished that the conduct of their own government in joining Germany in this coercive movement against Venezuela was in equal measure the result of some clear, definite, and intelligent policy. But there seemed no good reasons at all why England should have consented to take such a course, and very many reasons why she should have abstained. Her very best efforts to discover British subjects with pecuniary claims against the forlorn South American republic resulted in a pitifully small total. It is true that England, as well as Germany, had sought in advance to avoid complications with the United States by explaining that she was not going to steal territory or violate anything that was understood to come within the scope of the Monroe Doctrine. But England, at least, should have known how very likely this joint expedition must be to arouse suspicion and incur disapproval in the United States, even though tolerated by our government; and England has of late professed to set great store by a good understanding with the United States.

*The Tory
Trend Toward
Mischief.*

At least it is very difficult to employ coercive measures against another country and yet maintain the fiction that such conduct is not warfare. And, in fact, the British vessels had scarcely reached the Vene-

zuelan harbor of La Guayra before they were committing acts that hardly came short of being flagrant warfare. Yet England ought to have had experience enough with her recent small wars to see the desirability of avoiding that kind of risk for some time to come. Thus, on the part of England, the sharing in Germany's enterprise was obviously without advantages of any kind, and fraught with no little possibility of harm and danger. It would be according too much credit to the present ruling clique in England to assign any deep and mysterious motive to the expedition. The true explanation was to be found in a sort of drifting inefficiency and slackness that marks the present *régime* in England. When sleepy old John Bull read his morning newspapers and learned of the wanton sinking of small and harmless Venezuelan vessels lying dismantled at their wharves, he began to ask in an astonished way what sort of scrape he had got himself into, and what in the world it was all about. All the English papers showed that this had not been contemplated, and that British public opinion was not prepared for such performances. The Tory government had followed its natural tendency toward getting into foreign mischief.

The German Enthusiasm.

In Germany, on the contrary, the press seemed pleased when the Venezuelan ships were sunk; the patriotic fervor was much increased when the news came of the shelling and destruction of the defenseless old forts at Puerto Cabello, and every succeeding report that indicated violence and barbarity on the part of the German navy was greeted with marked increase of satisfaction by the newspapers. The suggestion that a plan of arbitration might be arranged through the friendly offices of the United States was received in England with much favor, and with the evident hope that this might prove a good way to get out of an unpleasant predicament. In Germany, on the other hand, it was reported that the suggestion of arbitration was received rather sourly, and with a pretty evident sense of disappointment, lest Germany might be cheated out of a chance to commit further acts of aggression and smash additional Venezuelan crockery. German sentiment seemed to demand a chance to use the new and untried navy.

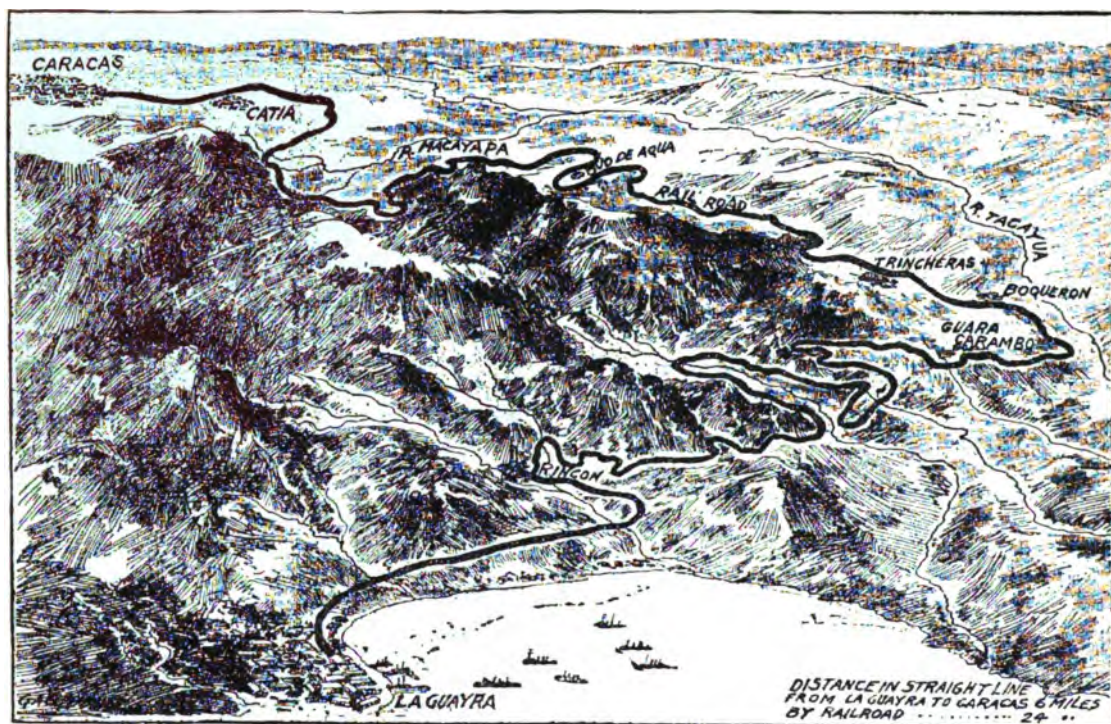
Governments as Claim Collectors.

The usage of nations has established it as a principle in international law that one government may assert claims against another on behalf of its citizens. Thus, the traveler suffering false imprisonment in a foreign country feels that his own government must secure justice for him, regardless of incon-

venience or cost; and, in like manner, if his property has been confiscated, he thinks it almost equally incumbent upon his government to interfere in his behalf. But while it is not easy to draw a line in theory, certainly there ought to be limits placed in practice upon the freedom with which adventurous travelers or traders may call upon their home governments to relieve their misfortunes or underwrite their bad investments. It would seem only reasonable that if an Englishman or a German should deliberately choose to take speculative chances in a South American republic of notoriously revolutionary proclivities, he ought to carry his own risks,—provide his own insurance, so to speak. We do not understand that Venezuela had repudiated debts due to foreigners, or had refused to make compensation for war damages, but only that Venezuela claimed to have some right to aid in auditing the bills and in fixing the amount of the damages; and further, that she naturally expected to be allowed some time in which to arrange her disordered finances.

How to Settle Money Claims.

In any case, it would seem as if the failure of a government to pay its debts to foreigners should not be made a cause of war. There are other means—and sufficient ones—by which disapproval may be shown without sending armed expeditions. It is plain that where such claims are made a matter of diplomatic discussion between nations they ought to be settled amicably by the governments concerned either (1) through the employment of what is called a “mixed commission” to examine into the validity of claims and to agree upon the facts, or else (2) through reference to arbitrators. The case of the French claims against Venezuela form an instance of the first sort. The two governments joined in the appointment of a board or commission to go into the details and agree upon amounts, Venezuela agreeing in advance to abide by the result. An instance of the second class has just been settled in the case of a dispute between Russia and the United States. Certain American citizens engaged in the fur-seal fisheries of the Bering Sea ventured, in the opinion of the Russians, too near the Siberian coast. Their vessels were accordingly pursued and seized by Russian armed ships engaged in protecting the seal fisheries. The affair involved questions of fact and questions of law. Russia and the United States very sensibly referred all phases of the business to the arbitration of an eminent jurist—M. Asser, of Holland—whose previous fame has been enhanced by the part he played in the Hague Conference, and by his member-



Drawn for the *Herald*, New York.

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW SHOWING LINE OF RAILWAY BETWEEN LA GUAYRA AND CARACAS.

ship in the permanent Hague tribunal. He has just decided the case in favor of the claims of the United States on behalf of the arrested sealers; and he has awarded damages to the amount of about \$100,000.

The Hague Court is for Such Cases. In spite of all that has been asserted to the contrary by the British Government in its endeavor to excuse itself for its part in this expedition against Venezuela, there is no reason to think that all claims and matters in dispute might not readily have been referred for adjustment to the Hague tribunal. The part which England and Germany bore in the Hague Conference, and in the framing and signing of the arbitration treaty, rendered it incumbent upon them to do their very best in good faith to make use of arbitration where such a remedy was fairly applicable. It was agreed by everybody connected with the Hague Conference that arbitration was eminently adapted to just such controversies as this with Venezuela. Our own government, moreover, must never lose sight of the fact that it disturbs the American people very much to have naval expeditions sent from Europe on any pretext against a feeble American republic, and that it is incumbent upon us in all such cases to

use our influence and our good offices to the utmost in advance to secure a resort to arbitration.

The Duty of the United States. In the case of the Venezuela boundary question, President Cleveland and Secretary Olney found a way to make it understood by England that arbitration rather than coercion must be resorted to where the dispute involves sovereignty over a considerable area of territory. In all our recent history, we have rendered the world no service more valuable than this effective demand that arbitration be used in a case where it was the only solution that was decent or reasonable. By virtue of the stand we took at that time on Venezuela's behalf, we were amply entitled to bring the strongest possible moral pressure to bear upon President Castro to secure from him an offer to refer all pending English, German, Italian, and other foreign claims to the Hague tribunal for final adjustment. If, acting upon our advice, President Castro had made such a proposal, and Germany and England had refused to avail themselves of it, it would have been the prevailing American sentiment that armed expeditions to the Venezuelan coast were unfriendly to us. If the claims had been referred to the Hague tribunal, and President Castro had subse-



PRESIDENT CASTRO OF VENEZUELA.

quently refused to acknowledge an award against his government, he would, of course, have laid himself open to a seizure of custom-houses for the purpose of collecting the amount awarded. No small credit would have been due our authorities at Washington if they had successfully interested themselves in the idea of securing the arbitration of all these claims, and had thus removed all excuse for the sending of naval vessels and the attempt to blockade the Venezuelan coast.

On November 22, President Castro *Castro's Declared Policy.* had given a public outline of his policy. The battle of La Victoria had broken the strength of the revolution, and Castro had announced his purpose to show the utmost magnanimity toward his opponents. He had declared that by January 1, in his opinion, domestic peace would be fully restored. "Following the declaration of peace," continued President Castro, "the government will discharge its just obligations, improve its credit, and reorganize the fiscal system of the country." All the statements made by him at that time were intelligent and reasonable. We are not able to discover any corresponding degree of reasonableness in the use of pressure at this particular juncture by the European powers. Toward the end of November, earnest attempts were made by Venezuela, through the New York banking house of the Seligmans, to arrange for the settlement of all her foreign obligations. For the European view, however, read Mr. A. Maurice Low's excellent article on page 39 of this number of the REVIEW.

Coercive Measures.

Early in December, the foreign war-ships began to arrive at the Venezuelan port of La Guayra. On December 8, the British minister, W. H. D. Haggard, and the German chargé d'affaires, Herr von Pilgrim-Baltazzi, left Caracas for La Guayra, where each went on board of a cruiser of his own nationality. Before doing this, each had left with the Venezuelan foreign minister an elaborate ultimatum. The step was a complete surprise to the Venezuelan Government, which did not believe that coercion was really intended. In the German ultimatum it was formally stated that the British and German governments had "agreed to proceed jointly to obtain satisfaction of all demands." The Venezuelans had supposed that the foreign governments would admit the necessity of reestablishing domestic peace before anything else could be done. From the Venezuelan standpoint, there had been no proper presentation of British claims, and certainly no repudiation of them. On December 9, without notice or warning, the Germans and British took possession of the small Venezuelan fleet in the harbor of La Guayra, breaking up two vessels that were undergoing repairs and taking three others outside of the harbor and, according to reports, sinking them in the deep sea. No reason whatever was assigned for this wanton and barbarous conduct, which was without provocation, in a time of perfect peace, when practically nothing was under discussion except the payment of certain monetary claims, none of which had been denied by the debtor.

Subsequent Proceedings.

It would have been strange indeed if the Venezuelans had not been greatly excited. In Caracas, all the German and English residents were placed under arrest.



LA GUAYRA, WITH FORT ON THE HILLS.



A VIEW OF THE SOUTHEASTERN PART OF THE CITY OF CARACAS.

This, however, might be regarded as a precautionary measure to protect them from the indignant mob. No harm was done to these residents, and their subsequent treatment was entirely considerate,—ostentatiously so on Castro's part. It was announced in a day or two that the plans of the European allies provided for the seizure of two or three important custom-houses, and the blockading of the rest of the Venezuelan coast. Our State Department was informed that a "peaceful blockade" existed at La Guayra. This country does not, however, recognize so-called pacific blockades, and would not permit its commerce with Venezuela to be thus disturbed without emphatic protest. On December 13, the British cruiser *Charybdis* and the German cruiser *Venita* bombarded the old defenses of Puerto Cabello,—not, however, damaging the town itself. Some excited Venezuelans at Puerto Cabello had shown their wrath by pulling down the flag from a small British merchant ship lying in the port, and the British naval officers had demanded an apology on threat of storming the fortress. A very ample apology was sent as soon as it could possibly be forwarded; but, in order not to have their fun spoiled, the British did not wait, but proceeded with the shelling of the fort.

*Mr. Bowen as
Peacemaker.*

Meanwhile, the man of the hour was the United States minister at Caracas, Mr. Herbert W. Bowen. In departing from their possessions, the German and British ministers had confided the interests of their countrymen to Mr. Bowen's care, and the same thing was subsequently done by two or three other European governments. The Venezuelans, meanwhile, were making use of Mr. Bowen as their principal medium of communication with the outside world, and were endeavoring

through him to arrive at some settlement. A dispatch from Mr. Bowen on December 12 informed our government that Venezuela had asked him to propose to Great Britain and Germany that the difficulties arising out of the alleged damages to English and German subjects be submitted to arbitration. Our government gave its most cordial assent to Mr. Bowen's endeavors to secure a peaceful settlement, and promptly transmitted the suggestions to London and Berlin. We are glad to print elsewhere in this number an appreciative sketch of Mr. Bowen's career in the foreign service. He had shown fine qualities as United States consul at Barcelona, Spain, at the time of the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, and a little handbook of international law prepared by him at about that time was evidence of his studious efforts to fit himself for the best public service. As United States minister to Caracas he has shown himself energetic, clear-headed, and tactful, in all respects a credit to the people and government of the United States.

*Castro as a
Type and
Figure.*

President Castro is certainly a picturesque and striking personality. Having waged a successful revolution some three years ago, he has now put down a formidable movement against his own administration which, we were inclined to think, was going to prove successful. Whatever his faults may be, his courage seems as great as that of the Boers who defied England, and he has in aggression and in defense proved himself a man who does not shrink from a fight. The nature of the Venezuelan country is such that Castro might abandon the seaports and put European invaders to a great deal of trouble if they undertook to reach Caracas. That capital is almost three thousand feet above its seaport of La



STREET IN LA GUAYRA.

Guayra, although the distance as the bird flies is only six miles. The Venezuelans hurriedly threw up earth defenses at strategic points in the mountains, removed all locomotives and cars from the lower end of the winding railroad line, summoned all male inhabitants to arms, stored ammunition and supplies, and made ready for a defense of Caracas. It is hard to imagine how there should have come to be current in the United States and Europe the notion that these South Americans are rather ineffective and cowardly people in warfare, or that their revolutions are comic-opera affairs with little blood shed, but with much bombastic pronunciamiento. As a matter of fact, the South American revolutions have been among the deadliest and most decimating of all modern conflicts.

It must not be supposed that South Americans have learned no lessons from the Cuban war against the Spaniards and the defensive war of the Boers. Gomez, with a small force, held 200,000 Spanish regulars at bay for three years. The Boers, with no more population than that of a small English provincial city to draw upon, taxed the resources of the British Empire for almost as long a period. An English newspaper, when the German and British fleets began to play havoc in the harbors of La Guayra and Puerto Cabello, likened the business to two whales attacking a wildcat, and there was a good deal of pertinence in the simile. If European powers, at a time when the South Americans could easily be persuaded to arbitrate these petty claims for debts, had persisted in their preference for violent methods, they would have found that blockades did not suffice. The Venezuelans could survive for some time very comfortably, even if all foreign intercourse

were terminated; while an attempt to subdue Venezuela on land would require costly military expeditions, which might meet with serious disaster, with no rewards in sight at the end.

It is certain that a Liberal administration in England would not have joined Germany in this high-handed adventure, particularly at a time when it is known by intelligent people in England how strong is the undertone of American sentiment against such performances. It is true that the German ambassador a year ago gave the most explicit assurances that Germany had no intention of securing territory or naval bases in the West Indies or along South American coasts. But the German newspapers, some of them regarded as semi-inspired organs, continue to express contempt for the Monroe Doctrine, and to hint that with the fast approaching completion of the German naval programme it remains to be seen whether or not Germany may not ac-



ON THE LA GUAYRA AND CARACAS RAILROAD.

quire bases in the Caribbean Sea and elsewhere in the Western Hemisphere. Whatever Germany might gain, directly or indirectly, out of its policy of assertiveness, England had little to gain and much to risk in playing second fiddle to Germany in such affairs. Far from improving the disagreeable relations which actually exist between the English and German people, these attempts at coöperation in a distrusted cause only serve to throw a higher light upon existing unfriendliness. Thus, the German newspapers accuse England of constantly trying to make prejudice against Germany in the United States, while the English in turn assert that the Germans are jealous of such good relations as exist between London and Washington, and are intriguing to create misunderstanding.

Arbitration Fully Expected. Before the session of Parliament had ended on the 18th, Mr. Balfour had frankly explained to the House of Commons that he agreed with the United States in thinking that a "pacific blockade" was an inherent absurdity. While disclaiming any intention to commit acts of war, he took the position that, technically, Germany and England had made war upon Venezuela, and that the blockade which was to begin on and after December 20 could only be enforced against neutrals under the principles established for the conduct of nations in a time of war. Meanwhile, the friendly but urgent activity of Mr. Bowen at Caracas, and of our own authorities at Washington, had made it almost certain that there would within a few days be an agree-

ment on all hands to submit questions in dispute to arbitration. President Castro was under harassment by reason of the fresh prospect of revolutionary trouble at home, and he was wise enough to see that the best way out of his foreign troubles was to agree to allow Minister Bowen to act for Venezuela in bringing about a peaceful method of settlement. Through him and our State Department, England and Germany were asked to arbitrate. English public opinion bore so strongly upon Mr. Balfour and Lord Lansdowne in favor of arbitration that there promised to be no difficulty in that quarter. As for Germany, it is undoubtedly true that her able ambassador at Washington, Dr. von Holleben, made powerful presentations showing that the United States would highly appreciate an early ending of the blockade and a reference of all matters in dispute to arbitration under methods devised by the Hague Peace Conference. Thus, as our pages were closing for the press, although an effective blockade had been established along the coast of Venezuela, it was believed quite generally that statesmen and financiers would within a short time work out a plan by which Venezuela's debts might first be amicably determined, and next be honorably paid. On the 20th, it was reported from Washington that whereas President Roosevelt had proposed to the allied powers that the dispute should be submitted to the Hague tribunal, they had replied with a counter-proposal that President Roosevelt himself should arbitrate the issues. Either of these two methods would be welcome to all lovers of peace and justice.



STATION OF THE LA GUAYRA AND CARACAS RAILROAD AT CARACAS

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From November 20 to December 20, 1902.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

December 1.—The second session of the Fifty-seventh Congress begins; both branches adjourn as a mark of respect to deceased members.

December 2.—President Roosevelt's annual message is read in both branches....Gen. Russell A. Alger is sworn in as Senator from Michigan.

December 3.—In the Senate, the Committee on Territories reports a bill for the admission of Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one State....The House passes a bill appropriating \$50,000 for the expenses of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission.

December 6.—The House passes the pension appropriation bill (nearly \$140,000,000).

December 8.—The Senate considers the immigration bill; Mr. Nelson (Rep., Minn.) introduces a joint resolution for an anti-trust amendment to the Constitution, and also a bill to amend the Sherman anti-trust law by adding more stringent provisions....The House adjourns as a mark of respect to the memory of ex-Speaker Reed.

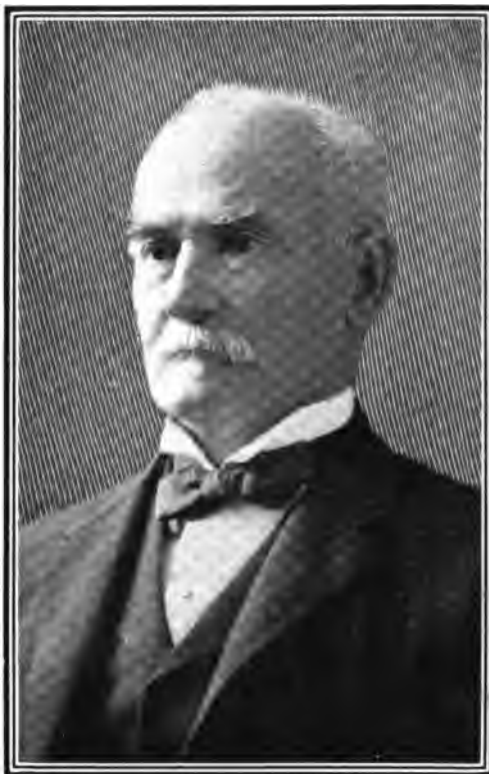
December 9.—The Senate adopts several amendments to the immigration bill.

December 10.—The Senate considers the Statehood bill....The House passes two bills affecting the revenues.



SENATOR CULLOM, OF ILLINOIS.

(Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, and one of President Roosevelt's advisers in connection with the Venezuelan incident.)



HON. R. R. HITT.

(Chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs; frequently consulted by the President regarding Venezuela.)

December 11.—The Senate passes, with amendments, the bill fixing the compensation of the Coal Strike Commission.

December 12.—The House passes private pension bills.

December 13.—The House considers the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill; Mr. De Armond (Dem., Mo.) introduces a joint resolution for an amendment to the Constitution changing the date of Inauguration Day from March 4 to April 30, and the date of the assembling of Congress from the first Monday in December to January 8.

December 15.—In the Senate, the minority of the Committee on Territories reports in favor of the admission of New Mexico, Arizona, and Oklahoma....The House passes the urgent deficiency appropriation bill, carrying an appropriation of \$500,000 to fight the foot-and-mouth disease among New England cattle.

December 16.—The Senate, by unanimous vote, ratifies the treaty with Spain....The House passes the bill transferring to the Secretary of Agriculture the powers

possessed by the Secretary of the Treasury to make regulations for the transportation and exportation of cattle, to expedite the suppression of foot-and-mouth disease among New England cattle.

December 17.—The Senate passes the pension and urgent deficiency bills.... The House passes the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.

December 18.—The House passes a bill reducing the tariff on goods from the Philippines to 25 per cent. of the Dingley rates, adopts a resolution calling on Secretary Hay for information regarding the troubles in Venezuela, and begins discussion of the pure food bill.

December 19.—The House passes the pure food bill; the Banking and Currency Committee favorably reports the currency bill introduced by Chairman Fowler.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

November 24.—A statement issued at the White House explains that President Roosevelt appointed United States District Attorney Byrne, of Delaware, on the ground of merit, and not in recognition of the Addicks faction in Delaware politics.

November 28.—Commissioner Sturgis dismisses Fire Chief Edward Croker, of New York City, as the result of a trial on charges.... Ex-Speaker Charles F. Kelly, of the St. Louis House of Delegates, under indictment in bribery cases, is arrested in Philadelphia.

December 2.—Municipal elections in Massachusetts cities show large Socialist gains.

December 3.—Capt. Evan P. Howell is elected mayor of Atlanta, Ga., without opposition.

December 9.—The Vermont Legislature passes a high-license, local-option measure with a referendum.... Boston elects a Democratic board of aldermen and street commissioner, and adopts the act providing for the building of the Washington Street subway by the city, by a majority of three to one.... The Board of Aldermen of New York City appropriates \$100,000 to buy coal for the poor.

December 11.—Negroes from every part of Alabama meet to form a colored Republican party.... The Georgia Legislature passes a bill providing for an *ad valorem* tax on the franchises of all corporations in the State exercising the right of eminent domain.

December 16.—The Pennsylvania Railroad tunnel franchise is passed by the New York City Board of Aldermen by a vote of 41 to 38.

December 18.—The New Hampshire Constitutional Convention adopts a woman-suffrage amendment.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

November 20.—Lord Tennyson is appointed governor-general of the Commonwealth of Australia.... Martial law is abolished in the Transvaal.... The new Chilean cabinet is formed.

November 21.—The French Chamber votes urgency for a proposal to grant an amnesty to strike offenders and appoint a committee for the consideration of the question.

November 27.—The Siamese mint is closed to the free coinage of silver.

November 29.—President Palma accepts the resignation of Señor Tamayo as Secretary of Government of Cuba.



DON FRANCISCO SILVELA.
(New Prime Minister of Spain.)

December 1.—The Greek cabinet resigns as a result of the general elections.... President Palma, of Cuba, names Secretary of Instruction Yero to succeed Secretary of Government Tamayo, resigned.

December 3.—The British House of Commons passes the education bill by a vote of 246 to 123 (see page 78).

December 6.—A new Spanish cabinet is announced as follows: Premier, Señor Silvela; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Señor Abarzuza; Minister of Justice, Señor Dato; Minister of Finance, Señor Villaverde; Minister of the Interior, Señor Maura; Minister of War, General Linares; Minister of Marine, Señor Sanches Toca; Minister of Instruction, Señor Allende Salazar; and Minister of Public Works, Marquis Vadillo.

December 9.—Civil Governor Nufiez, of Havana, suspends the mayor of Havana, Señor O'Farrill, pending investigation of a charge of usurpation of power in connection with the recent strike.

December 14.—The German Reichstag passes the tariff bill by a vote of 202 to 100.

December 18.—The British Parliament is prorogued till February 17, 1903.... The German Bundesrath approves the tariff bill in the form in which it passed the Reichstag.

December 19.—Col. Arthur Lynch, member of the British Parliament for Galway, is indicted on the charge of high treason.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

November 21.—A treaty of peace concluding the civil war in Colombia is signed on board the United States battleship *Wisconsin* at Panama.

November 24.—The British House of Commons votes to accept the Brussels convention providing for the abolition of bounties on sugar.

November 25.—Negotiations between the United States and Colombia for a Panama Canal treaty are suspended.... The award pronounced by King Edward as arbitrator in the boundary question between Argentina and Chile is transmitted to the governments concerned.

November 27.—Ambassador White, at a farewell audience of the German Emperor, is presented with the Gold Medal of the Empire for Science and Art.

November 29.—Professor Asser, arbitrator at The Hague in the sealing cases, delivers his award appraising damages to be paid by Russia for the seizure of American sealers in the Pacific.

December 1.—Señor Concha, Colombian minister to the United States, is relieved of his portfolio; the Panama Canal negotiations are placed by the Colombian Government in the hands of Dr. Herran.

December 3.—It is officially announced at London that Great Britain and Germany have begun punitive measures against Venezuela (see page 39).... Negotiations for a Panama Canal treaty are resumed at Washington between the United States and Colombia.

December 4.—The French Chamber of Deputies ratifies a monetary convention between France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, authorizing each country to issue additional silver coins to the value of \$2,500,000.

December 8.—The British and German legations at Caracas, Venezuela, are closed; the British minister, W. H. D. Haggard, and the German chargé d'affaires, von Pilgrim-Baltazzi, leave the city and board British and German warships.

December 9.—British and German war vessels seize four Venezuelan warships in the harbor of La Guayra and sink three of them.

December 10.—A Venezuelan gunboat is seized at Port of Spain, Trinidad; British and German warships establish a blockade of the Venezuelan coast; British and German subjects arrested in Venezuela are released by President Castro on demand of United States Minister Bowen.

December 11.—The Venezuelan authorities at Puerto Cabello seize and imprison the British and German consuls there; two more Venezuelan war vessels are seized by a British sloop-of-war in the Gulf of Paria; the British and German ambassadors at Washington express the thanks of their governments for the action of Minister Bowen in securing the release of British and German subjects arrested in Venezuela.

December 12.—A protocol providing a basis for a reciprocity treaty between the United States and Cuba is signed at Havana.... The United States submits to Great Britain and Germany a proposal for arbitration received from President Castro of Venezuela.

December 13.—The Italian minister at Caracas demands of Venezuela the immediate payment of \$63,000, representing the indemnity due to Italian subjects.... President Roosevelt selects Lloyd C. Griscom, of Pennsylvania, to succeed the late A. E. Buck as minister to Japan, and Richmond Pearson, of North Carolina, to succeed Mr. Griscom as minister to Persia.... The British cruiser *Charybdis* and the German cruiser *Vtmeta*, failing to get satisfaction for the seizure of the British merchant steamer *Topaze* by a mob, bombard the fort at Puerto Cabello, Venezuela.

December 16.—The governments of Great Britain and Germany are informed from Washington that their acceptance of Venezuela's offer of arbitration would be gratifying to the United States.



THE MONUMENT ERECTED AT PUERTO CABELLO IN MEMORY OF THE AMERICANS WHO DIED FOR VENEZUELAN INDEPENDENCE.

December 17.—Premier Balfour announces in the British House of Commons that a state of war exists between Great Britain and Venezuela.... The United States minister to Korea demands from that country the payment of \$1,500,000 due the builders of the electric railroad at Seoul.

December 19.—Great Britain, Germany, and Italy inform the Government of the United States that they will agree to submit their claims against Venezuela to arbitration, on certain conditions.... A full abstract of the provisions of the Cuban reciprocity treaty is made public at Washington.

December 20.—The powers reply to President Roosevelt's request that the claims against Venezuela be submitted to the Hague tribunal by asking him to act as arbitrator himself; the blockade of Venezuelan ports is formally proclaimed by Great Britain.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

November 22.—A statue of Balzac is unveiled in Paris, persons prominent in literature taking part in the ceremonies.... Cigarmakers, typesetters, coachmen, car conductors, and motormen, in Havana, go on strike.... Yale defeats Harvard at football by a score of 23 to 0.

November 24.—President Roosevelt approves the application of the Commercial Cable Company to construct a transpacific line.

November 25.—Colonial Secretary Chamberlain sails from England for South Africa.

November 26.—The funeral of Herr Krupp, the great German gunmaker, is held at Essen, and is attended by Emperor William....Havana strikers resume work.

December 2.—The Ohio Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the eight-hour-day law applying to public works.

December 4.—Fourteen lives are lost in the burning of a Chicago hotel.

December 8.—The first regular train is run from Santiago to Havana, Cuba....Oliver Wendell Holmes takes his seat on the bench of the United States Supreme Court.

December 10.—The great Nile dam and reservoir at Assouan and Assiout are formally opened....A reciprocity convention is held at Detroit, Mich.

December 15.—Wall Street bankers form a pool of \$50,000,000 to tide over a money stringency.

December 16.—It is announced that the United States Steel Corporation has purchased the Union and Sharon plants, at Pittsburg, involving a bond issue of \$45,000,000.

December 17.—Counsel for the operators outline their case before the Coal Strike Commission.

December 18.—The teamsters' strike at New Orleans is declared off.

OBITUARY.

November 20.—Sir John Woodburn, Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, 59.

November 22.—Friedrich Alfred Krupp, the great German gunmaker, 48 (see page 47)....Cardinal Gaetano Aloisi-Masella, pro-datary of the Pope, 76.

November 23.—Major Walter Reed, U.S.A., 51.

November 24.—Joseph M. Wilson, a well-known Philadelphia architect and engineer, 64....Francis H. Myers, chief of the coin division of the New York Sub-Treasury, 58....Marie Catalina, of San Bernardino, Cal., last of the famous Serrano Indian basket weavers, 107.

November 25.—Col. Thomas P. Ochiltree, the well-known ex-Congressman of Texas, 63....James E. A. Gibbs, inventor of the Wilcox & Gibbs sewing-machine and other devices, 73.

November 26.—Most Rev. John Macvilly, Roman Catholic Archbishop of Tuam and Primate of Connaught, 85.

November 27.—Abbé Colin, Superior of St. Sulpice, Montreal, Canada, 67....Charles E. Conrad, bank president and one of the best-known citizens of Montana, 52.

November 28.—Dr. Joseph Parker, minister of the City Temple, London, 72.

November 30.—John Elliott Ward, formerly minister to China and mayor of Savannah, Ga., 88.

December 1.—Thomas Henry French, of New York, publisher of plays and dramatic agent....Henry Mitchell, of Boston, Mass., a well-known engineer, 72....Robert M. Parmely, a prominent banker of Cleveland, Ohio, 48.

December 2.—Dr. José de Moraes, ex-President of Brazil....Ex-Judge Robert Earl, of the New York State Court of Appeals, 78....Salem Howe Wales, of New York, 77.

December 3.—Count Richard Belcredi, Austrian pre-

mier at the time of the Austro-Prussian War, 79....Sir Frank Green, Lord Mayor of London in 1900-01, 67....James Rochelle Tyler, of Richmond, Va., a Confederate veteran and grandson of President Tyler, 64.

December 4.—Alfred Elijah Buck, United States minister to Japan, 70....Charles H. Dow, of the Wall Street publishing firm of Dow, Jones & Co., 51....Franklin Babcock Noyes, of Stonington, Conn., a prominent New England railroad man, 71.

December 5.—Lieut. B. W. Loring, U.S.N., retired, of Owego, N. Y., a witness of President Lincoln's assassination.

December 6.—Alice Freeman Palmer, of Cambridge, Mass., formerly president of Wellesley College, 48.

December 7.—Thomas B. Reed, ex-Speaker of the House of Representatives, 63 (see page 36)....Andrew Bell Forbes, of San Francisco, 76....George C. Leader, of Bedford, Pa., a veteran of the Mexican War, 74....Thomas Nast, the famous cartoonist, 62 (see page 31); A. C. Hutchinson, president of the Louisiana & Texas Railroad and of the Southern Pacific Steamship Line, 60.

December 8.—Harry Leslie Blundell McCalmont, well-known British sportsman and Conservative member of Parliament for Newmarket, 41....Representative-elect Aikman Carnahan, of Indiana....Ex-Congressman Robert N. Yardley, of Doylestown, Pa. 50....Rev. Thomas McLaughlin, of New Rochelle, N. Y., 77....James C. Clarke, ex-president of the Mobile & Ohio Railroad, 79.

December 9.—Dr. J. N. Rice, of Scranton, Pa., a prominent independent coal operator, 57....William Dean Sheldon, of New York, a Civil War veteran and member of the publishing firm of J. D. Sheldon & Co., 54.

December 10.—Heber R. Bishop, a retired banker, merchant, and railroad man, of New York, 62....Galvin W. Green, professor of mathematics of the Illinois Wesleyan University, 45.

December 11.—James Harvey Mathes, a Southern author and Confederate veteran, 60.

December 12.—Frederick Saunders, of New York, author, former librarian of the Astor Library, 96....John W. Henry, ex-Chief Justice of the Kansas Supreme Court, 78.

December 13.—Major Alexander Shaw, a prominent citizen and capitalist of Baltimore, Md., 65.

December 14.—Mrs. Julia Dent Grant, widow of President Ulysses S. Grant, 76.

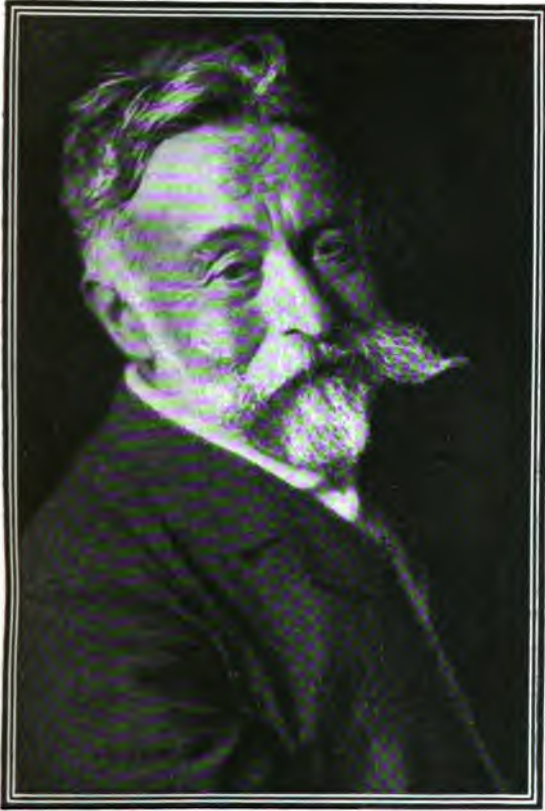
December 15.—Gabriel Harrison, of Brooklyn, N. Y., a veteran actor and theatrical manager, 83....Rev. Dr. Macvicar, principal of the Montreal Presbyterian College, 71....John W. Ela, president of the Civil Service Reform League of Chicago, 64....Benjamin F. Dennison, of Philadelphia, Pa., treasurer of the American Baptist Publication Society, 67....Ex-Congressman Charles Henry Adams, of New York, 78.

December 17.—Gen. Henry M. Cist, a Civil War veteran and well-known lawyer, author of Cincinnati, 65....Five Crows, a noted Umatilla Indian chief, 70....Ex-Congressman Abram Fulkerson, of Virginia, 68.

December 18.—General Wager Swayne, of New York, soldier, lawyer, politician, and public speaker, 78.

THOMAS NAST.

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.



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THE LATE THOMAS NAST.

THOMAS NAST, America's greatest caricaturist, and one of the greatest caricaturists of any time, who died at Ecuador (where he was serving as United States consul) on December 7, 1902, was born in Landau, Bavaria, in 1840, and was brought to this country in 1846. His first employment as a newspaper draughtsman was on *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*. He went abroad, in 1860, as a special artist, to depict the Heenan and Sayers prize fight for the *Illustrated News*. In 1860-61, he was with Garibaldi, furnishing sketches of the Italian campaign for English and American periodicals. In 1862, he joined the staff of *Harper's Weekly*. On the breaking out of the war, he began to make cartoons of so graphic a nature that he was soon exclusively employed as a caricaturist. His cartoons made from 1862 to 1870 were

rather graphic portrayals of events and situations than political caricatures.

It was not until about the time of the Tweed Ring exposure, 1871-73, that his special bent toward individual characterization made itself felt. In the caricatures of Tweed and the rest of the "Ring," Nast's vivid characterization, united with his ability to portray a situation, made his cartoons one of the most potential factors in the overthrow of the "Ring's" supremacy.

In 1872, Nast's pencil was directed against the candidacy of Horace Greeley, and a picture of Greeley washing the "Tammany Tiger" gives us perhaps one of the earliest effigies of that now famous feline, which Nast, it is said, invented.

In antithesis to the Tammany tiger, he also invented the Republican elephant. In 1873, after Grant's second election, Nast aimed his sarcasm against the "third term" outcry (mainly echoed by the *Herald*),—"Cæsarism," as he termed it,—and pilloried James Gordon Bennett unmercifully.



"LIBERAL" GRATITUDE.

Now that the good ship UNION has safely passed through the Sea of Trouble into the peaceful Waters, shall the Helmsman be thrown overboard?—*Harper's Weekly*, May 11, 1872.



BLINDMAN'S BUFF.

How long will this game last?

Harper's Weekly, April 12, 1873.

Tilden, who was the next Aunt Sally at which Nast flung his trenchant missives, was represented as a feeble old man holding a rag baby in his lap,—this dummy was typical of paper currency. But the caricatures of Tilden were not so strong as those of Tweed, nor as those he made of the later Tammany leader, John Kelly.

In 1880, Hancock came in for a goodly share of the artist's satire. In 1884, for the first time, Nast's pencil was directed against the Republican candidate; he supported Grover Cleveland, caricaturing Blaine. But he was not at home in assailing a Republican candidate, and his effigies consisted of little more than the stalwart Blaine, with three white feathers in his high hat, and printed labels introduced into the background that were more than mere allusions to the candidate's alleged venality.

The Blaine-Cleveland campaign was the last in which Nast drew for *Harper's Weekly*. He severed his connection with that periodical in 1887. His career was then virtually ended, though he later drew intermittently for other journals.

In addition to his vigorous service during these campaigns, Nast attacked many problems of national and international importance, and took sides in the different issues as they came under the consideration of Congress and the people.

In his simpler cartoons of some foreign situa-

tions, as the strained relations of the English lion and the Russian bear, Nast was at his best. His single figure of the Czar Nicholas, which we reproduce, is quite equal in poignancy to, and more colorful than, similar monumental cartoons in the *London Punch*. Nast's supremacy as a cartoonist lay in the fact that he could meet Tenniel of *Punch* on his own ground, in a simple cartoon, and yet excel him in more complex caricatures.

Nast was not always employed in fierce political attacks, but prepared for the *Weekly*, and sometimes for the *Bazar*, charming conceits in a lighter vein anent the festive Christmas season, the dawning of the New Year, or bright Easter Day. Of such is the "Santa Claus" we reproduce.

His portraits were mainly political, and besides those in his Presidential campaign cartoons, the physiognomies of Henry Watterson, Wade Hampton, Ben Butler, Carl Schurz, Abram S. Hewitt, Judge David Davis, and Tom Reed figure many times in his designs.

Nast's activity ended before Roosevelt became a power to be reckoned with in the political



CAUGHT IN A TRAP—THE RESULTS OF THE THIRD-TERM HOAX.

Harper's Weekly, November 21, 1874.



A HARD SUMMER FOR THE SOFT RAG BABY.

MR. TILDEN: "Now don't wake it, dear; the second bottle did it."

MRS. TILDEN: "You are a wonderful nurse, darling. See, the angels are whispering to it."

Harper's Weekly, August 26, 1876.

arena, but it is interesting to reproduce an 1884 cartoon in which Roosevelt (who appointed Nast to his consulship in Ecuador) is portrayed by the veteran artist's pencil.

We fancy that Nast originated his subjects to a greater extent than did most caricaturists. In the case of Tenniel, for instance, ideas for his cartoons were suggested by any of the editorial staff whose brain happened to strike fire at the weekly *Punch* dinner.

For years he made a regular trip from Morristown, N. J., where he lived, to the Harper establishment, in Franklin Square. There, with the editor, George William Curtis, and several members of the Harper firm, a conference was held, and the designs for the week passed upon. Sometimes the artist's designs were turned down. He has drawn a picture of himself on trial, as it were, before this august tribunal. The composition used to hang in one of the Harper editorial rooms; we do not know whether it was ever published or not.

In the eighteenth century, in English caricatures, it was the custom to draw from the mouth of each personage a line ending in a loop, in which were written the words the characters were supposed to be speaking. Nast rarely re-



THE PRESENT CRUSADE.

The attitude of the Czar in declaring war against the Turks.

Harper's Weekly, May 26, 1877.

sorted to this artifice, but instead (he might be said to have almost invented the custom) introduced verbal adjuncts that helped to carry many cartoons. We have in mind the labels that besprinkled his backgrounds. These were frequently quotations from speeches or editorials of the opposite party, lettered freehand or set up in type, and placed upon a fence or a door-jamb, or in any available place.

It has been reported that Nast's salary with Harper & Brothers, for many years, was \$10,000, at that time the largest salary that had ever been paid to a caricaturist in this country. Since then, however, caricaturists have received, we believe, as much as \$15,000, as the salaries in journalism have greatly increased during the last decade.

For several years he published *Nast's Almanac*, illustrated by his pencil solely, but containing articles by well-known humorists, such as Bret Harte and Josh Billings.

He illustrated a few books not very successfully; and some pamphlets which met with phenomenal success. One, attributed to the pen of

Richard Grant White, was entitled "The New Gospel of Peace;" another was "The Fight in Dame Europa's School," by the Rev. Henry Williams; and another, "Robinson Crusoe's Money," by David A. Wells.

He was in frequent demand as a lecturer, illustrating his talks with caricatures made with great dexterity before the audience.

Perhaps one of the most successful of Nast's cartoons appeared when, toward the end of the war (September 3, 1864), there was a talk of compromise; he made an appealing design, representing the negroes being brought back to slav-



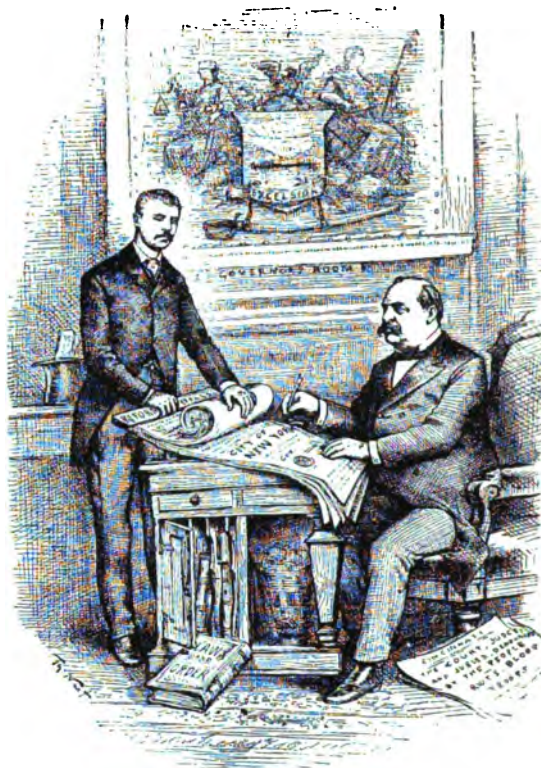
GENERAL INSPECTION.

General Hancock and General Vacancy.

Harper's Weekly, August 14, 1880.

ery, the legend reading, "Compromise with the South—Dedicated to the Chicago Convention." The most successful of his Tweed *régime* cartoons was that representing the "Ring" standing in a circle, pointing one to the other, and each one saying ("Who stole the people's money?"—"Do Tell."—*New York Times*). "'Twas him."

All during his career, but more especially at



REFORM WITHOUT BLOODSHED.

Governor Cleveland and Theodore Roosevelt at their good work.—*Harper's Weekly*, April 19, 1884.

the end, Mr. Nast devoted part of his time to oil painting. Some of his paintings are entitled: "Departure of the Seventh Regiment for the War (1861)," "Lincoln's Visit to Richmond," and "The Civil War (1861-65)."

In 1879, the officers of the army and navy presented him with a silver vase, in honor of the service his pencil had rendered the nation.

Nast received little or no art education. When a boy, he was doorkeeper in an art gallery, and was allowed to make copies of the paintings; he was in the drawing classes of one Theodore Kaufmann for six months; but he once told the writer of these notes that his knowledge of drawing was gained mainly through copying, over and over again, from Harding's "Drawing Copies."

It has been said in frequent criticisms that Nast was a poor draughtsman. With this judgment we do not agree. Perhaps the only caricaturists who have really been first-class draughtsmen, from an artistic point of view, are the Frenchmen Daumier and Forain; Gillray, Hogarth, Cham, Cruikshank, or John Leech could never have passed an art school examination; and while it is true that Nast did not draw with



"HELLO! SANTA CLAUS!"



"HELLO! LITTLE ONE!"

Harper's Weekly, December 20, 1884.

HE THINKS HE CAN.

"Can he (Blaine) satisfy, or at least, pacify, them (the Germans) without angering irreconcilably the Prohibition Republicans? He is as smart as he is said to be if he can."—*New York Sun*.

Harper's Weekly, August 23, 1884.

that abandon, that easy freedom, employed by the best French caricaturists, yet his method (which was more like that of Hogarth) was one of uncompromising realism, that allowed him to delineate a ballot-box, a high hat, an officer's uniform, a sword, a bayonet, or a skull so that there was no mistaking it for anything else, and his portraits were speaking likenesses.

His method of cross-hatching, though it gave a maximum amount of work to the engraver, was admirable from two points of view. In the first place, it allowed the block upon which Nast drew, which was composed of small pieces of boxwood locked together by keys at the back, to be distributed among a number of workmen, so that one of his largest cartoons could be finished almost as quickly as one engraver could cut a square inch.

Then, again, his cross-hatch gave a maximum amount of color to his designs. It might be said that no other caricaturist ever obtained so much color in his designs as did Nast. On account of their richness of color, it was generally supposed Nast drew with a pen (as he frequently did after 1885, when his work began to be reproduced by photo-engraving), but that is not the case. The majority of his designs were made with a lead pencil, being drawn on boxwood in reverse.



Photo by E. Chickering & Co., Boston.

THE LATE THOMAS B. REED.

THOMAS BRACKETT REED.

BY HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND.

"THOMAS B. REED was the strongest intellectual force, crossed on the best courage, among all the men in public life whom I have known," said Joseph G. Cannon, of Illinois, who will sit in the Speaker's chair if he lives until the next Congress meets, and who entered public life as a supporter of Abraham Lincoln. In this characteristic phrase Mr. Cannon expressed the general judgment of the men who fought beside, and of the men who fought against, Mr. Reed in Congress, and who knew him better than any one else outside of his own family. Washington appreciated Mr. Reed. Nowhere else, not even in Portland, certainly not in New York City, were his great qualities so well recognized and his better self understood. Unlike

other men who have a national reputation, and only a national reputation, he was most admired where he was best known. This is why the House of Representatives, always critical, often cynical, severely impartial in its judgments, honored him, a private citizen, as it had honored only two former Speakers after they had become private citizens,—Henry Clay and James G. Blaine,—by adjourning after a brief session given entirely to his praise, upon the announcement of his death. It was more than Mr. Reed would have sanctioned, for he disapproved the funeral customs of the House and thought legislative days too precious to expend upon them, approving the idea of having all memorial services on Sunday; but the House thought that

it was the least it could do to mark that respect which it had for him above all other men in public life.

Of the three great Speakers whose death the House has mourned in this unusual manner, Mr. Reed had the strongest hold upon the respect of the House. He was as unlike Clay and Blaine as they were like each other. He made no effort to obtain popularity. He concealed rather than revealed his personal attractions in public and disdained flattery as he did flatterers. In public life, and particularly in the House of Representatives, he appealed only to the intellect, and in the most direct and striking manner. He was literally the master of the House, and ruled by the force of his will and the strength of his reason, and not by the arts of diplomacy nor the wiles of the politician. It was understood, of course, that he was honest clear through, honest in mind as well as in heart, and with a strong sense of justice, or he could not have had the admiration of the House. The House knew Mr. Reed, measuring him from week to week, as it measures all its rising men, in committee and on the floor, long before the country knew him.

It was not until he made his revolutionary rulings as Speaker in the Fifty-first Congress, on January 29 and 30, 1890, when he destroyed filibustering by counting enough minority members present, but not voting, to make a quorum, that the country came to know him. He was then fifty years old, having been graduated at Bowdoin College in 1860, and then studying and practising law, with a brief service as acting assistant paymaster in the navy in the Civil War, serving in the Legislature and as attorney-general of Maine, and afterward, from 1877, in Congress. He had, by his ability as a rugged and brilliant debater, as a fighting captain of the Republican minority, gained leadership early in his Congressional career, and had been his party's nominee for the Speakership in two Congresses before it gained control of the House and he was elected Speaker. The House had learned that he was a great man, and was not surprised by his great success as Speaker, whatever its feelings about his methods of making and enforcing the rulings which became "Reed's rules." But there was nothing sufficiently dramatic or eventful in Mr. Reed's life before that time to attract the attention of people generally, and the average newspaper reader practically discovered Mr. Reed when he read of the calmness, and, indeed, of the wit, with which the masterful Speaker broke the power of obstruction in the House and made it possible for the majority to do business, while his political opponents, who afterward adopted his rules and his methods, almost raved

with anger as they denounced him and his own side applauded him.

The American people like to see things done. They have little patience with obstructionists. They had become tired of the "deadlocks" in the House, under rules and rulings which permitted one man to stop all business for two weeks at a time. So, in general, they approved Mr. Reed's results, but at first they were impressed with the denunciation of his methods by his opponents. "Czar," "Tyrant," and similar names thrown at him in the House and in the press stuck in the popular mind and colored all the after-thinking about him. Mr. Reed's public manner, usually good-humored, sometimes frank to the point of cruelty with opponents, and always militant and dominating, deepened the popular impression that he was belligerent and even brutal, a pugilist rather than the philosopher that he was, while at the same time the constant repetition in the newspapers of his witty remarks, usually at some one else's expense, often cynical and sarcastic, without materially affecting that impression, created another to the effect that Mr. Reed was not a serious statesman.

It shows what a great man Mr. Reed was that he was able to hold his place in public life in spite of his reputation as a wit, and yet there is no doubt that that reputation cost him dear. I think no man of our time, in Congress, has been less understood outside of Washington. Two comments frequently made in the newspapers show how superficial and uninformed was the general opinion of him in the country. One was that he was not a constructive statesman, and the other was that he could not make a successful long speech.

In the twenty-two years of Mr. Reed's service in the House, he had no opportunity to fasten his name on any important measure. For all but eight years of the time his party was in the minority, while for six out of the eight years he was in the chair. Yet his surviving colleagues will testify that no man, living or dead, had more to do with constructing the legislation passed by the House when his party was in the majority. While he was Speaker, he made the legislation of the party, besides making it possible. He was the master of his own side before he was master of the House. It is well known that when he began his parliamentary reform, in the Fifty-first Congress, with a narrow Republican majority, enough Republicans disagreed with him to have defeated his purpose, if they had opposed him openly. He did not know when he began his rulings whether they would or not, for circumstances compelled him to act before he had completed his arrangements. He

had to act practically on the spur of the moment. He thought out then what he would do if his Republican opponents united with the Democrats against him. He would have announced his resignation and retired from Congress. But although some strong men on the Republican side differed with him, they did not dare to oppose him publicly after the great shout of triumph that went up from the Republicans when he began, so suddenly, to count a quorum. From that time he was certainly the constructive statesman of the House for six years, and indeed until he left.

It is true that Mr. Reed did not often make long speeches, but that was because he did not like long speeches, and never made them if he could help it. He thought a man ought to be able to say all that was worth saying in a short speech, unless the circumstances were very exceptional, and that, as a rule, long speeches were artificial, and he hated anything that was artificial. He made, however, at least two long speeches which would compare favorably with other long speeches of the same period. But he could make short speeches which were more effective than the long speeches of his rivals, and he preferred to do it. The implication of the comment on the length of his speeches is that long speeches are superior to short speeches, and that the old-fashioned all-day orator was superior to the modern debater, but it would be difficult to prove that this implication is correct.

Mr. Reed might have been President of the United States if the people had understood him as his colleagues did; but as it was, he really had very little chance of securing the nomination of his party when he came nearest to it in 1896, although he could not appreciate this fact, and could not understand why Mr. McKinley was preferred to him, when Mr. McKinley had been only his lieutenant in Congress. He never forgave the men who deserted his cause at St. Louis because they knew it was hopeless, as he never forgot those who stood by him to the last, even though they, too, knew it was hopeless. He sought few friendships, he failed no friend, he condoned no treason. His countrymen know, now that he is gone, through the partial revelations of his friends, few in number comparative-

ly, but zealous and devoted, something of the real man whose faults were on the surface and whose virtues were so much concealed. They know how perfect his family life was, what tenderness and sympathy and loyalty he showed to his friends, and to all the weak who sought his aid, what a charming companion and what a faithful counselor he was. They may not appreciate his greatness any better, but they do appreciate his goodness as they did not before. He was a man of the world, and not a member of any church,—a modern Benjamin Franklin without the "scoundrel maxims,"—and he tasted all the pleasures of this life, especially those of society, which afforded opportunity for conversation. But back of it all appeared to be a religious spirit and a true life, which he kept carefully from public view lest he, too, should be accused of that hypocrisy which so stirred his wrath. Hypocrites and liars he hated with a perfect hatred. He made the truth as naked as possible when he could, and at other times concealed it perfectly.

His devotion to his wife and daughter was the dominant feature of his life and the truest index of his character. It was not chiefly because he differed with his party on the question of "imperialism" or on any other question that he resigned from the House, but because he felt that at sixty years of age he could no longer put off the accumulation of a competence to secure the future comfort of his family if he should be taken away. After a quarter of a century of public service, he retired honorably poor, but with no intention of remaining permanently outside of the sphere for which he was best fitted, in which he was most useful, and which he best liked. Having in three years gathered the modest fortune which he thought necessary, he was preparing to return to Congress from his old district at the next election, his former private secretary, Representative Allen, who had taken his place, being ready to retire in his favor. He would have been only sixty-five when he returned to Congress, and might have added largely to his fame. He might have been again Speaker, and perhaps even President. But "the night cometh, in which no man can work."



VENEZUELA AND THE POWERS.

BY A. MAURICE LOW.

THE United States, Great Britain, Germany, and Venezuela have met in the Caribbean Sea,—a sea on which more than one page in the world's history has been written, which witnessed the growth as well as the destruction of Spain's once mighty power. Never a century for the last four centuries that it has not been the theater of the world's action, and now, in the opening days of the twentieth century, it once more rivets the attention of the world.

The United States, Great Britain, Germany, and Venezuela have met in the Caribbean Sea, but their purposes are not the same. By chance, Germany and England find themselves for the moment allies, but it is an alliance held by very tenuous threads, and the aims of the allies are as different as the motives that made them embark on the coercion of Venezuela. The United States has met Teuton and Saxon and Latin because the United States is the hegemon of this hemisphere; because the United States has in its keeping the Monroe Doctrine, and holds herself responsible for the peace of the New World; because, in the ever-memorable words of Mr. Olney, "the fiat of the United States on this continent is supreme." Venezuela is there because nations, like individuals, usually have to pay the price of their own folly; and nations, like individuals, find in the long run that it pays to be square.

It is not difficult to tell the story of the latest drama of the Caribbean Sea. Like nearly all the troublesome things in this world, it begins with money. Venezuela wanted to build a railway, and a German bank, the Berliner Disconto Gesellschaft, was only too happy to supply the necessary funds. The road was built, the government of Venezuela, in 1896, borrowing 50,000,000 bolivares (a bolivar being worth about nineteen cents) for thirty years at 5 per cent. interest, the bonds being issued at 80. The Berliner Disconto Gesellschaft financed the loan, with the customs pledged as security. From the proceeds, 36,000,000 bolivares were paid to the German firm that built the railroad, the government guaranteeing 7 per cent. on the capital invested in the road, and pledging itself to set aside annually the sum of 3,000,000 bolivares as interest, and to provide for the amortization of the debt.

There is always a difference of opinion between the man who loans and the man who borrows. The Venezuelans wanted their railroad, but they objected to being robbed to get it. If the Venezuelan statement is to be relied upon, the Venezuela Central Railway is the most expensive piece of railroad construction in the world. The road is 200 miles long, and the German contractors alleged that it cost \$20,000,000 to build. At least, they capitalized it at that figure, and as the Venezuelan Government had pledged itself to pay 7 per cent. on the invested capital, there were many strange Spanish oaths heard in Caracas when the bills were sent in. But the Germans were phlegmatically indifferent. "In Heaven's name," they said, in guttural Teutonic, and not in limpid Castilian, "what would you? You have your railroad; it is a very excellent railroad, made in Germany; now go and be happy."

The Venezuelan is only happy when he is fighting. It was Lord Lansdowne who remarked the other day that Venezuela was a country where they had one hundred and four revolutions in seventy years. Lord Lansdowne has been charged with exaggeration, but that is not of consequence. The Venezuelan loves to fight.

But even the Venezuelan has to pay for his luxuries, and fighting is expensive; yes, even in Venezuela. The year 1898 saw some fighting. We did a little of it on our own account, and the Venezuelans enjoyed themselves in their own fashion. There was no interest paid on the railway loan that year, there has been none since except trifling payments that are too small to mention. The payments have not been made to the sinking fund. A year ago, when Germany was beginning to make up her claim against Venezuela, it was computed that she owed in defaulted interest on the railway bonds 6,000,000 bolivares.

It appears that when they fight in Venezuela it is the onlooker who gets the worst of the game. Crops are destroyed, cattle commandeered, forced loans made. "Through those wars," the German Government stated in an official memorandum, "many German merchants living in Venezuela and many German landowners have been seriously damaged, as partly compulsory loans have been extorted from them, partly req-

quisites of war which have been found in their possession, as especially the cattle necessary for the feeding of the troops, have been taken from them without being paid for, partly their houses and grounds have been ransacked or devastated." A moving picture truly, one that doubtless wrung the heart of the War Lord. For all this and much more shall the Venezuelans pay 2,000,000 bolivares.

Will Venezuela pay this trifling matter of 8,000,000 bolivares? Venezuela, if she knows herself, will do nothing of the kind; she will much rather continue to fight and lift cattle and make forced loans. The German minister in Caracas addresses several notes to his excellency the minister of foreign affairs, even to the supreme chief of the republic, but without effect. The government will argue and show his excellency the German minister wherein his figures are wrong, and that two and two make four in Berlin, but that in Caracas they make a cigarette and a shrug of the shoulders. Teutonic growls. The supreme chief of the republic takes another tack. No claims will be admitted that are more than six months old; for, whereas the whirl of revolution had put Castro into the palace as supreme chief of the republic, it was absurd to think that any self-respecting revolutionist would pay the debts incurred by his predecessor.

Germany begins to grow impatient, and intimates that something must be done. "Very well," says Castro, "send your claims before a commission of Venezuelans that I shall appoint," and promptly, on January 24, 1901, he issues a decree creating this commission.

Germany is still in protesting mood. "We don't believe much in the honesty of your commissioners," is what she says in effect. "And suppose your beautiful commission decides against us, what then?" "You may appeal to my supreme court," says Castro. "Fudge with your supreme court," says Germany. "The members of the court are entirely dependent on the government, and have been frequently dismissed by the president." And here is insult added to injury. If the commission decides in favor of the claimants, Castro will pay in bonds—a brand-new series of revolutionary bonds—"which would be, after our past experience, without any value," says the German minister, mournfully, thinking of those 7 per cent. bonds, with their defaulted interest.

On February 20, 1902, Secretary of State J. R. Pachano, in conformity with the ninety-sixth article of the constitution, submits an account of his stewardship to the congress in writing. He tells how he has labored with Germany to make her see how clearly inadmissible it is

that her claims can be adjudicated before a mixed commission. "It was judicially, politically, and morally impossible to establish differences which would give privileges to foreigners voluntarily coming to the republic,"—thus the secretary of state.

The commission is appointed under the presidential decree of January 24, 1901, and some Germans go before it and present their claims. Do they get justice? "Several of the few German claims," so runs the official German account, "put before the commission have been simply rejected, and others have been reduced in a decidedly malicious way. So, for example, a German cattle breeder, from whom fully 3,800 head of cattle, to the value of more than 600,000 bolivares, had been forcibly taken away, got only 15,000 bolivares adjudicated. But the government has not paid for the claims recognized as just by the commission, but has told the claimants that a bill in their interest would be submitted to the next congress." There is always a to-morrow in Venezuela.

The Venezuelan version of the 3,800 head of cattle is even more interesting. The German cattle breeder had originally 3,800 head, but the government bought and paid for (whether paid for in good American gold or in fairy money is not stated) 1,000 head, whereupon the breeder counted among his flocks and herds the cattle that had passed out of his possession and had been paid for. The Germans are evidently wise in not wanting to go before a Venezuelan commission.

So things went along until the end of the year 1901, when Germany did a remarkable thing—a thing so remarkable that all students of American history and American diplomacy will always remember it. In a word, Germany acknowledged the hegemony of the United States on the American continent; she, in effect, recognized the validity of the Monroe Doctrine; she bound herself to observe the prohibition laid down by President Monroe that no European nation might seek territorial aggrandizement at the expense of any American state.

On December 11, 1901, the German ambassador delivered at the State Department a "promemoria" bearing on the difficulty with Venezuela. After setting forth the various matters in controversy and stating that "under the circumstances the Imperial Government believes that further negotiations with Venezuela on the present base are hopeless," therefore "the German Government proposes to submit the claims directly to the Venezuelan Government and ask for their settlement," this language was used:

But we consider it of importance to let, first of all, the Government of the United States know about our purposes, so that we can prove that we have nothing else in view than to help those of our citizens who have suffered damages, and we shall first take into consideration only the claims of those German citizens who have suffered in the civil war.

We declare especially that under no circumstances do we consider in our proceedings the acquisition or the permanent occupation of Venezuelan territory. If the Venezuelan Government should force us to the application of measures of coercion, we should have to consider furthermore if at this occasion we should ask likewise for a greater security for the fulfillment of the claims of the Company of Discount of Berlin.

After the posting of an ultimatum, first of all the blockade of the more important Venezuelan harbors—that is, principally, the harbors of La Guayra and Puerto Cabello—would have to be considered as an appropriate measure of coercion, as the levying of duties for import and export being nearly the only source of income of Venezuela, would in this way be made impossible. Likewise, it would be difficult in this way to provide the country, which depends on the import of corn, with food. If this measure does not seem efficient, we would have to consider the temporary occupation on our part of different Venezuelan harbor places and the levying of duties in those places.

Did the Hon. John Hay, Secretary of State, sit up and rub his eyes and read this remarkable diplomatic document over more than once? One may imagine that he did, and that he lost no time in laying it before the successor of James Monroe, who rejoiced equally with his Secretary of State. Mr. Hay replied to the German ambassador five days later in the form of a memorandum. After expressing the pleasure of the President in having received "the voluntary and friendly declaration" of Germany, that no acquisition or permanent occupation of Venezuelan territory was intended, Mr. Hay adroitly reminded the German Government that it was proposed to hold it to its declaration, in these words:

The President of the United States, appreciating the courtesy of the German Government in making him acquainted with the state of affairs referred to, and not regarding himself as called upon to enter into the consideration of the claims in question, believes that no measures will be taken in this matter by the agents of the German Government which are not in accordance with the well-known purpose, above set forth, of his Majesty the German Emperor.

Also, England was having her diplomatic temper ruffled. Great Britain has a money claim against Venezuela, but England cares less for the financial damage sustained by her subjects than she does for the way in which the national honor has been repeatedly wounded.

About ten miles from the coast of the British island of Trinidad, and some three miles from the coast of Venezuela, is the small, almost

barren, and practically uninhabited island of Patos. England claims Patos as a part of Trinidad, which she conquered in 1797, the right to which was confirmed by the treaty of Amiens of 1802. Venezuela also asserts sovereignty under a later treaty.

It is this barren and almost worthless island patch that has caused all the trouble between England and Venezuela. The Venezuelan "navy" has been in the habit of pouncing upon fishing and trading vessels, boats of a few tons, in the neighborhood of the island and seizing them in a manner that is unpleasant, to say the least,—that probably most Americans would look upon as high-handed and without the least justification. The British Government has a list of a dozen or more vessels that have been seized in this fashion. For instance, there is the case of the Venezuelan gunboat *Augusto*, that on January 22, 1901, captured four boats at Patos and towed them to La Guayra. On February 26 of last year, John Craig, a fisherman, in his boat the *Sea Horse*, was held up by a Venezuelan *guarda costa*, badly beaten, and his boat taken away from him. He was left on the island and rescued by a passing vessel. Other boats were fired upon, but the most flagrant case was that of the *In Time*, which was sunk by the Venezuelan gunboat *General Crespo*, one of the vessels sunk by the Germans, in the harbor of Pedernales, on May 1, 1901. According to the report made to the British foreign office, the *In Time*, a vessel flying the British flag, with her papers properly certified, while peacefully lying at anchor in the harbor was seized by the *General Crespo*, although no reasons were given for the seizure. The *General Crespo* fired a few shots at her, then an armed party was sent on board from the *Crespo*, who destroyed the vessel's rigging and finally scuttled her.

The people of Trinidad were much worked up. They talked of reprisals, they wanted the mother country to teach Venezuela a lesson, and they asked themselves what was the use of being Englishmen if they were to be molested by Venezuelan gunboats; it was even suggested that they send a deputation to London to make their wrongs known. In a misty sort of way they remembered Jenkins' ear. Captain Jenkins, in the eighteenth century, was held up by a Spanish *guarda costa*, and one of his ears was cut off by the marauders. Captain Jenkins being a thrifty soul, carefully wrapped up his dismembered ear, and brought it back with him to London, where it formed Exhibit A in his great claim for damages against Spain. Captain Jenkins, who evidently had an eye for the dramatic, when asked what his feelings were when the Spaniards

boarded him, replied: "I trusted my soul to God and my cause to my countrymen."

The complaints of the Trinidad fishermen reached London in due course. London instructed the British minister at Caracas to demand satisfaction. The Latin-American circumlocution office was worked overtime for England's benefit. With much subtlety the Venezuelan minister for foreign affairs argued that the British were at fault, because they were poaching on Patos Island; that even if they were not poachers, they were smugglers; that if they were neither poachers nor smugglers, they were engaged in furnishing arms to the insurgents, and of course Crespo had the usual revolution on his hands. So the correspondence dragged on at interminable length until luck gave the Venezuelans an opportunity to shift their ground.

Early in the year, a British steamship, the *Ban Righ*, sailed from London. It was suspected at that time that she was chartered by the insurgents for filibustering purposes, and the British Government, mindful of its obligations as a neutral power, instituted inquiries. It was found that she was to sail under the Colombian flag, and the Colombian minister in London gave his formal assurance to the British Government that the *Ban Righ* belonged to Colombia, and on that assurance she was allowed to sail. Later, the *Ban Righ* turned up off the coast of Venezuela, and there is evidence enough to show that she was of material assistance to the insurgents, whereupon Crespo said to the British minister that until the *Ban Righ* incident had been explained and satisfaction given for it he would decline to pay any further attention to the British demands for reparation for having fired upon the British flag, maltreated British subjects, and destroyed British property.

Here, to give the Venezuelan side of the case, let it be said that they vehemently assert that if it were not for Trinidad and the convenient habit the British authorities have of closing their eyes revolutions would not thrive so luxuriantly in Venezuela. Trinidad and the neighboring Dutch island of Curaçao are said to be the foci for blockade runners and filibustering expeditions.

Be that as it may, matters dragged along between England and Venezuela until August of 1902, when Mr. Haggard, the British minister at Caracas, informed Lord Lansdowne, the British secretary of state for foreign affairs, that, acting under his instructions, he had presented a note to the Venezuelan minister for foreign affairs "formally protesting against the intolerable conduct of the Venezuelan Government, and informing him that unless prompt compen-

sation were made for the vessels seized and destroyed, England would take the necessary steps to exact reparation." The minister for foreign affairs, so Mr. Haggard reported to his government, was not at all scared. He read the note coolly, and then remarked: "We are used to receiving such communications," as of course he was; for not only Germany and Great Britain, but also France and Italy, had been asking to have their accounts settled. Mr. Haggard being an Englishman, made the obvious reply. "I told him that might be the case, but not from England," was the English envoy's answer.

That answer, of course, left nothing more to be said on either side. Both England and Germany began to make their preparations to dispatch a naval force to Venezuela, but decided to postpone operations until winter, because it was dangerous to send European sailors to the neighborhood of the equator in midsummer. During the intervening months, President Castro was given an opportunity to satisfy the demands of Germany and Great Britain, but he did nothing. On November 17, Mr. Haggard again reported to Lord Lansdowne that the Venezuelan Government considered the *Ban Righ* question and the facilities afforded to the revolutionists by the authorities at Trinidad to be all-important, and that it hoped Great Britain would express some desire for arriving at an understanding on the subject. Germany and Great Britain having agreed as to the coercive measures to be employed, their respective ministers were instructed to deliver an ultimatum to the Venezuelan Government requiring an immediate settlement, and after its delivery, on December 2, they at once left Caracas and went on board national vessels. The refusal or inability of President Castro to satisfy the demands led to the capture of the Venezuelan navy and later to the bombardment of Puerto Cabello, which, however, was merely an act of reprisal for the illegal seizure of the British ship *Topaze*.

It has been asked why the dispute was not referred to the Hague tribunal of arbitration. The answer is simple, according to the British and German official statements. Venezuela rejected the German offer of an arbitration before a mixed commission, and refused to discuss arbitration or anything else with Great Britain, and it was not until the Venezuelan ships had been seized that Castro made an offer of arbitration through Mr. Bowen, the American minister at Caracas, and then it was too late.

Castro's treatment of the British demands, his evasiveness, his insolent contempt, are the things England complains of. English subjects have claims against Venezuela amounting to about

\$1,500,000 in round figures. They do not regard that debt as warranting them in making war or blockading ports, but they insist that when the flag is fired on, when ships are captured and Englishmen are maltreated, a self-respecting nation must avenge the insult. Venezuela, they say, claims to be civilized, and to be a sovereign and independent state, and to be entitled to the treatment that is accorded a civilized nation, and yet she is so lacking in man-

ners and so unmindful of the etiquette of international intercourse that when her officials have violated the code and she has been politely asked to make the *amende honorable*, and has been treated with the utmost forbearance and generosity, she answers with insolent defiance and affects contemptuous indifference as to consequences. Then, England says, the only thing left to a great nation is to use force. That is why the cruisers were sent to the Caribbean.

HERBERT W. BOWEN: AN INTERNATIONAL FIGURE OF THE MONTH.

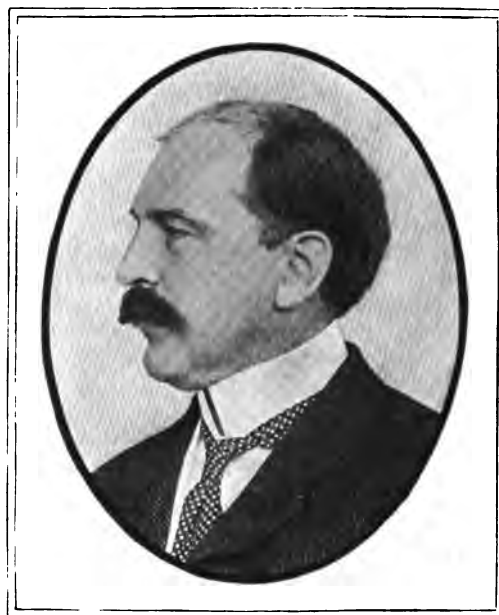
WHEN that inquisitive French Dreyfusard, Urbain Gohier, was inspecting this country, a few weeks ago, for the purpose of writing a book on America, he took occasion to pay his respects to the diplomacy of the Old World in the following terms:

The diplomats of Europe are gentlemen recruited from the richest, the most polite, the most ceremonious, the most egotistical, the most infatuated, the most limited, the most anti-democratic class; they gather ribbons and medals of imperial or royal orders. They array themselves in gorgeous apparel of laces and plumes and absurd tinsel, yet still manage to draw prestige and authority from them. They cover their miserable nakedness before the eyes of the people with a double veil of mystery and falsehood, and they achieve their ends by duplicity, circumlocution, and deception. The time has come to put an end to this sort of international politics. To the devil with tortuous diplomacy and superannuated diplomats!

Herbert Wolcott Bowen is a diplomat of the American school, — straightforward, fearless, strenuous, simple, and democratic. He believes that duplicity is as inexcusable between honest nations as between gentlemen, and that his chief duty is to promote peace, and especially friendship between his native land and the nation to which he may be accredited. Call it of the "shirt sleeves" brand if you will, but American diplomacy is of the kind that leaves no doubt as to its meaning, and requires no expounding afterward by the publicists. It is honest, and it accomplishes results.

Although the Venezuelan imbroglio was the occasion of bringing Mr. Bowen into the sudden glare of publicity, yet had he not been a man thoroughly versed in the principles of international law, had he not possessed unusual executive ability in planning for just such an event as occurred, and had he not showed great coolness in decision and an eager willingness,—not

to say anxiousness,—to assume responsibility, he would not have been heard of even now. Yet those who have watched Mr. Bowen's career have not been unprepared for the promptitude with which he has taken, one might almost say, *general command* of the whole



MR. HERBERT WOLCOTT BOWEN.

Venezuelan situation. It needs little argument to prove his fitness for the task before him when all England and Germany are grateful to him for gaining the liberation of their subjects from the Venezuelan jail; when Holland and Italy, as well as England and Germany, have asked our State Department to have him represent

them at Caracas ; when his superiors and the whole administration at Washington are gratified with his course, and, finally, when President Castro himself seems to seek his aid and counsel, as though he were the very Venezuelan Secretary of State, and the Venezuelan people unite in a petition to have him settle the whole controversy.

Herbert Bowen's father was the late Henry C. Bowen, editor and proprietor of the *Independent*, and his mother was Lucy Maria Tappan, daughter of Lewis Tappan, the well-known New York silk merchant and abolitionist. He comes of a long line of distinguished New England ancestors, and is a lineal descendant of the Indian apostle, John Eliot, and a great-great-grand-nephew of Benjamin Franklin.

The sixth member of a family of ten brothers and sisters, he was born in Brooklyn, N. Y., February 29, 1856. Thus, although he is now forty-six years of age, he has had only eleven birthdays. His childhood and youth were spent during the summer-time at the old country homestead at Woodstock, Conn., where seven generations of ancestors lie buried in the village graveyard, and in the winter he lived in Brooklyn, N. Y.

During his school days he showed many characteristics which might be termed strenuous. Endowed with a vigorous mind, which arrived at conclusions "independent of authority," founding his conduct on these conclusions, and backing his will up by a personal courage that knew naught of the meaning of fear, he would undoubtedly have been a "terror" had not his reason and all his instincts been ever for honesty, candor, and sympathetic manliness. His independence naturally got him into numerous combats ; and though he loved an encounter, he was in no sense a bully. Most of his fights were to punish what he considered unfair play in others. Although he is now inclined to corpulency, he still retains his fearless strength, which has saved him from many a boyish scrape and adult predicament. He received his early education at the Woodstock Academy and at the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn until he was sixteen years of age, when he went to Europe with a tutor, and studied in Paris and Berlin for two years. Whether these two years, amid foreign scenes at the most formative period of a young man's life, were to blame or not, he always says that when he returned and entered Yale in the Class of '78, he somehow felt out of touch with his classmates.

At any rate, he was not very popular at Yale, where independence is seldom tolerated, and where college sentiment brooks no radical de-

parture from classic custom. His career at Yale was noteworthy only for the large amount of desultory reading he accomplished and the small amount of study. He was thus a shining example of the well-known fact that men who succeed in life are not always those who have shown the most docility at college. Mr. Bowen, however, won several athletic contests,—a record half-mile, run without an hour's previous training, and a tug-of-war contest, in which he, William H. Taft, now Governor of the Philippines, and two others, pulled their opponents off the cleats. He also rowed on his class crew, and with another classmate founded the *Yale Daily News*. As Mr. Bowen was one of the largest men in college (he was over six feet three inches in height), he was naturally one of the leaders in the class rushes and other mob ebullitions. When near the end of his senior year, an attack was made on one of the secret society buildings for some foolish college reason or other, and Mr. Bowen, who was only an onlooker, was mistaken for a ringleader, and was arrested. He was acquitted, since there was no case against him ; but the senior society was very powerful in the faculty, as well as among the undergraduates, and, although several of the affronted members subsequently apologized, the college authorities did not believe in his innocence, and his degree was withheld, ostensibly for a low standing, but probably for this incident. He wrote the class ode, however, for the final farewell-taking at the planting of the class ivy. Mr. Bowen's class at Yale contained, among others, William H. Taft, Governor of the Philippines ; William H. Hunt, Governor of Porto Rico ; Henry Martyn Hoyt, Assistant Attorney-General of the United States ; the late John A. Porter, secretary to President McKinley ; Judge John Proctor Clarke, of the New York Supreme Court ; and Tudor Jenks, E. Clifton Johnson, and Marion Wilcox, the authors.

After leaving New Haven, Mr. Bowen passed a year in Italy, studying Italian and cultivating his voice, which was already a remarkably fine tenor, and which he still uses to entertain his friends and guests. On returning to New York, he entered the Columbia Law School, from which he was graduated with the degree of LL.B. *cum laude*. President Roosevelt was a member of this class.

After practising law for several years, he was appointed, in 1890, by President Harrison, consul to Barcelona, Spain, and from that time to this he has been continually in the service of the State Department, having risen through every grade to his present position of envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to Venezuela. Every President except Roosevelt has



"MIRAFLORES," PRESIDENT CASTRO'S PALACE.
(The United States Legation is conspicuous on the upper left hand.)

promoted him, and there is probably no man in the diplomatic service who has represented his country abroad in so many capacities.

In 1895, President Cleveland promoted him to be consul-general at Barcelona. He had held this office hardly a year when the agitation in Spain against the United States began to assume unpleasant proportions. During the following two anxious years, Mr. Bowen was considered by the Barcelona police to be in constant danger of assassination. Conspicuous among the under-sized Spaniards by his height, he became a marked man everywhere, and toward the end of his stay the police would not permit him to leave the consulate except to cross the large square for his meals. Even then the Spaniards used to gather outside the hotel dining-room window, in the hope of insulting him by shaking toy pigs in his face as a token of their opinion of the American national character. Guards had to sleep in the ground floor of the consulate for weeks before he finally left Spain, and he was shadowed by secret police day and night. During this period, numerous mobs appeared before the consulate, but luckily all were dis-

persed without doing any injury. Mr. Bowen's own account of the last trying days were obtained by a reporter after he had safely escaped into France, and is as follows :

Between April 13 and the night of April 21, 1898, eight mobs of more than 1,000 persons each made a demonstration before our consulate. Of course, there were threatening groups all the time ; in fact, hourly. But the police, who were most active, together with the Civil Guard, easily managed to disperse them. Other and larger mobs were dispersed in other parts of the town, but eight of them managed to reach the consulate. They gathered with surprising rapidity at any hour. During the morning of April 30, a mob of 3,000 or 4,000 people constantly filled the square in front of the consulate, cheering for Spain and uttering execrations against the United States. I was breakfasting in the hotel on the opposite side of the square. This mob, having just heard of the attack at Malaga, had come determined to get the eagle and shield which I always kept on the door of the consulate. I managed to push my way through the crowd until I got my back to the door and could face the mob. There I awaited the result. I had hardly taken my stand when I noticed a man as big as myself pushing through the crowd. He came and stood beside me, did not utter so much as a word, but faced the crowd, which continued to threaten us. Fortunately, the mob had no leader.

So for a quarter of an hour we two and the mob faced each other. Then the police and the Civil Guard arrived, and the mob melted away. I asked the stranger who he was, and he replied: "I am Norman Harrington, of Chicago. This is my first day in Barcelona. It seemed to me that there might be some trouble for the eagle up there, and I thought I would take a bit of it."

The biggest and angriest mob gathered during the night of April 21. There were at least 6,000 or 7,000 people about the consulate, including every class, among them the Barcelona society men. Hundreds of them had just come from the theaters in evening dress, and the best-dressed men were the most active demonstrators. They came for the shield, but when they found it gone they broke out in most angry cries. Eventually the police attacked the mob, and many people were injured. This was the threatening moment, as I had been warned that the police could not be trusted, though they did not fail to do their duty.

The day after the declaration of war, Mr. Bowen, who was the last American official, if not the last American citizen, to leave Spain, was escorted to the railroad station by the chief of police, who had visited him every hour for the two previous nights, and was conducted to the frontier on a train guarded by soldiers.

After the war was over, Mr. Bowen was just preparing to return to Barcelona when President McKinley appointed him minister-resident and consul-general to Persia, to succeed his brother-in-law, Arthur Sherburne Hardy, the novelist, who was transferred to Greece, and who has just been appointed our minister to Spain. While in Persia, Mr. Bowen made himself such a *persona grata* that the Shah presented him with an Arabian stallion, richly caparisoned; conferred upon him the order of the Lion and the Sun; and when he was returning to America for his vacation, after having been promoted again by President McKinley to be envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary, the Shah gave him as a parting gift a gold snuffbox studded with diamonds, which now lies in the safe of the State Department, awaiting an act of Congress authorizing Mr. Bowen to take personal possession of it.

In June, 1900, President McKinley, for the third time, promoted Mr. Bowen by sending him as United States minister to Venezuela. He succeeded Mr. Loomis, who had got into some difficulty with the Venezuelan administration over the asphalt controversy. Such was the delicacy of the situation and the interests involved that it was feared, no matter what steps Mr. Bowen might take, he would be compelled to displease those whom he could ill afford to displease. To his credit, however, it can be said that he proposed a scheme of arbitration between the Berindez and the Warner-Quinlan

interests which their agents in Caracas deemed fair, and accepted. But the New York offices vetoed their agents' negotiations, and Mr. Bowen's good offices were for the time being fruitless. Since then Mr. Bowen has enjoyed President Castro's confidence, and during the recent unfortunate revolution he even obtained from the Venezuelan Dictator an apology for the insult to the American nation by the Venezuelan warship *Restaurador* (formerly George J. Gould's yacht *Atalanta*). This vessel, in order to disarm suspicion, hoisted the American flag, steamed up the Orinoco, and opened fire, within the three-mile sea limit, upon Ciudad-Bolivar, causing loss of life and property in the quarters inhabited by foreigners. Without waiting for instructions from Washington, Mr. Bowen demanded that a national salute be fired from the *Restaurador*, as well as a salute to the Stars and Stripes,—a demand with which Castro forthwith complied. This is the first time that an American minister, we believe, has ever asked reparation for such an incident without first obtaining consent from the State Department.

During his twelve years of diplomatic life Mr. Bowen has not been idle. He has always read widely and has supplemented his reading with a thorough study of modern languages. He speaks and reads Spanish, French, Italian, German, and Persian besides English, and while he was at Barcelona he wrote a manual of "International Law" which is an admirably simple and compact statement of the principles underlying the law of nations. Mr. Bowen has also issued, from time to time, a few slender volumes of verse. They are mostly love-poems, or sonnets of patriotism, not very good and not very bad.

Perhaps one of the most characteristic things about Mr. Bowen is the way he takes pains to praise others who help him in his work. Notice how he gave Mr. Harrington the credit in the Barcelona incident. And notice also how he now goes out of his way to praise Mr. Russell, the American secretary, for all the good work he is doing. Had Admiral Sampson adopted this policy in his famous dispatch after the Santiago victory, there would have been no Schley controversy, and he would have rivaled Dewey in the hearts of the people.

Mr. Bowen, then, is an accomplished linguist, something of an authority on international law, and is an alert, courteous, courageous, frank, and well-trying diplomat. He can be depended upon to do well and expeditiously anything and everything that comes within his personal and professional duty.

FRIEDRICH ALFRED KRUPP—THE ESSEN PHILANTHROPIST.

BY ELISABETH WEBER CARDEN.

NOTHING could more clearly show the sentiment back of the Krupp establishment throughout its history than the following remarkable letter, written by Alfred Krupp, the father, to his board of directors concerning the little one-storied dwelling of the family, where the last rites were recently said over Friedrich Krupp, the deceased industrial king of Germany, as they were here said over his father, and his father's father:

This small house, now in the center of the factory, into which we moved in the year 1822 to 1823, after my father had, without success, sacrificed to the invention of the manufacture of cast steel a considerable fortune, and besides that his whole stock of vitality and health; this then, the only dwelling of the family, where I have, with them, lived through a number of years of misery and sorrow, from whence, in 1826, on October 28, my father was carried to the grave; where, in the attic, in fear and trembling anxiety, with little hope for the future. I have passed hundreds of sleepless nights; where, before and after small successes, my first hopes awoke; and where I have lived to see the fulfillment of my boldest expectation.—this small house shall (as soon as the season permits the work) be raised as much as is necessary and put into exactly the same state that it was in originally. . . . I desire that it shall be kept intact, as long as the factory exists, in order that my successors, like myself, may look with pleasure upon this memorial, this origin of the great works. This house and its history may give courage to the faint-hearted and help him to persevere. May it prevent him from despising small things, and preserve him from vanity.



THE LATE HERR FRIEDRICH ALFRED KRUPP.



THE MODEST HOME OF THE KRUPPS AT ESSEN.

(From which three generations of the family have been buried.)

Is there any wonder, then, that with such a birthright of simplicity and dignity of character, Friedrich Krupp came into the world full-armed to take up the great work of a great man?

The builder of the enormous steel foundry at Essen, Alfred Krupp, was an engineer, and an autocrat. Neither of these gifts was inherited without change by the son, Friedrich Krupp. A new era had begun, of endless social strife, with demands and duties of special character in its wake. When, in 1887, the late king of that wonderful industrial empire succeeded his father, he had at his command enough able and experienced workmen to manage and administer the affairs of the works. Necessity had not compelled him to become an engineer,

like his father, nor did the growing extension of his domain favor autocratic administration. Perhaps his personality is best defined by naming him a philanthropist of distinctly artistic inclinations, for whatever Herr Krupp touched there was the hall-mark of art, combined with utility and practicality of idea.

The difference between Krupp the father and Krupp the son is clearly seen in contrasting the older "colonies" with those of more recent times. What Krupp the father,—a well-wishing but absolutely sober nature,—had done in a social way had been a pioneer's great work, especially in Germany, but it was without beauty of form, born solely from ideas of utility. What we see in the Essen of to-day is the crystallization of the favorite ideas and earnest thinking of a very wealthy man whose eyes were fond of beauty, and who had the means to put into execution what appeared desirable to him,—a man who, as the last descendant of a family distinguished by action, had transferred the inherited sentence, "IT MUST BE POSSIBLE," into the realms of humanitarianism and art.

The workmen's colonies erected by F. A. Krupp are planned with every practical necessity, but at the same time are pleasing to the sense of beauty. A walk through their streets gives one an impression of gayly painted cottages,—villas, if the word were not too pretentious,—bright flower gardens, intersected by green

alleys and pleasant squares. There is no sense of poverty, or narrow conditions, but an air fragrant with flowers, health, and contentedness.

There are altogether about 42,000 apartments in and around the town of Essen, leased from the Friedrich Krupp firm, renting from 90 to 180 marks (\$22 to \$45) per annum for two rooms in the old colonies, to from 170 to 330 marks (\$42.50 to \$80.50) a year for four rooms in the new.

Friedrichshof is the most interesting of the new colonies perhaps, representing a successful attempt to idealize the old tenement structures.

Altenhof is the home of the retired workmen, and by far the loveliest of the colonies. It is seen to advantage on a Sunday afternoon, when the younger generations come to call on grandfather and grandmother. But as all cannot reach this enviable state, the maidens and old bachelors, widows and widowers, have been provided for in a common house, where each has a separate room, the old ladies being given a little kitchen each, for the Germans believe always in the three K's for women, so patly phrased by their Emperor, *Küche, Kinder, Kirche* (kitchen, children, church). There are two general meeting rooms, where matters of interest and bits of gossip are exchanged while the old boys sit smoking their long pipes, enjoying the leisure, so deservedly won, after their many days of activity in the hard task of forging and



GENERAL VIEW OF THE NEW COLONIES AT ESSEN.



ALTENHOF, THE FOUNDER'S IDEAL COLONY.

molding steel. The Empress of Germany herself provides them with quantities of reading matter. If you chance to call on the old ladies, you will find them probably at their coffee, full of merriment and praises of Herr Krupp, who has so well provided for them in their old age. Altenhof best illustrates the object, fundamental idea, and execution intended by the founder of these colonies. It has two houses of worship, one Protestant and one Catholic. In contrast with the sober church at Cronenberg, built under the old *régime*, these buildings are full of poetry, the styles being purely northern.

THE VARIOUS BENEVOLENT FUNDS OF THE KRUPP SYSTEM.

The funds, amounting to millions of dollars, established by Alfred Krupp for the benefit of his workmen, were vastly increased during the lifetime of Friedrich Krupp. Every student of social economy knows that for many years these institutions have been admirably organized, and that the Krupp factory was the prototype of the imperial German legislation for the benefit of the workingman, and for those regulations which have determined the mutual relations of the employer and the employee, in all Germany,—that the firm of Krupp has had an invalids' fund since 1853, and a pension fund with a capital of over a million and a half marks (about \$350,000) since 1855.

In 1877, during Alfred Krupp's lifetime, a life insurance association was founded, the affairs of which are managed by a board of directors, backed by the credit of the great firm, who act

as intermediary between eight large insurance companies and the policy holders; the latter receive one-half of the bonuses paid, in the form of deductions from their premiums, the other half being put into the funds of the association, to protect the policy holders against cancellation.

According to the insurance law of the empire, the Krupps in 1900 were obliged to pay 1,500,000



THE PROTESTANT CHURCH.

marks, and the different funds, according to their by-laws, received in addition to this 600,000 marks, not exacted by law from the firm. Into special funds during the same year the establishment paid 180,000 marks, all of which contributions sum up to 3,393,855 marks, or in the neighborhood of \$850,000.

These are the great funds, and do not include any of the personal and private gifts received by employees of the works from their chief. Nor do they cover many sources of income of more restricted scope. Among the latter is the system of Krupp coöperative stores, which has become a veritable savings bank for the workmen. By an ingenious system of rebate the net profits, amounting usually to 5 or 6 per cent. of all purchases, are returned in cash, each year just before Christmas, to all customers employed by the Krupps. This is effected by a clever system of stamped cash books, necessitating a tremendous amount of extra work for the firm, but rendered absolutely necessary, as the outside



THE CATHOLIC CHURCH.

shopkeepers of Essen claimed the right to govern the coöperative prices by their own, thus rendering the advantage of wholesale rates impossible.

In the main supply store all the requirements of a modest household can be met, and numerous branch stores have been established in the town, in the workmen's colonies, and in the neighborhood of the mines. Colonial products, as they are called in Europe, together with potatoes and coal, are sold in fifteen different shops. In one year 440,000 pounds of coffee, with sugar and bread in like proportions, are sold.

The handling of meats is in itself an interesting item. The animals are killed in the municipal slaughterhouse of Essen; they are then treated at the Krupp butcheries, of which there are two, exquisitely neat; next they are transported to the different branch stores, and likely as not end on the workman's table as *schwartenmagen*, a very edible sausage peculiar to Essen.

The supply stores are not altogether alimentary, however, as there are, in addition, two large tailor shops; a shoe factory; a brush shop, supplying a number of par-



PENSIONED VETERANS OF THE ESSEN WORKS.



THE CONVALESCENTS' HOME.

tially disabled men with work ; an ironing shop ; a plant for the making of artificial ice ; weekly markets for fruits and vegetables, etc.

A matter of special interest to Krupp experts in social economy is the savings bank, founded two years ago, and organized as a private institution. The moneys deposited by the workmen are put into the Essen Savings Bank, through the intermediary of the factory. It pays $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest usually, and the firm contributes a sum sufficient to make the savings earn 5 per cent. In addition to this, every year,

toward the end of April, the firm gives 1 per cent. of all savings, principal and interest, on deposit. The amount of this latter sum is divided into parts of 500, 300, and 100 marks each, and as many times 50 marks as it will allow. These small sums form the prizes of a lottery, the idea having been taken from the German savings system of August Scherl. Every 25 marks' saving is entitled to a ticket. At first the workmen met this idea with a certain suspicion. They feared that if the firm knew how much they were saving, certain extraordinary gifts, of which a goodly number had until then been made, might in the future be withheld from earnest savers.

But the firm has allayed all this suspicion by simply not taking any cognizance of the details of the savings-bank administration, and by pursuing its former policy of bestowing merited rewards in addition to the new.

Thus, in all the long development of the benevolent work of the Krupps, the most tactful consideration of the feelings and susceptibilities of the workmen has been evinced. The average workman likes to feel that the basis of his dollar is "the sweat of his brow," with very little of the alloy of charity thrown in. So, in Essen the workman was shown, from the very beginning of this philanthropic movement, that he was a contributor to the funds, eventually for his own good, the Krupps early having learned that most important lesson,—that the interests of the employer and employee do not lie in opposition, but run parallel, and must be pursued by both sides in intelligent cooperation and unison.

THE KRUPPS AND THEIR STEEL WORKS AT ESSEN.

BY R. H. KNORR.

THE sudden death of Friedrich Alfred Krupp, the German "Cannon King," that has excited wide comment in the press, both here and abroad, has again directed public attention to an establishment in which the steel industry of Germany centers, and that, unlike similar establishments in this country, is not controlled by a gigantic trust, but is the private property of a single individual. Yet the beginnings of the fortune of the world's armorer were sufficiently modest. The Krupps are an old Essen family. Records dating back to 1560

mention a merchant by that name ; a later ancestor was burgomaster of the town. But the last three generations only,—namely, Friedrich Krupp, Alfred Krupp, and Friedrich Alfred Krupp,—are identified with German steel. The founder of the present works was Friedrich Krupp, born in 1787, who in 1810 began to turn his attention to the manufacture of cast steel, in competition with the works at Sheffield, England, which were then the leading steel producers of the world. Krupp was fortunate in his birthplace, for Essen, situated in the valley

of the Ruhr, in Rhenish Prussia, is the center of the most important coal district of Germany. At that time, however, the wealth under its feet was barely suspected by the sluggish little town. In 1818, Krupp built a small furnace near Essen. Although the material he produced was of superior quality, and excellent for many purposes, especially for making tools and dies, the output was small on account of English competition. He died suddenly on October 8, 1826, and his eldest son, Alfred, was called upon to continue the business, with no assets but the factory and only four men to assist him.

Alfred Krupp, at the age of fourteen, was charged with the double responsibility of developing his father's inventions and supporting his mother and the younger children. The former, a woman of remarkable intellect and energy, remained throughout her life her son's best friend and business adviser; he did not marry until after her death, in 1852. Alfred, first of all, endeavored to extend the market for his steel. But his inventive mind soon led him to undertake experiments of his own. A roller for making silver-plated spoons proved successful; he sold the patent to England for a round sum, and at last he had sufficient capital to extend his plant. He first attracted public attention in 1844 at the Deutsche Gewerbe-Ausstellung in Berlin, where he exhibited two gun barrels. The official report dwells on the "extraordinary service which the expositor has rendered to the national industry by perfecting the manufacture of steel." This initiated the long and brilliant series of his exhibition successes; the huge block of steel which he always included especially excited wide-eyed wonder. In 1847, he began his experiments of making cannon from cast steel. He was firmly convinced that the steel he produced was superior to any other material that had so far been used for that purpose. But he had to contend with numberless difficulties and disappointments, involving heavy sacrifices of time and money, before he could induce the Prussian Government,—which he was especially anxious to win over to his side,—to accept his guns and cannons. For twelve years he patiently and tirelessly continued to perfect his inventions pertaining to firearms, enlarging his plant to suit his needs. But this was only his pastime,—if a costly one. The works the while were kept busy producing articles of peace; an invention for making weldless steel tires for car wheels yielded him sums unprecedented in Germany at that time.

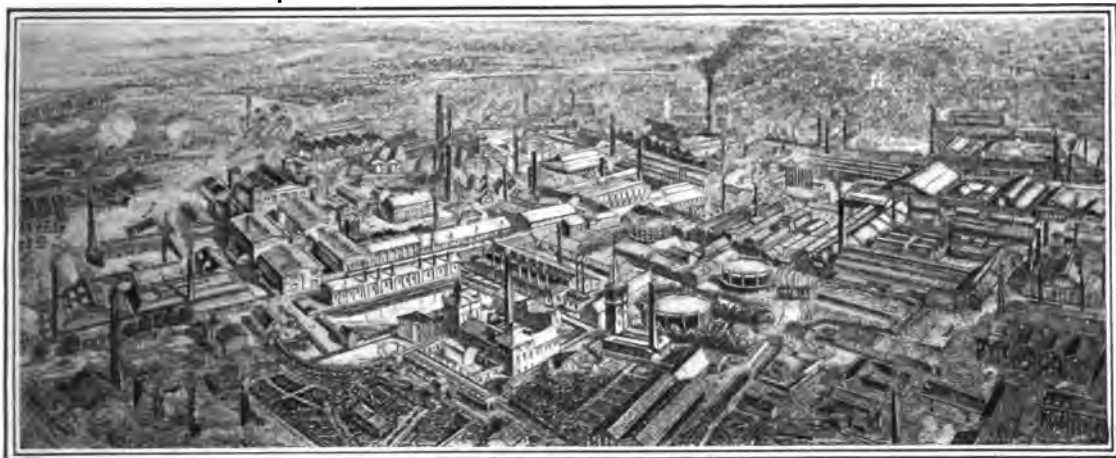
At last, in 1859, the prince regent of Prussia, subsequently Emperor William I., gave an order for 300 cannon. This ended Krupp's period of

trials, though his path continued to be strewn with difficulties,—as, *e.g.*, during the war of 1866, when his guns failed to give satisfaction, through no fault of his. The Franco-Prussian War, finally, resulted in victory for Krupp, through the victorious German arms that had been forged in his establishment. To-day the Krupp system constitutes the basis of the German, Austro-Hungarian, Italian, and Russian artillery; for Germany he has furnished all the field, fortress, naval, and coast-defense artillery. Down to 1902 the firm delivered 40,000 cannon to 35 states. Aside from these articles of war, the works produce chiefly material for ships and railroads, portions of machinery, and steel for tools.

The following statistics, compiled in 1901, may give an idea of the magnitude of the establishment. It includes the works at Essen; the Gruson works near Magdeburg; the Germania Werft at Kiel; steel works at Annen; four plants,—respectively, at Rheinhausen, Duisburg, Neu-wied, and Engers, with 18 furnaces altogether,—the furnace and machine works at Sayn; 3 coal pits; 500 ore mines in Germany; ore mines near Bilboa, in Spain; wharves at Rotterdam; stone quarries; sand and clay pits; 2 proving grounds, one of which has a range of 15 miles; 3 ocean steamers for transportation; a railway system with 110 kilometers of rail; 44 locomotives; 1,900 cars; a telegraph system 81 kilometers long, with 31 stations; a telephone system 360 kilometers long, with 380 stations; a fire department of 100 men. In the works at Essen there are 1,600 furnaces and smithies, etc.; 5,300 pieces of machinery; 141 steam hammers, including one of 50,000 kilograms, the largest in the world; 63 hydraulic presses; 323 stationary boilers; 513 steam engines, with a total of 43,850 horse power; 370 dynamos; 590 cranes. In 1901, 5,590 tons of coal and coke were used daily, or as much as could be carried on 13 trains of 43 cars each, with a capacity of 10 tons each. The amount of water used per year, 9,000,000 tons, and the gas for lighting, 500,000,000 cubic feet, run up to figures that are equaled by few large cities. January 1, 1902, there were 43,083 men employed on all the works, more than 24,000 of that number being at Essen.

BUSINESS METHODS.

Alfred Krupp has been called the typical German manufacturer. Germany certainly owes more to him than to almost any other of its inventive minds, for he has made that country the leading steel producer of the world, both as regards quantity, and especially quality; he thus realized the ambitions with which the founder of the



THE KRUPP STEEL WORKS AT ESSEN.

establishment opened his small factory nearly a century ago. These brilliant results, achieved by one man,—for the establishment of to-day is virtually the product of Alfred Krupp's mechanical genius,—are largely based on the two Krupp maxims: "No good steel without good iron," and "The establishment itself must furnish whatever it requires." Friedrich Krupp already had laid down the principle that the best raw material only can be used in order to produce a superior grade of steel. Alfred Krupp further enlarged upon this principle. It is characteristic of him throughout his career that he was tirelessly experimenting to improve the quality of whatever he produced. When he sent a huge block of crucible steel to the Exposition at London, in 1851, and the crowd stood agape at this monster, the steel experts could satisfy themselves that it was not only the biggest but also the best block that so far had been cast in one piece, for it had been cleft before shipment by one of Krupp's giant hammers, so as to show the perfectly even texture throughout the mass.

This painstaking pride in his work, without regard to the cost, is especially evident in his experiments on firearms that included the design as well as the material. For more than a decade these experiments were a losing venture. They not only show that Krupp was utterly free from commercialism, but are also a testimony to his patriotic spirit. As late as 1858 he said to an artillery officer, that if he intended to make money he should not cast guns, for the testing, etc., took too much time. It was easier to work for the Khedive of Egypt or the Bey of Tunis, whose artillery commission did not test as the Prussian artillery commission did; and they also

paid before delivery. But as he wished to serve his country with his inventions, he indulged in the costly side issue of making guns. On such principles he built up his world-wide reputation.

The second Krupp maxim, "The establishment itself must furnish whatever it requires," resulted in the gigantic dimensions of the works as seen to-day. Alfred Krupp began to make his own tools and machinery in order to be independent of other manufacturers in times of depression; he acquired coal and ore mines in order to be independent of foreign strikers in times of labor trouble; and, finally, he acquired two large proving grounds for testing his guns, in order to be independent of the Prussian military commission, with which he had frequent conflicts. Thus he made his establishment practically autonomous. A French officer exclaimed on visiting the works: "But this is a state within a state; a thing of this kind would never be permitted in France!"

Alfred Krupp's executive genius appears in the system of division of labor that he adopted. Every man had his post assigned to him, and the master unerringly discovered the right man for the place. As the establishment branched out more and more, making it impossible for one person to manage alone, he instituted a board of directors, that consists to-day of fourteen heads of division, and a president, all of them being men of especial technical, legal, or business training. In this way he was able to free himself from the details of the work, while he always remained director-in-chief.

ALFRED KRUPP'S RELATION TO HIS WORKINGMEN.

The recent attacks upon the late Friedrich Alfred Krupp on the part of the Social-Demo-

cratic press, that were the indirect cause of his death, are but the climax of annoyances and difficulties with the same party that his father, Alfred Krupp, already had to contend with half a century ago, when Essen began to attract workmen from near and far. The causes were partly political and partly religious,—nearly one-half of his men being Catholics,—and are closely connected with the Socialist movement of Germany. Alfred Krupp was a pronounced individualist, and as such had no sympathy whatever with German Social Democracy. He meant to be master in his establishment, and would suffer no dictation of any kind from his men. In his frequent proclamations, issued in times of labor troubles, he always emphasized the fact that from the beginning he himself had been, and still was, one of the hardest workers, who had hesitated at no pecuniary sacrifices in the interest of the works; that the prosperity of the plant was due to *his* inventions, *his* foreign credit, and *his* reputation; and that any excesses or unjust demands of the employees would only work detriment to themselves. On the other hand, he pointed out that faithful service was sure to be rewarded by steady work and provision for the old and disabled. He has expressed the principles guiding him in his relations to his men in the following words: "My factory, like every industrial establishment, shall in the first place secure the well-being of its members. Assured thus of an income amid peaceable surroundings, every one can enjoy his life."

Alfred Krupp, the bitter opponent of Social Democracy, was indeed a benefactor of labor, and the first employer of large masses of men who recognized his social responsibilities toward them. This statement is best corroborated by a glance at the institutions for social betterment at Essen which he inaugurated. As early as 1853 he organized the sick fund, three years later the pension fund, and the life insurance fund in 1877. The first lodging and eating houses for men were erected in 1856, and the first colony of homes in 1863.

The Consum-Anstalt, or coöperative establishment, dates back to 1858, being operated for some years as a private society with varying success. In 1868, the firm took over the management, assuming all debts and liabilities, and gradually enlarged it so that it now supplies in its fifty-five stores everything in the way of food, clothing, and household goods needed by the men. Great care is exercised in selecting the stock, and all food is tested by an expert of the factory. A hospital and disinfecting establishment were erected in 1873,

and baths in 1874; a sanitary commission looks after the health of the employees. In 1875, the first schools were opened; now the firm supports free elementary schools, domestic training schools for the wives and daughters of the men, and industrial schools, which the apprentices are obliged to attend. The intellectual needs of the men are supplied through a lyceum, a reading room with 30,000 volumes, a technical library of 60,000 volumes and 1,100 papers and periodicals; 220,000 books are circulated per year. The apprentice system of the Krupp works is highly praised, especially by the overseers and older workmen, who are anxious to have their own sons receive this training, which has produced some of the best employees of the establishment.

The men appreciate what the Krupps have done for them. Not only are strikes unknown at the works, but workmen from all over Germany are eager to be enrolled there, for the social, no less than the industrial, features of the Krupp establishment are planned with a view to attracting the steady, reliable, ambitious class of workmen who take pride in their work, and are willing to identify themselves with it, in return for such benefits as labor may reasonably demand in a state of society where class distinctions still exist. Although it is incumbent upon the men to join certain of these institutions,—as, *e.g.*, the sick fund, to which they must contribute on a scale graded in accordance with their wages,—yet the Krupps' contributions equal those of the men put together. And so throughout the list, the men pay their *pro rata* share, while the burden, and generally the running expenses, are borne by the master.

FRIEDRICH ALFRED KRUPP.

Alfred Krupp died at Essen, July 14, 1887, leaving the vast establishment, which his untiring inventive genius had built up, to his only son. Friedrich Alfred Krupp, born February 17, 1854, continued the business in his father's spirit; he added some new departments, and enlarged the works further by acquiring additional plants. He paid the highest income tax of any person in Germany, and was therefore presumably the richest man of the empire. His social and political position was almost that of a prince. He was an honorary citizen of Essen, a Wirklicher Geheimer Rath, with the title of Excellence, a member of the Prussian Upper House and Privy Council; from 1893 to 1898 he was in the German Reichstag. He died in his villa "Auf dem Hügel," near Essen, November 22, 1902, after a long period of ill health.



A CARRIER DELIVERING MAIL AT A FARMHOUSE IN CONNECTICUT.

THE RURAL FREE DELIVERY SERVICE.

BY DAY ALLEN WILLEY.

THE fact that farmers in a territory representing 300,000 square miles of the United States have their mail delivered and collected by government carriers indicates not only the remarkable development of what is termed rural free delivery, but its broad and deep significance to the country at large. When it is remembered that this area comprises nearly one-third of the territory at present devoted to agriculture, and that the beginning of the present service dates back as recently as 1896, a more intelligent conception can be gained of its expansion. Yet the permanent organization of this department of the post office was not effected until July 1, 1902, when its necessity was emphasized by reports which showed that 8,466 routes were in operation, an increase of 4,165 in one year, while on June 30, 1900, but 1,276 routes were being served, requiring an appropriation for expenses of \$450,000, which in 1901 was raised to \$3,993,740. Since the date of the permanent establishment, however, the force of carriers has been increased, until at present it constitutes an army of about 12,000, who daily travel over nearly 300,000 miles of highway for the benefit of a population of about 7,000,000. In some of the

States the routes have been lengthened by the demand for the facilities offered by the Government until entire counties depend on the carrier service, and the country post office in a corner of the crossroads store, or perhaps blacksmith shop, is rapidly becoming a memory. To again quote statistics, about 2,200 offices of this class have been discontinued; their salary list amounted to \$200,000 annually. The delivery has also taken the place of about 15 per cent. of the star-route service, costing \$650,000. Iowa had four counties, Maryland one, New York five, Kansas two, Connecticut one, Pennsylvania one, and California one, covered by the rural free delivery at the close of 1902, while 200 counties in various States were served by carriers, with the exception of a few neighborhoods.

ORGANIZATION OF THE SYSTEM.

That the work of this department has been national in its scope is shown by the fact that it embraces no less than eight divisions in charge of special agents, and arranged as follows: Eastern division, with headquarters at New York City, comprising the New England States and New York. Atlantic division, with headquarters



A CARRIER IN WINTER COSTUME.

at Philadelphia, comprising Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia. Southern division, with headquarters at Nashville, comprising Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi. Ohio division, with headquarters at Marietta, Ohio, comprising Ohio, West Virginia, and Kentucky. Middle division, with headquarters at Indianapolis, Ind., comprising Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin. Missouri division, with headquarters at St. Louis, comprising Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, and Indian and Oklahoma Territories. Western division, with headquarters at Denver, comprising Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana. Pacific division, with headquarters at San Francisco, in charge of the assistant superintendent of the free delivery service, comprising California, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Nevada, Utah, and Arizona.

The system is naturally a part of the free delivery service of which Mr. A. W. Machen is the head. The rural organization, however, is in direct charge of Mr. H. Conquest Clarke, superintendent, and Mr. E. C. Hathaway, supervisor. These officers have been identified with it since its inauguration, and have aided Mr. Machen in conceiving the principal features of its evolution. In addition to the carriers, 145 special agents and route inspectors complete the traveling force.

A TIME-SAVING BOON TO THE FARMER.

While the rural mail carrier has not penetrated all of the States and Territories as yet, his wagon may be seen on the highway all the way from Maine to California on its daily rounds. Some of the neighborhoods through which it passes are so thickly settled that the homes along the highway are within a few hundred yards of each other. In other localities one's nearest neighbor may be five miles away. Thus the system has been put into operation under such widely diverging conditions that the results can be studied from various points of

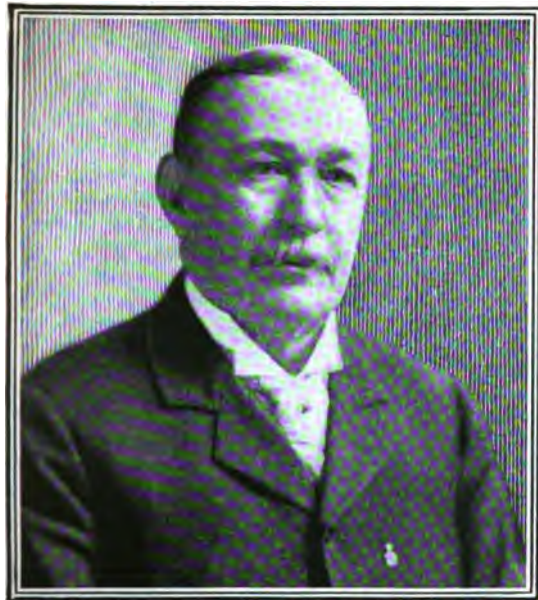
view. The class whom it has naturally benefited to the greatest extent is undoubtedly composed of people residing at a considerable distance from the nearest post office. In spite of the provision made for them, many a farmer must travel from 10 to 15 miles for his mail. This means that the better part of the day, if not all of it, is occupied in the journey to and from the "corners." No other errand may require him to visit the post-office village more than once a fortnight or a month except to get his letters, and often he allows them to accumulate, perhaps to his loss, simply because he cannot spare the time to go after them. The man who resides but two or three miles distant wastes half a day on the same mission, for besides the half-hour or so on the road, another half-hour is spent in "hitching up" and "unhitching," and the hour or two so often devoted to chatting with his neighbors or the storekeeper must be



A TYPICAL FREE DELIVERY WAGON AND CARRIER.

taken into account. No statistics are required to prove the assertion that the time occupied on these errands, if converted into money by labor in the field or garden, would add no small sum to the annual income, while it represents a national loss of millions of dollars when taken in the aggregate.

The service might commend itself for general adoption on account of the time which it saves the residents of the rural districts, for the country mail carrier in his daily trip may serve from fifty to one hundred families who otherwise must send for their letters weekly, perhaps daily, according to the extent of their correspondence. But the carrier is more than a mere collector and distributor; his wagon is a miniature post office on wheels, containing in its compartments stamps of the denominations in general use, stamped envelopes, and postal cards. He has authority to sell these, as well as to register letters de-



MR. H. CONQUEST CLARKE.

(Superintendent of the National Rural Free Delivery Service.)

livered to him which may contain money or other valuable matter. In some districts he is authorized to exchange currency for money orders sent to the people on his route. If the farmer wishes to mail a letter, and has no stamps, he can leave the amount necessary to prepay postage with the letter in the box and the postman must stamp it. In fact, the letter box, whether fastened to the tree by the roadside a mile away from his home or to the fence or hitching post in sight of the door, is his private post office, where he leaves his letters and packages to be transmitted and secures those addressed to him. The principal advantage which the city resident has over the one in the country is in the frequency of the carrier's calls and in the delivery of mail at his door, for the situation of some of the farmhouses would require a detour of a mile or more from the highway in order to reach them. Only matter requiring a receipt to be given by the owner is thus delivered. The various designs of boxes approved by the Gov-

ernment, however, are practically waterproof, and their contents are usually fully protected from the elements, while to tamper with them in any way constitutes a violation of the statutes relating to the mail service, and is a criminal offence. No matter where the box is located,—in the desert plain of the Southwest, or on an uninhabited island of the Great Lakes, or a prairie trail miles away from the nearest human habitation,—if it is a part of the rural free delivery system, it comes within the provisions of the law just as much as if it were in the heart of the metropolis.

THE MEN WHO DO THE WORK.

The *personnel* of the service is one of its most interesting features. In the selection of men to cover the various routes a wise provision has been made, that only persons who have lived at least one year within the territory covered by a route are eligible for appointment as carriers on the route in question. This naturally limits the force to residents of the rural districts and the towns which form the terminals of each route. They are required to pass an examination which tests their ability to read and write, their knowledge of mathematics, indicates their familiarity with the neighborhood, and their physical condition. They must also be in a position to furnish a suitable vehicle, drawn by one or two horses as becomes necessary. A salary of \$600 a year is paid to serve routes of 20 miles and over, \$500 for 16 to 20 miles, varying from these sums to \$150 for shorter distances, but the recompense was a sufficient inducement for about



DELIVERY AND COLLECTION BOXES AT CROSSROADS, WASHINGTON STATE.

(Some of these boxes are owned by farmers who reside two and three miles distant.)



CARRIER DELIVERING MAIL IN WINTER.

60,000 applications to be made during 1902. The majority were farmers, many of them aged men, a small proportion being residents of towns, although the service is not only difficult, but includes hardships, especially in the sparsely settled and mountainous districts. It is gratifying to note they take pride in the fact that they have an opportunity to serve the Government. They seem to regard the employment as more to their credit than the ordinary vocations. The Post Office Department attributes the really high standard of the rural carrier service largely to this sentiment. The desire to excel in the appearance of vehicles, and to make the best record in going over one's route, prove that an *esprit de corps* exists, which has been a great factor in producing the present satisfactory results. The generally high character of the force is emphasized by the fact that during the year ending June 30, 1902, only 37 out of 8,466 were dismissed for cause, and of these but 6 were for criminal violations of the postal laws.

REMARKABLE INCREASE IN VOLUME OF BUSINESS.

The value of giving the population of the rural districts the service described is indicated by the increase in business which has been noted at offices connected with the several routes. A considerable percentage of the gain shown by this class is attributed to it, and with good reason, as an analysis of some of the individual instances shows. Carroll County, Md., the first to be covered by the service, may be said to represent a typical agricultural section of the country, as 75 per cent. of its residents are of the

class for whom the system was especially instituted. Of its 33,000 population. Westminster, the largest community, contains but 3,200. The county is divided into farms ranging from 50 to 500 acres. The other communities consist principally of hamlets and larger villages. Routes covering the entire county extend from 14 post offices. The total receipts from these for the last fiscal year were \$32,161.04, an increase of 10 per cent. over the preceding year. The principal sources of business of the combined offices tabulated for the year in question is as follows:

COLLECTIONS.

	No.	Increase over preceding year.
Registered mail.....	4,248	18 per cent.
Money orders.....	2,994	70 "
Letters.....	496,742	14 "
Postals.....	98,586	15 "
Packages.....	14,515	23 "

DELIVERIES.

	No.	Increase over preceding year.
Registered mail.....	3,117	24 per cent.
Periodicals.....	1,502,508	9 "
Letters.....	806,567	16 "
Postals.....	172,226	21 "
Packages.....	70,836	35 "

The increase in the total number of pieces of mail matter collected and delivered in the same period was 605,201, or 27½ per cent. In the other sections of the United States affected by the service it has also resulted in a notable gain in the postal revenues, especially in the registered-



A RURAL INSPECTOR AND CARRIER ON A NEW ENGLAND ROUTE.

letter and money-order departments, as examination of the reports shows. In 1901, the average force of carriers employed throughout the year was 2,800, handling 175,744 money orders. In 1902, the 8,466 carriers handled 625,946 orders,—an increase of 32.2 orders to each carrier, or nearly 50 per cent. The aggregate number of letters registered by rural collectors in 1901 was 48,839, an average of 17 to each carrier; while during the last year it had swelled to 114,595,—a gain of nearly 6 per cent., allowing for the addition to the force.

SOCIAL BENEFITS.

The invention of the harvester produced a revolution in American agriculture. The establishment of the rural free delivery, however, may cause a transformation of far more significance, for it means a social evolution which will enlighten and elevate the farm home, making its life something more than the isolated existence which thousands of families are compelled by necessity to endure. The daily trips of the carrier keep them in touch with the world at large, from which the farmer is too often shut out save for the occasional visits to the neighboring village. The daily post offers him a medium for educating himself and his family in current history through the newspapers and periodicals furnished him almost as soon as they have reached the residents of the cities where they are published. The rest hours after dusk mean a period of both study and recreation, to be enjoyed by the household, instead of the monotonous idleness, for want of something to occupy the mind, which too frequently prevails, and arouses a desire to spend the evening elsewhere,—sometimes in the tavern or saloon. The farmer is more content to remain at his own fireside. With the variety of literature which the mail brings him his leisure time can be not only pleasantly but profitably occupied, while uncon-

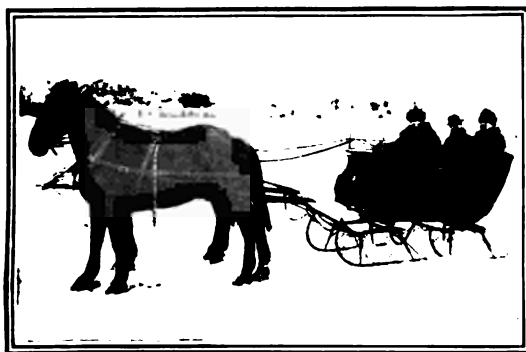


ROAD CUT THROUGH SNOW BANK—CARRIER EN ROUTE.

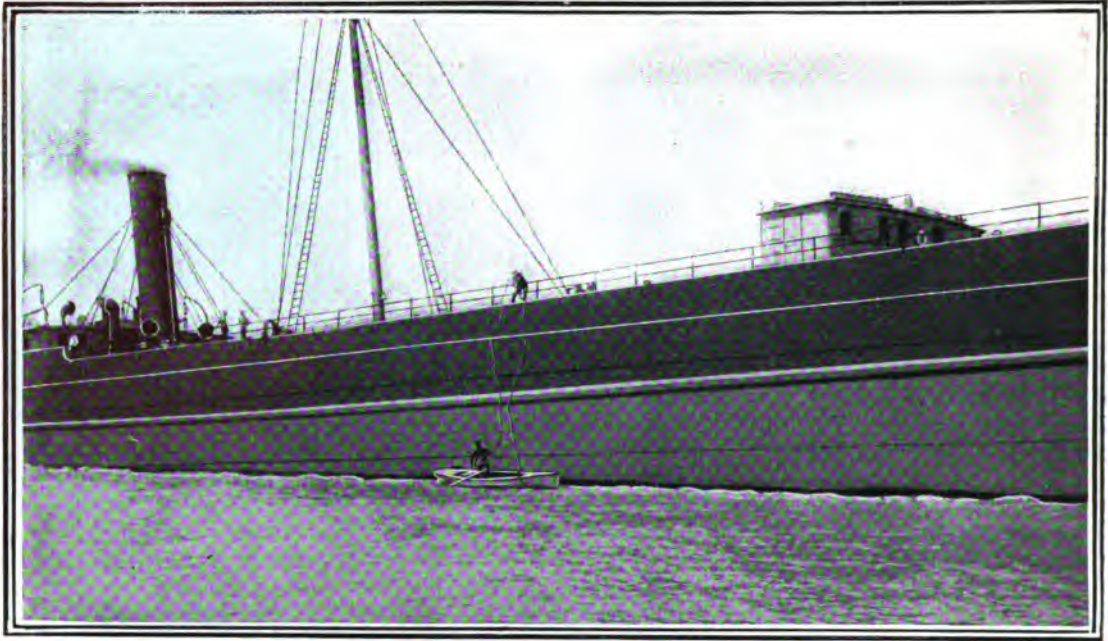
sciously he is broadening himself mentally, steadily acquiring an education which benefits him not only in his daily toil, but in a variety of other ways. The postman is not only his messenger and his banker, but his buyer, for the letter dispatched on one day to the city merchant is answered perhaps on the next by the parcel of merchandise deposited in his box,—an advantage which the housewife especially realizes. Even the weather forecast is furnished if desired, and in some parts of the country the flag flying from the mail wagon tells the man behind the plow or binding his grain in the field what he may expect from the elements in the next twenty-four hours. The carrier is also a road inspector. Highways in bad condition mean delay in service, perhaps render it impossible to carry the mail, and the necessity as well as the value of good roads is forcibly brought to the farmer's attention. Realizing the importance of such improvement, the postal officials reserve the right to discontinue the delivery on any route which requires more time than they believe should be allowed. This fact has already produced good results, but it is acknowledged that a much higher standard can be attained with progress in road building. The roads in the districts to be served are also surveyed, and with the extension of the delivery is being completed a series of maps of township and country, indicating the length, direction, even character, of every highway. These are prepared for public distribution as well as the information of the Government.

A CARRIER SERVICE FOR EVERY FARMER.

Thus is the husbandman reminded that he is a member of society, a citizen whose welfare is considered by the Government to whom he pays allegiance. To say the least, the thought is up-



ROUTE INSPECTOR GOING OVER A SYSTEM.



COLLECTING AND DELIVERING MAIL FROM A LAKE STEAMER ON THE DETROIT RIVER.

lifting, encouraging. It tends to make one more satisfied with his lot, though it be cast far from the great centers of activity. The change which may be brought about in the rural home may overcome the prejudice to country life, which already exists to an alarming degree among the younger generation, and has caused a movement to town and city which has assumed large proportions. Should it overcome this discontent and restlessness, the establishment of the rural free delivery will be well worth the expense required to maintain it; but a study of what has thus far been accomplished leads the officials who have organized it to believe that it will eventually become self-supporting, judging by the ratio of increase in receipts already alluded to. More than this, they feel warranted in asserting that it is not only possible, but practicable, to give every rural citizen of the United States the daily service of the carrier, except in a few localities where physical conditions render it impossible. Already investigations have been made which lead to the conclusion that the 1,000,000 miles requiring service can be covered by 40,000 postmen, at a total expense of \$24,000,000,—truly a small sum when contrasted with the benefits it may confer on a population that constitutes such a vital part of the nation, for it must be remembered that the farm families in the United States to-day represent no less

than 40,000,000 people, occupying over 5,000,000 farms. This division of the nation has an investment which combined is four times the aggregate value of industries in the United States—a fact of deep significance.

THE MARINE SERVICE.

The marine free delivery, while not a part of the rural organization, is so nearly allied to it that it may be referred to. As yet it is confined to serving vessels passing the city of Detroit, and has reached such proportions that in one year 343,213 pieces of mail have been delivered and 100,730 collected. The method employed is as follows: When a vessel to which mail is directed "*via* Detroit" approaches the city, the postal authorities are apprised by the telegraph or telephone message from the observation station, and the rowboat containing the marine carrier is towed into the channel by a small steamer. The carrier rows to the vessel's side and "makes fast" by a line thrown from it, while the mail is delivered by hoisting it aboard in a pail or other receptacle. Any to be posted is delivered to the carrier in the same manner, when the boat is "cast off" and towed back to the city. The marine carriers have become so expert in the service that the transfers are made without stopping vessels, and at times when they are moving as rapidly as 10 and 12 miles an hour.

THE AMERICAN OX AND HIS PASTURE.

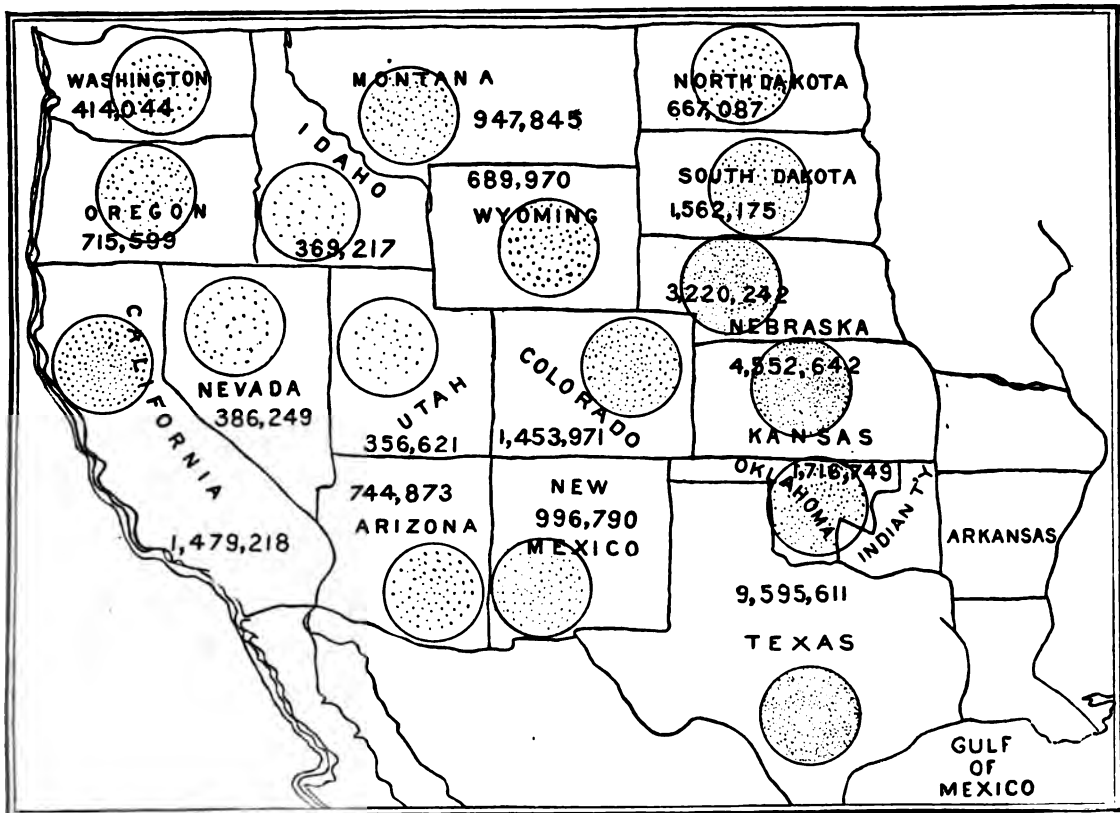
BY E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS.

(Chancellor of the University of Nebraska.)

NO group of men in the Fifty-seventh Congress is dealing with more vital matters than the House Committee on Public Lands. These gentlemen are making an effort to solve the question of protecting and improving the great government pastures, that these may grow more beef and mutton, and that suitable parts may in time be put to agricultural use. The problem involves conflicting interests, yet some action upon it is imperative. It is a national one, having to do with the price of meat in every American home.

The following data from the Twelfth Census show the immensity and the distribution of the

cattle industry. (See accompanying cattle map.) No effort is made to exhibit distribution by counties or numbers per square mile. The statistics embrace all cattle fed for beef purposes, therefore some which are not exactly "range" cattle. The overwhelming majority, however, are range cattle; so that these figures and the accompanying map suffice for comparative purposes, placing before the reader with considerable exactness the situation and divisions of the great United States ox pasture. It will be seen that the richest part of this is the strip of high land lying just east of the Rocky Mountains:



CATTLE MAP OF THE RANGE STATES.

(This map is based on the Twelfth Census. There is one dot for every 10,000 cattle.)

Photographed for the *Breeder's Gazette*.

CHAMPION AND SWEEPSTAKE HERD, ST. LOUIS FAIR.—BEEF BREEDS.

States and Territories.	Number of cattle.	States and Territories.	Number of cattle.
Arizona.....	744,873	Oklahoma.....	1,716,749
California.....	1,479,218	Oregon.....	715,599
Colorado.....	1,453,971	South Dakota.....	1,562,175
Idaho.....	399,217	Texas.....	9,595,611
Kansas.....	4,552,642	Utah.....	355,621
Montana.....	974,845	Washington.....	414,044
Nebraska.....	3,220,242	Wyoming.....	689,970
Nevada.....	396,249	New Mexico.....	993,790
North Dakota.....	667,067		

Probably four hundred million acres of the public domain are at present fit only for pasture. This does not mean that the soil lacks fertility, which most of it does not, but that the region is partially arid, the average rainfall being so distributed through the year that while it suffices for range purposes, it is some seasons not quite sufficient for farming. Much of this territory can be made fit for farms and homes, but there are in the United States many hundred thousand acres which will always be better adapted to grazing than to farming.

That the life-supporting power of the Government pastures is rapidly declining there can be no doubt. The high price of beef is not due entirely to the rapacity of packers. Public pasture is dying out. Areas which half a century ago grew vast herds of buffalo, antelope, and deer, and subsequently even more immense troops of cattle, are now almost a waste. Still ampler domains are approaching the same fate.

The range has been abused. Too many cat-

tle and sheep have been kept upon it. For years "free grass" was to be had everywhere. Old settlers declare that when they first saw prairies which now appear barren as Sahara, grass there was from one to three feet high—this not only near water, but on the sides and tops of hills, and not alone in favored seasons, but usually.

Such luxuriance was not aboriginal. It developed with and after the extinction of the wild herbivora. But these, when most numerous, never cropped the prairie as is now done. Indians and the great carnivores seem to have nicely dressed the balance between herbage and herbivore so as to keep the prairie perpetually clad and whole. The "tragedy of the range" opened only with civilization.

A cowman, locating anywhere, assumed "range rights" to all he could see. When a second came there was, as a rule, a peaceful division, reminding of Abraham and Lot, water and grass being abundant for both. In like manner the two shared with number three, the three with four, and so on. The sheepman and the "nestor,"—the man with a hoe,—had not yet appeared. Occupants were hardly ever owners. The fees of the ranges belonged to the Government, or to railways, counties, schools, or private individuals, but neither the owners nor their agents ever came on the ground. It was the vaquero's inning, and he scored very successfully till he was "out."

He was "out," in effect, when railroads were built, when homesteaders and other settlers made their advent. It presently began to be clear that what had seemed a perpetual surfeit of cattle food could not last. Hence competition, fiercer yearly and monthly, each ranchman being determined to make the utmost of his chance before it vanished. Every man on the ground bought all the cows he could, using his cash and his utmost credit, heedless of rates per cent. Outsiders crowded in and did the same. The danger of overstocking the range occurred to no one. Most localities soon had twice or thrice as many creatures as they could feed. An unusually dry summer or cold winter killed cattle as frost kills flies.

Inhumanity to brutes was not the sole or the worst barbarism attending this régime. The struggle for pasture led to range disputes and wars. One twelvemonth five hundred men lost their lives in range feuds. In places every bite of grass that cows got had to be saved for them by Winchester rifles. One old ranger recently said he was "tired of sleeping with a Winchester for a pillow."

The cattlemen of a county, a valley, or any neighborhood forming a natural unity, make common cause against outsiders. The Brown's Park Ranchmen's Association of Colorado, in a published resolution, claims that "the pasturage by rights belongs to the people residing in the community, and that they, and they alone, are entitled to the use of it." The resolution adds: "To deprive us of or abridge our existing privileges is to take away from us our inalienable rights of the pursuit of health and happiness

guaranteed us in the Great Declaration of Principles and Constitution of the United States, and we will hold as public and private enemies any man or set of men in Congress or out who will in any way change or alter existing range conditions or abridge our range rights in any way whatsoever to the use of the public domain."

There are always plenty of nomad herders confining their stock to no locality, and not scrupling to ignore "range rights" wherever feed can be found. Sheep feeders are more commonly in this class. Last year a county in Oregon was invaded by 250,000 migratory sheep. Sheep men attempting such a raid from Utah into Colorado in March, 1900, found the way barred. Fifty miles of the State line was patrolled by mounted stockmen, armed with Winchesters and ready to kill. According to press statements, the authors of the resolution just quoted enforced their bill of rights by the death of two sheep herders, with their flocks, numbering, perhaps, 2,000 head. In another unpleasantness of the kind 5,000 or 6,000 sheep were driven over a precipice and piled up at the bottom, and three of their attendants placed on the mortuary list. In Wyoming, early in 1902, four men and some 2,000 sheep were killed.

Many of the most valuable grasses are annuals. Drastic feeding on them year after year leaves too little seed for renewal; finally, in places, none at all. Some of the best grasses have thus ceased to exist in localities where they once abounded,—as if a farmer had used up all his seed corn or wheat, leaving none to start a new crop. Too close grazing in time destroys any grass. During long droughts cattle pull up grass by the roots. Grass is killed by trampling. Areas far from streams and springs have to be pastured. Herds are sometimes driven to water fifteen or twenty miles daily or every other day, forming trails, each an eighth of a mile wide, where no forage can grow. Just so, a hundred years ago, buffaloes created highways which stagecoaches afterward utilized. Water being scarce, cattle become weak, and though there may be plenty of grass,—and that always the sweetest and most nutritious,—some way from the watering places, the stock, preferring starvation to death from thirst, crowd near the water, consuming every sprig of vegetation there, and trampling the ground bare for miles in all directions. This effect is the worst in drought years. Grass and water being then hardest to get, stock must travel greater distances between food and drink, treading to death miles of precious forage.

When pasture becomes too poor for cattle, sheep are brought in, being able to live where



A THOROUGHbred ABERDEEN-ANGUS BULL.
(Property of the University of Nebraska.)



THE WALKER BARTON CATTLE

(These cattle were raised entirely on the range, without

cattle would die. Sheep easily eat herbage out by the roots, killing even perennial grasses. Goats, too, have been introduced, which destroy shrubs by nipping their foliage; and hogs, which dig up and devour the roots.

As the larger carnivora were exterminated rabbits, prairie dogs, and gophers multiplied into serious plagues. Five jack rabbits or twenty prairie dogs consume as much grass as a sheep. Prairie dogs not only eat what grows, but spoil the land itself. There are prairie-dog settlements having 2,000 to 5,000 of the nuisances per square mile, where sand, clay, and

"gumbo" overspread and render useless all the good soil. Vegetable as well as animal scourges come in. While grass which cattle love is kept from seeding, the prickly-pear cactus, thorn bushes, shrubs, and weeds which they avoid have the right of way and multiply. Looking over a field thus cursed, your "tenderfoot" thinks the soil must be worthless, whereas it may be of the richest, having merely been forced by misuse to grow noxious instead of useful plants. Hundreds of square miles of invaluable soil have been overrun with the prickly pear, and the stand becomes more formidable yearly.

Many counties estimate that the cactus plague has diminished their cattle-carrying capacity a fourth or a third.

Homesteaders taking up lands too dry for agriculture have added to the mischief by turning over and killing grass-clad sod, ruining good pasturage, and weaving no garment in its stead. Not seldom the dry soil thus denuded blows away, leaving gravel banks where earlier there was a noble covering of succulent herbage.

In many other places the best soil, bare, destitute of protection, and swept by the



THE WALKER BARTON RANCH IN 1896.



RANCH, NEAR MITCHELL, NEB.

winter feed; the four-year-olds sold for \$100 each.)

wind, has been scattered. At the same time, when no matting of vegetation overspreads a tract, its water-storing capacity is decreased or destroyed. The rains which fall upon it, instead of being, as formerly, retained in great part upon or beneath the surface, roll off forthwith. Commonly they produce torrents, plowing great furrows or gullies, which deepen each year, and by and by are yawning gulches or cañons.

In these various ways it has come to pass that extensive plateaus, once rich as gardens of the gods, are now in effect deserts. As the vegetable cover is destroyed the wilderness advances, the pasture retreats, the vicinity becomes more arid, springs dry up, and streams remit their flow. President Roosevelt's first message well describes the deadly effect of overgrazing in the forests, and the process is still more rapid and fatal on the shadeless plains. Some think that not less than 5,000,000 acres will thus be lost from the nation's ranges this year.

Where desolation is not so complete you may yet be able to graze but ten cattle to a square mile. A range of which twenty acres will feed an ox, is now considered rather fine pasture. Once five hundred steers not seldom pastured on a section,—about an acre and a quarter per head; in most such localities ten or twelve acres per head are now required. The beginning of 1897 found the carrying capacity of the South-western ranges, on the average, probably, 40 per cent. less than in 1880. Texas alone may have lost \$40,000,000 in this way; other States and Territories, together, \$100,000,000. If the

Government pastures still bore as rich grass as covered them in 1880 or 1885, they would be feeding stock worth \$100,000,000 more than that at present on them.

The number of cattle in the United States is increasing, though it does not keep pace with the population. But the business is more and more forced on to high-priced land, rendering beef-production costlier than it need be. According to figures laid before the House Committee on Public Lands, April 16, 1902, the number of range cattle sent to market diminished 81 per cent. between 1895 and 1901.

With due care the range can be made to recover its old fertility. It might easily be put in condition to fatten four head of stock to each head now grazing upon it. To effect this, regulation is needed. Some authority must be asserted over the pastures to prevent their abuse, to make it for the interest of occupants not to kill the goose which lays the golden egg. An end must be put to the blighting competition now kept up.

Regulation being established, pastures can be used in rotation, a period of rest being given each, during which the grazing and trampling of herds may cease, and grasses have opportunity to scatter and fructify their seeds. Barren places can be artificially reseeded and induced to yield herbage as of old. In localities better grasses than ever grew there can be sown and grown.

Such a recuperative process has been set going in other countries and in parts of our own.



A TYPICAL COWBOY OF TO-DAY.

Australia has suffered the pinch through which we are now passing. Her great live-stock industry was dying out; her exports of wool and of frozen and preserved meats dwindling. Ranges were depleted or destroyed, as now with us. Cattle "duffing," outlawry, range jumping, and quarrels were general. The men of that country faced the problem and solved it. A system of leases was devised, giving each grazier, for a term of twenty-eight years, exclusive range rights upon his land. It became profitable for him to im-

prove his holding instead of promoting its deterioration. The lessee cuts his domain in two, pasturing each part one year and resting it the next. In this way the whole pasture gradually improves in quality. Cattle multiply and thrive as additional grass grows to feed them.

Mexico and Canada have had a similar experience, and so, in our own country, have Texas, and other States. The excellent control of cattle afforded by the Canadian system accounts for the present hegira of American cattle people across our northern border.

When all Texas ranges were open the same ills afflicted that State which now prevail on free ranges elsewhere. In 1895, Texas passed a leasing law, since which time the improvement has been extraordinary. That State now produces fine range stock. The longhorn Texan has disappeared, being supplanted by the shorthorn, the Hereford, and the Aberdeen-Angus. Destruction of the range has ended, and rehabilitation is slowly but surely setting in. The average size of herds is less than under promiscuity, the number of cattle greatly increases, as also the number of individuals who profit by the cattle business.

The ruin of grass and soil is not the sole source of loss occurring through the drift system. One hardly less important relates to the quality of cattle. The drift system offers no motive for the improvement of breeds. When different men's herds continually intermix, no one owner will go to the expense of purchasing blooded stock. The tendency upon the free range in Texas and elsewhere has always been to produce the sorriest specimens of cattle which could live — long horns, large bones, the maximum of



WINTER FEEDING AND BRANDING.

waste in each carcass and the minimum of valuable cuts.

On the other hand, where segregation has been established, and each several proprietor can govern his own stock, excluding other people's, extraordinary improvement in cattle types uniformly occurs. Thoroughbred Hereford, short-horn, Aberdeen-Angus, and Galloway males are at great expense purchased for range use. Col-

months. Indeed, he cannot afford to do otherwise. If springs are fickle, wells are bored. Cattle need never travel more than five or six miles to water. This saves the trampling of forage. Weak and sickly creatures and calves receive attention.

A good range of this order is supplied with a barometer, which the foreman studies as assiduously as a captain at sea. At the first sign of a blizzard the cattle are rounded up in the vicinity of the stacked fodder, so that when the storm breaks, no matter how severe, not a calf need perish. Overstocking is prevented and some measure of rest secured every few years for each parcel of the range.

It is sometimes excellent policy for a cattle man to borrow money upon his stock. If the herd is under surveillance, bankers are quite willing enough to discount notes on such security. They, however, naturally refuse to loan upon a mixed and drifting herd, elusive as so many fish in the sea, containing "mavericks" and cattle of various brands, the number bearing any given

brand being ascertainable only with difficulty, if at all.

Studies made the last few years by experts in the Department of Agriculture show beyond a peradventure the possibility of regressing any range so soon as stable and authoritative control can be established over it. Under stability the old days of rank vegetation will return. The wilderness will blossom as the rose, better water facilities will be possible, weeds and animal pests will be kept in check, the best native grasses and forage plants be cultivated, and new and improved sorts be introduced. Thus renovated, the ranges may indefinitely continue to be as fine grazing land as there is in the world. Governor Richards, of Wyoming, estimates that pasture lands, which he has leased and fenced, produce to-day 100 per cent. more grass than when no one had any interest in cherishing them. There is voluminous testimony to the same effect.

A few years since, after a severe drought, one rancher plowed fire-guard strips, each four or five feet wide, across his land every forty or fifty yards. Fortunately, the range was not burned. Early in the fall millions of needles from the



THE HOPE DALE RANCH IN NEBRASKA—A TYPICAL HILLS RANCH.

onel Slaughter, of Texas, is understood to have paid \$5,000 for Ancient Briton, the Hereford winner at the Chicago World's Fair. This valuable bull he placed on a Texas ranch with high-grade or pure-bred cows, to produce brood animals for the ranges. He is said to have paid the same sum for a similar purpose for another Hereford bull, Sir Bredwell. A thousand dollars is not infrequently given for a range bull, though \$500, \$300, and \$200 are more usual prices. The close-pasture system not only enables proprietors to afford such creatures; it makes possible some approach to "breeding by hand,"—i.e., using each male each time under a herdsman's control, thereby, every pairing season, saving innumerable bullfights, and also otherwise, in both sexes of the cattle, an immense sum of valuable vitality now lost.

Better care in every respect can be bestowed upon a segregated herd. Mange and other diseases can be stamped out or kept from spreading, which, if all cattle run together, cannot possibly be arrested. A grazer controlling a first-class range can afford to make ample water provision for the whole year, as well as lay up hay and other stover for use during the severe

needle grass had blown over the pasture and planted themselves in the broken ground. Other grass seeds had also caught there. Next summer those fire-guard ribbons were thickly seeded with fine grasses. From these beds the spaces between the ribbons were reseeded, so that the second summer the entire range had markedly improved.

Plowing in the way described is not necessary. Bare spots may be simply harrowed, and seed from valuable grasses sown on them when wet. Spots can thus in a short time be covered with the best grasses, and these will, a little later, overspread and reseed the whole. Even harrowing may be dispensed with if sowing occurs just before or after a rain, or when a thin snow covers the ground.

The advantages of herding under control are so decisive that control has for a number of years been in actual exercise on public ranges. To secure or facilitate this millions of acres of government land have been fenced,—contrary to law, but to the immense advancement of the cattle industry.

All meadows, all patches clearly suited to cultivation, all springs or other natural water privileges, indeed, all the best grazing lands, had been taken up and were owned by settlers. A settler might own a quarter section producing hay, and two miles away another section equally good, the two, however, separated by sand hills with "blow-outs," where the wind had whipped loose sand from certain spots, leaving great cavities, and piled it up elsewhere. Such intervening land being absolutely useless save for the sparse feed upon it, and unavailable to an outsider for lack of water, what more natural than that the man should fence across from one freehold to the other? He would then sell four-fifths of his saddle horses and buy registered bulls with the money, and have his cowboys raising hay in place of raising "hell." Such obvious gains soon made fencing more or less general.

Thousands of miles of fences had been built prior to the "no-fence" law of 1885. By suffering a large part of these remained till 1891, since which time the Interior Department has been insisting on their removal. In response to innumerable entreaties a reprieve was granted,—first till April 1, 1892, and then till July 1. The department has since been making every effort to execute the law.

It being evident that the Government was resolute, influential cattlemen began planning for a federal leasing law like that of Australia or of Texas. Several drafts of lease laws are now before the House Committee on Public

Lands. Typical among these are H. R. 7212, introduced by Hon. J. D. Bowersock, of Kansas, and the nearly equivalent Senate bill 3311.

The "cattle barons" and great cattle companies are not suppliants for leases. Such are sufficient unto themselves. They can isolate their herds, thus securing the advantages we have described above without the expense of fencing. A stockman rich enough can hire his little army of cowboys with their necessary outfit,—round-up wagon, and so on,—for his herd, asking no aid from any outside source. He can ward off nomads and, if so disposed, plague settlers. It is the herdsman of ordinary means who would be glad to lease.

The purpose of the various bills is to hold United States grazing lands for homesteads so far as they are or can by irrigation be made suitable, meantime renting these lands at an equitable rate for grazing purposes,—any part of a leased tract to be at once cut out of the lease whenever entered upon for homestead purposes.

Numerous and earnest objections are made to the leasing scheme, whatever its form. The nomad herdsmen, of course, object. They enjoy government pasturage free, and do not wish to pay. Opposition is offered by some cattlemen who have, contrary to law, fenced government land, are utilizing it free, to the exclusion of their neighbors' herds, and desire to continue this monopoly. Most cattle owners who have fences, however, favor a lease system.

A small class of opponents are settlers who do not make a business of cattle feeding, but simply own a few head, which they brand and turn out upon the prairie practically without care. In good seasons their cattle are a source of profit; in bad seasons droves of them die.

Most sheep feeders oppose leases, their principal reason being that sheep like to expatiate over a greater range and variety of territory than cattle, and cannot, year in and year out, be profitably fed on a restricted area.

The above grounds for protest would probably give Congress little pause, but there is one objection which must be admitted to be serious in the extreme,—the fear that leasing would interfere with the taking up of homesteads. Mr. Binger Hermann, Commissioner of the General Land Office, urges this consideration with great force. Even if allowed by law to enter upon leased land at option, and have it immediately left out of leases, homesteaders might not care to encounter the opposition of powerful leaseholders by trenching on their preserves, so that the homestead right might, spite of the law, be in effect a dead letter.

This, all admit, would be a lamentable result.

In his proclamation of August 7, 1885, following up the "no-fence" Act of Congress approved the preceding February 25th, President Cleveland declared: "The public policy demands that the public domain shall be reserved for the occupancy of actual settlers in good faith, and that our people who seek homes upon such domain shall in no wise be prevented by any wrongful interference with the safe and free entry thereof to which they may be entitled."

Few, probably, are aware of the rapidity with which homesteading is now going on, of the avidity with which somewhat arid and forbidding tracts are seized upon and settled. In the domain covered by the lease-bill drafts no preceding year witnessed so many agricultural settler entries as the fiscal year 1900-01. That year, on the territory referred to, 53,654 original homesteads were taken, covering 7,874 acres, and 27,904 final homestead entries were made, embracing 4,135,819 acres. Here were 81,558 persons, most of them heads of families, making homes.

Vast portions of the public domain long thought unfit for cultivation are now profitably

titled even without irrigation. Other considerable sections are irrigated into fertility by private effort from streams or by artesian wells. Intensive culture, now coming to be understood, turns other semi-arid regions into blooming farms almost irrespective of rainfall. Every patriot wishes these processes continued.

However difficult to frame a leasing law which would not hinder homesteading, such a feat seems not beyond human skill. It were a mistake to suppose that, generally, the interests of cattlemen conflict with those of agricultural settlers. In the main the reverse is the case. The ranch business affords the neighboring farmer his best if not his only market for hay, grain, butter, milk, chickens, eggs, and vegetables, all of which most ranchers prefer to buy rather than produce for themselves. Commissioner Hermann has given us points for the construction of a lease-measure in harmony with settlers' interests, and Representative Lacey, of Iowa, has in part wrought these into a bill. If a draft for all the range States cannot be agreed upon, the committee may perhaps prepare one for Nebraska, Kansas, and eastern Colorado, where conditions are similar and the need pressing.

THE ADVANCE IN BEEF PRICES.

BY FRED C. CROXTON.

AN advance in the price of few articles could cause the same discussion and be as generally felt by the public as the advance in meat, and more especially fresh beef, during the year 1902. The majority of those who purchase dressed meat live in the cities and towns, and being convenient to stores or markets, buy their supplies of meat in small quantities, two or three times a week, or perhaps every day, and the frequency of purchase tends to emphasize any increase in price.

This advance affected not only meat, but, to a greater or less extent, all kinds of substitutes for meat as well, the increased demand necessarily influencing the prices of such articles. The present inquiry is restricted, however, to the subject of the advance in beef prices.

The advance, while affecting consumers in all conditions of life, was most keenly felt by the workingman. The average family consists of five persons, and a workingman's family of that size (taking average conditions in various States) consumes about seven and one-half pounds of

beef per week, the cost at normal prices being about ninety cents. The grades and kinds of beef consumed by the wage-earner vary materially in different localities, but a reasonable choice of beef for a week's supply for the family may be said to be 2 pounds roasting beef, 2 pounds soup beef, 1 pound steak, and 2½ pounds corned beef.

Using the retail prices collected by the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics "in the different towns and cities in the commonwealth in which considerable numbers of persons are employed in manufacturing industries, and from establishments largely patronized by working people," the cost of this selection of beef in April, 1902, was 13.3 per cent. above the cost in 1897; 12.1 per cent. above the cost in 1881; 27.5 per cent. above the cost in 1878; 6.4 per cent. less than the cost in 1872; and 61.9 per cent. above the cost in 1860. During a period of high prices many wage earners are unable to purchase the usual quantity of beef, but must confine themselves to their usual expenditure for beef

of, say, 90 cents per week. If they buy the same quality and the various cuts in the same proportion enumerated above, instead of being able to buy the normal amount of $7\frac{1}{4}$ pounds per week, they could have bought in April, 1902, but 6.6 pounds; in 1897, 7.5 pounds; in 1881, 7.4 pounds; in 1878, 8.4 pounds; in 1872, 6.2 pounds; in 1860, 10.7 pounds.

The highest-priced hotels and restaurants, as a rule, made no advance in rates during the year owing to the change in beef prices. The medium-priced establishments, in some cases, advanced rates under the American plan 50 cents per day, and in other cases omitted a meat course occasionally; the lower-priced hotels and restaurants, in some cases, made no change, while in others prices were advanced or meat of slightly inferior quality was served.

The effect on the profits was not, in some cases, so great in the larger and better class of hotels as in the smaller ones, as the dealers supplying large quantities of high-grade meat often sold at a loss in order to hold their trade. In a typical instance a large buyer of the best grades of beef bought until the latter part of August from his regular dealer at prices which prevailed in previous years. The latter part of August the price was advanced about 15 per cent., and since that time there has been practically no decline. His purchases for several months meant a loss to the meat dealer, which loss was made up in part, at least, by selling to other customers the lower grades of beef at prices above what the market really justified, as the shortage was a shortage of prime corned beef rather than of beef of lower grades.

The causes of the advance in prices of beef, so far as natural conditions are concerned, were the increased demand, the short supply of cattle, and the small corn crop of 1901. The first and third of these were the more apparent, the shortage in supply being in quality more than in quantity. A systematic study of present conditions can only be made by a comparison with conditions during previous years.

THE DEMAND.

For every one hundred persons in this country in 1890 there were in 1900 one hundred and twenty-one. The principal beef-consuming population is urban and semi-urban. In 1890, forty-three out of every hundred persons were in these classes, while in 1900 forty-eight out of every hundred, or almost one-half of the total population, were classed as urban or semi-urban.

The wages paid the working people were never better than during the last three years, and employment in most industries has been

regular. With steady employment and good wages the workingman is using not only more meat, but is able, with meat at normal prices, to buy better grades than heretofore.

Our domestic exports of beef are making increased demands. The total quantity of beef (fresh, canned, salted, pickled, and other cured) exported during the five years ending June 30, 1902, was 16.6 per cent. greater than the quantity exported during the five years ending June 30, 1897, and 31.2 per cent. greater than the quantity exported during the five years ending June 30, 1892.

The domestic exports of fresh beef alone show a much greater increase: the quantity exported during the five years ending June 30, 1902, was 39.1 per cent. greater than was exported during the preceding five years, and 87.9 per cent. greater than was exported during the five years ending June 30, 1892.

The exports of fresh, canned, salted, and cured beef for the year ending June 30, 1900, were equal to 13.7 per cent. of all beef sold by the wholesale slaughtering and meat-packing establishments, while in 1890 they equaled 10.3 per cent. of all beef sold by this class of establishments.

Of fresh beef alone the exports in 1900 equaled 11.3 per cent. of all fresh beef sold by the wholesale slaughtering and packing establishments, while in 1890 they equaled but 6.4 per cent. In 1900, the wholesale slaughtering and meat-packing establishments sold but 7.8 per cent. more fresh beef than in 1890, yet the amount exported was 90 per cent. greater.

THE SUPPLY.

During the seven years, 1892 to 1898, the low prices discouraged the raising of cattle, the general depression affecting in a greater or less degree the demand; but in the fall of 1899, following the return of prosperous conditions, the price of cattle advanced decidedly. This increase brought into the market all available cattle. A slight decline in price followed in the spring of 1900, but from that time there was a gradual advance in price until the last of August, 1902, when the highest price of the year was reached. Since that time there has been a slight decline. With the high prices there has been, of course, a heavy marketing.

Owing to a lack of uniformity in the schedules used by the Eleventh and Twelfth censuses, it is impossible to determine exactly the increase or decrease in the total number of cattle on farms and ranges in the United States during the decade. If calves of five months and less were included in the returns for 1890, the total

number of cattle increased 17.6 per cent. ; if no calves under one year were included in the returns for 1890, the total number decreased 8.9 per cent. It is probable, however, that a greater or less number of the spring calves were included in the 1890 returns, and that there was some increase.

Assuming that the increase was 17.6 per cent., it was still less than the increase in population. On the other hand, if there was an actual decrease in the number of cattle, the increase of 20.7 per cent. in population, the increase in individual demand due to steady employment, and the decided increase in exports would have so much the greater tendency to advance prices of beef.

Other sources of information also show that the supply of cattle has not kept pace with the increased demands. The four Western slaughtering centers,—Chicago, Kansas City, Omaha, and St. Louis,—dress about 65 per cent. of all cattle slaughtered by wholesale establishments.

During the five years 1897 to 1901 the total number of cattle slaughtered in those four cities was but 2.1 per cent. greater than the number in the same cities during the preceding five years. The figures showing the average weight of cattle at these four cities are not available, but Chicago weights may be considered representative. The average weight of all cattle received at Chicago during the five years 1897 to 1901 was 1,070 pounds, as against 1,080 pounds during the five years 1892 to 1896. Assuming that there was the same reduction in average weight of cattle slaughtered, the gross weight of cattle slaughtered at the four cities above named, during the period 1897 to 1901 was but 1.2 per cent. greater than during the five-year period preceding.

In a report on wholesale slaughtering and meat packing, the Twelfth Census shows that for the year ending May 31, 1890, the wholesale establishments slaughtered 5,422,044 cattle, while for the year ending May 31, 1900, the number was 5,530,911,—an increase of but 2.0 per cent. In the disposal of their products in 1900, 7.8 per cent. more fresh beef was sold than in 1890 ; but the total quantity of fresh, canned, salted, and other cured beef sold was 7.2 per cent. less than ten years before.

In connection with these figures it should be borne in mind that during the ten years there was a gradual development of the wholesale slaughtering and packing industry, so that the large establishments now handle a greater per cent. of all cattle slaughtered than heretofore.

The receipts of cattle during 1902 at the four Western centers were small during some of the

months, notably May, but during the months of September, October, and November they were unusually large. The receipts at these markets during the first eleven months of 1902 were more than 800,000 above the average receipts for the same months during the preceding ten years. The low average weight, however, seriously affected the supply. The average weight of cattle received at Chicago during the eleven months, January to November, 1902, was but 976 pounds. In the same months of 1901 the average weight was 1,034 ; in 1900, 1,076 ; and during the first eleven months of 1896, when cattle were very cheap, 1,120 pounds.

The difficulty, it will be seen, was not in securing a sufficient number of cattle for slaughtering, but in securing cattle of the best grades. During the early months of the year comparatively little feeding was done, owing to the scarcity of corn, and its consequent extremely high price, while during August and September the high price of cattle caused many to be marketed from the grass, and a little later great numbers went to the slaughterers when only partly corn fed.

It is interesting to note the effect of this marked reduction in the average weight of the cattle marketed in 1902. Grass-fed or partly corn-fed cattle will of course furnish a much less proportion of dressed beef than will cattle fully corn-fed, but assuming that cattle dressed the same percentage of their gross weight in 1902, when the average weight was low, as in 1896, when the average weight was high, and also assuming that all the cattle marketed in Chicago were slaughtered, the comparison between 1902 and 1896 is as follows : The receipts of cattle at Chicago in the eleven months, January to November, 1902, were more than a quarter million greater than during the same months in 1896, but the gross weight received was over 95,000,000 pounds less than in 1896, which equals a reduction in dressed weight of almost 52,000,000 pounds of beef.

The average beef supply of a workingman's family, as before suggested, is about seven and one-half pounds per week. The effect of the reduced average weight can perhaps be realized when it is seen that although more than a quarter of a million more cattle were marketed in Chicago during the first eleven months of 1902 than during the first eleven months of 1896, yet the number marketed in the first eleven months of 1896 would furnish a year's supply of dressed beef for 133,000 families of five persons each more than would the much larger number marketed in the first eleven months of 1902. It must be borne in mind that this refers to Chicago alone, and that the

same decrease in average weight probably prevailed in all the other slaughtering centers.

It having been suggested that the diminishing grazing area tends to reduce the supply of cattle, it is interesting to see what foundation, if any, exists for this statement.

The seventeen States and Territories, including and west of North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, embrace the present and former grazing land. Owing to the recent organization of Oklahoma, the returns for the Tenth and Eleventh censuses are incomplete, and it is impossible to include it in this presentation, but conditions in Oklahoma are quite similar to those existing in adjoining States.

The total number of cattle on farms and ranges in the sixteen remaining States and Territories increased, between 1880 and 1890, 98.5 per cent., and between 1890 and 1900, 15.3 per cent., the per cent. of increase in these sections having been much greater between 1880 and 1890 and slightly less between 1890 and 1900 than the per cent. of increase for the whole of the United States. The change from ranges to farms was made much more rapidly during the decade between 1880 and 1890 than since 1890, the number of farms in these sixteen States and Territories having increased 53.4 per cent. during the ten years 1880 to 1890, and 34.0 per cent. between 1890 and 1900.

From investigations made by the Tenth Census in 1880, the average density of stock occupation of the available occupied pasturage in these sixteen States and Territories was one head of neat stock to 43.82 acres, the average number of acres occupied by one head varying from 24.72 in Texas to 145.65 in Nevada. The Census Office derived these State averages by dividing the acres occupied by the units of stock, one head of neat stock being considered the unit and five sheep equal to one head of cattle in consumption of pasture.

Considering the number of cattle in relation to the total land surface of the sixteen States and Territories heretofore specified, the density of occupation was,—in 1880, one head to 92 acres; in 1890, one head to 46 acres; and in 1900, one head to 40 acres.

An interesting instance of the effect which the cultivation of land has on the supply of cattle is found in western Kansas. The section of that State west of the east county line of Phillips County at the north and Comanche County at the south (nearly corresponding to the ninety-ninth meridian) was reported, in 1880, "preëminently a grazing country." The number of cattle in that section was, in 1880,

184,586; in 1890, 432,056; and in 1900, 945,444; an increase of 134 per cent. between 1880 and 1890, and 119 per cent. between 1890 and 1900.

In addition to this great increase in cattle, the counties within the above-described limits show a most wonderful advance in corn and wheat production, less than a quarter million acres and almost two and one-half million bushels in 1879; a little more than one million acres and almost seventeen million bushels in 1889; and more than one and three-fifths million acres and more than twenty million bushels in 1899, the corn crop of 1899 being sufficient to fatten almost two hundred thousand head of cattle. This takes no account of the thousands of bushels of oats, rye, and barley and of the many tons of hay and forage.

Many sections of the West which, a few years ago, were devoted to grazing are now under cultivation, and the farmers, in addition to the large crops of grain and forage, are also raising many more cattle than were formerly raised in the same localities when devoted exclusively to grazing. These cattle are, as a rule, of better breeds, and instead of being marketed from the grass, they are, under normal conditions, corn fed.

It is apparent, then, that these sections heretofore devoted to grazing are now producing many more cattle, and that the beef produced is of a much higher grade than under former conditions.

Many localities in the West are unfit for anything but grazing, but such tracts in many instances have become surrounded by cultivated land, and the ranchman is not, as formerly, wholly dependent upon the grass supply, but can depend to some extent upon the forage and grain raised within a reasonable distance of his ranch.

Considering all the facts relating to the supply of cattle, the slight increase in the number slaughtered in the four Western centers, and in all wholesale establishments, and the low average weight of cattle received in Chicago, it is a logical conclusion that the supply is comparatively less than a few years ago, that the cattle are (during present high prices) being put on the market from the grass, or poorly fed, and that the shortage is most severe in the better grades of cattle, the prime corn-fed steers.

CROP CONDITIONS.

The drought of 1901 was very severe in the States which usually produce the bulk of the corn for feeding. The corn crop, with an acreage almost 10 per cent. greater than ever before

cultivated, was but 72 per cent. as large as the crop of the previous year, and 73 per cent. as large as the crop of 1899. In the twenty-two years preceding but four smaller crops were harvested,—i.e., in 1881, 1887, 1890, and 1894.

Corn advanced until, on January 2, 1902, it was selling in Chicago at 63 11-16 cents, against 36 1-16 cents on the same date in 1901, and 23 3-16 cents on the same date in 1897. By July 1, 1902, corn reached 73 cents, between that time and September 1, owing to the prospects of an abundant crop, the price declined 16 cents per bushel, but since September 1 it has fluctuated but little. The price on October 1 was higher than on that date during the preceding twelve years, and on both November 1 and December 1 higher than on the same dates in the preceding twelve years with the exception of 1901.

To fatten a grass-fed steer and produce prime beef requires about 70 bushels of corn, costing at the January, 1902, price, \$44.58. The same amount on January 2, 1901, would have cost \$25.24, and on January 2, 1897, \$16.23, thus the cost of corn to prepare the steer for market was \$19.34 more than on the same date in the previous year, and \$28.35, or 175 per cent., more than on the same date in 1897.

The mean price of good to extra steers in Chicago on January 2, 1902, was \$6.12½ per hundred pounds, the highest price on that date for many years, but even at that high price the value of the corn necessary to prepare a steer for prime beef was but \$28.92 less than the amount which could be realized for a 1,200-pound steer at the price named. This amount, \$28.92, was hardly equal to the value of the steer when ready for feeding, to say nothing of the expense of transportation, profit on money invested, etc. This difference in the value of a sufficient amount of corn to fatten the steer and the value of the 1,200-pound steer when fattened was \$43.16 on January 2, 1901, and \$39.57 on the same date in 1897, on which date cattle were selling for \$4.65 per hundred pounds.

With the small difference of less than \$29.00 in the value of the feed and the corn-fed steer, the farmer could much better afford to sell the steer before feeding than to feed, consequently prime cattle advanced steadily until the latter part of August, when the best steers sold for \$9.00 per hundred pounds.

THE MARKET SITUATION.

The reports of the Twelfth Census show that during the year ending May 31, 1900, the wholesale slaughtering and meat-packing establishments in the United States slaughtered 5,530,-

911 beeves, and that these beeves yielded in dressed beef 54.5 of their gross weight, 90.5 per cent. of the dressed beef being sold as fresh beef. The packer, of course, derives profit from the utilization of all parts of the steer; but if we should assume that the dressed beef was the only product when cattle were selling at \$7.65 (mean price of good to extra steers on September 1, 1902), the dressed beef must sell for \$14.04 per hundred pounds, or 83.5 per cent. above the price of cattle. This makes no allowance for cost of slaughtering, interest on money invested by the packer, etc.

The price of beef in Boston on the date given was, however, but \$10.50 per hundred pounds, and, with a freight rate between Chicago and Boston of 40 cents per hundred pounds, this left the Chicago price for that meat but \$10.10. This shows that the large slaughtering establishments, in developing the industry, have been able gradually to narrow the margin between the price of cattle on the hoof and of dressed beef, and that they receive a large share of their returns from the by-products.

The margin between the price on the hoof of cattle of a certain grade and of dressed beef of equal grade, when compared for a number of years, shows that during the year 1902 it was, as a rule, narrower than ever before. The comparisons most readily made are between the Chicago price of cattle and the Boston wholesale price of Western dressed beef sides, the freight rates having been 40 to 45 cents per hundred pounds for thirteen years, excepting five months in 1890, when they were from 30 to 39 cents. On September 1, 1902, the mean price of good to extra Western dressed beef sides in Boston was 37.3 per cent. above the mean price of good to extra steers in Chicago. This difference on the same date in previous years was, in 1901, 38.5 per cent.; in 1900, 48.9 per cent.; in 1899, 58.5 per cent.; in 1898, 60.3 per cent.; in 1897, 68.3 per cent.; in 1896, 73.1 per cent.; in 1895, 64.3 per cent.; in 1894, 41.8 per cent.; in 1893, 69.3 per cent.; in 1892, 55 per cent.; in 1891, 38.4 per cent.; in 1890, 63 per cent. The average on September 1 for the twelve years 1890 to 1901 was 56.6, against 37.3 per cent. on the same date in 1902.

The marketing of grass-fed cattle and cattle partly corn-fed from the new crop has lowered the price, until, on December 1, 1902, it was about \$1.40 per hundred pounds below the highest price of that year, but still \$1.00 per hundred pounds above the average price on December for the years 1890 to 1901. Dressed beef sides at wholesale declined by December 1, until

they were \$2.00 per hundred pounds below the highest price of 1902, but were still 60 cents above the average on that date for the twelve preceding years.

From a study of present conditions it seems that the shortage of cattle and beef is much more acute in the best grades than in the lower grades, that *strictly prime* beef still maintains an extremely high price, and that it will continue to do so at least until cattle can be corn-fed from the 1902 crop, and probably much longer. The commercial estimates of the 1902 corn crop are two and one-half billion bushels more than in 1901. This immense crop will, of course, tend to reduce the price of meat, but its effect will not be as great as may be supposed, for following as it does an unusually short crop, there is only a very small supply of old corn in the country, and the cattle must be fed wholly from the new crop. The price of corn still remains high. On December 1 it was 52½ cents per bushel, or 14½ cents per bushel above the average on that date for the years 1890 to 1901, and was higher than on that date in any of those years except 1901, the price on December 1, 1896, being but 23½ cents per bushel.

In previous years when a good crop of corn followed a poor one, the price of corn declined much more rapidly than during 1902, and the price of cattle declined slightly during November, December, and January, and still more during February.

In discussing the future price of cattle and dressed beef, however, not only the feed supply for preparing the cattle for market must be considered, but also the probable demand for beef and the supply of cattle. The generally prosperous conditions in the industrial world creates an unusual individual demand for good grades of meat, and the foreign demand, especially for fresh beef, is constantly increasing.

A study of the supply shows that two years ago the number of cattle, and particularly steers one year and older, was comparatively less than ten years before. Since that time everything has operated to further reduce the number of cattle of marketable age. As has been before stated, the four Western centers received during the months of January to November, 1902, over 800,000 more cattle than the average receipts for the same months in the years 1892 to 1901. In the first eleven months of 1901 the receipts were more than 650,000 above the average for the first eleven months in the years 1892 to 1900.

The low average weight indicates that many cattle are being marketed when in poor condition for beef, thus making not only a lower

quality of dressed beef, but yielding a smaller percentage of their gross weight than if they were fully fattened. The average weight of all cattle received in Chicago during April, 1902, was but 940 pounds, which was the lowest monthly average since June, 1891, being 101 pounds less than in April, 1901, 210 pounds less than in April, 1896, and 157 pounds less than the average April weight for the years 1890 to 1901. The average weight of all cattle received at Chicago during November, 1902, was 985 pounds, which was 61 pounds below the November average for the years 1890 to 1901.

The extraordinarily heavy marketing of the last few months, while due to some extent to cattle changing hands—from stock raiser to feeder—was due to a much greater extent to the marketing of cattle which had been hurriedly and only partly corn-fed, the feeder preferring to take advantage of the prevailing high prices for fear that by holding them and feeding until “prime” the price might fall and his profit be less than if sold earlier. On December 1, the opening day of the International Live Stock Exposition, 36,553 cattle were received at Chicago, or over 1,000 more than were ever received there on any other single day; but yet strictly “prime” cattle were scarce, the majority of those marketed being but half fattened.

This unusual marketing of cattle which should be held and fully fattened has so reduced the supply above one year of age that it seems probable that, with continued industrial prosperity, strictly prime beef must remain high for at least two or three years. And that if the marketing of cattle as soon as they are partially fattened continues a few months longer, the question of the price of beef will become a much more serious matter during 1903 than it was in 1902.

But it should be borne in mind that while prices remain high the farmer is turning a great deal more attention to stock raising, that he will continue to do so just as long as there is more profit in cattle than in other branches of farming, and that with the almost unlimited agricultural resources of the West and central West the farmer can furnish enough meat to supply the demand of the East and of all foreign countries which use our meat.

Artificial conditions, such as a combination to control prices or supplies, or the advancing of lower grades of meat in sympathy with the scarcer high grades, may have influenced beef prices to some extent, but the present article deals only with natural causes which are entirely beyond control.

THE TREASURY AND THE MONEY MARKET.

BY CHARLES A. CONANT.

THE fact that the autumn season usually witnesses a considerable pressure for money in the commercial centers was noted a quarter of a century ago by the eminent English economist Jevons, in an article on "The Frequent Autumnal Pressure in the Money Market." In the United States this autumnal pressure has recently been growing more acute with each succeeding year. There are under existing law substantially only two means of increasing the currency of the United States. These are by the addition of gold, either by its production or importation, and by the issue of bank notes. If these two methods were capable of indefinite elasticity, they would be all that any country would require, but the possibility of expanding the bank-note currency has practically come to an end, thereby depriving the country of any means of increasing its use of paper credit in those forms which pass freely from hand to hand without endorsement. This has been so nearly the case for several years that bankers and brokers have ceased to look to the normal movement of the currency to supply the needs of the market, or to rely on their own foresight and skill to maintain equilibrium. The intervention of the Secretary of the Treasury as a means of rescuing the market from disaster has come to be counted upon so much as a matter of course that surprise as well as censure would greet his failure to intervene.

The means of increasing the bank currency have practically come to an end, because the issue of bank notes is based upon the ownership of United States bonds by the banks. The amount of these bonds available as a basis of circulation has been declining, while the business of the country has been growing. Thus, the demand for paper currency and the supply of it have been tugging in opposite directions, the demand growing with the growth of business, while the supply has been contracting with the compressing effect of an iron band around a growing tree. The supply of bonds available for bank-note circulation has been declining from several causes. First, has been the direct purchase of bonds by the Treasury, toward which Secretary Shaw has done his share, with the laudable purpose of releasing the surplus money accumulating in the Treasury by paying it out for the bonds; second, there is the de-

mand for United States bonds for trust funds and to comply with the investment laws of many of the States; and, third, is the influence of this diminishing stock of bonds in raising their prices in the market, and making it less profitable for the banks to buy even from this reduced stock for the purpose of issuing notes.

The usual "autumnal pressure" in 1902 came at a time when a great demand for currency was indicated for moving the crops, and when much of the money of the country banks was loaned out in Wall Street, and had impaired the ability of the conservative city banks to control the market by reducing loans. When the country banks began to need their money, and to withdraw it from New York, interest rates shot up for a time to 25 per cent., and the prices of stocks fell sharply, because weak speculators found themselves unable to maintain their margins. If Secretary Shaw had not come to the aid of the market with all the resources at his command, stringency might easily have developed panic, and sound enterprises have been dragged down along with the unsound for lack of the means for transferring capital. There was grave fear for a time that even the abundant crops might prove a source of danger instead of a blessing, by reason of the strain they would put upon the supply of money,—the tool of exchange,—just as they might hamper other industries by absorbing the means of transportation and creating a deficiency of freight cars.

Currency is only a tool for carrying on trade, but it is a most important tool. Without it there might be disaster in the midst of plenty, just as in China and India, in the olden time, the people of one province starved while in others the crops rotted on the ground for lack of roads and wagons to transfer them. It becomes interesting to inquire, therefore, what were the steps taken by Secretary Shaw to avert this paralysis, how far they differed from the measures of his predecessors, and how far similar steps can be relied upon for averting disaster in the future.

All the steps taken by Secretary Shaw were directed to increasing the supply of available currency or credit. It is not in the power of any official or individual to create capital except by honest work, but he may take steps which will make the transfer of capital more easy, or which will put the capital of the public at the

command of those who are engaged in commerce. The steps which Secretary Shaw has taken within the past three months are interesting, because several of them were new, and all of them might have been obviated if the currency laws had been more flexible.

THE SUSPENSION OF RESERVE REQUIREMENTS.

One of the items of the Secretary's action, which affected nominally the largest amount of money, was his announcement that the national banks would not be required to hold against deposits of public funds the same legal reserves of lawful money required against other deposits. These reserves are 25 per cent. in the reserve cities, where the larger part of the Government deposits are kept; and since the whole volume of such deposits stands at about \$140,000,000, the amount released would approximate \$35,000,000. As a matter of fact, however, the New York Clearing House banks decided not to avail themselves of the permission to diminish their reserves against public deposits. They have not failed in the aggregate to keep up the full required reserve of 25 per cent. The only recognition they have given to the Secretary's decision has been to state their surplus reserve above the legal requirements in two forms,—what it would be under the old requirement, and what it would be if government funds in the New York banks were excluded from the deposits against which reserves are held. The announcement of Secretary Shaw on this subject came at a critical time, and did something to relieve anxiety for the moment.

INCREASING DEPOSITS OF PUBLIC MONEY.

A more important step for placing currency at the disposal of the money market was the increase of the deposits of public funds in the national banks. These deposits have been rising from year to year since a large surplus of receipts began to accumulate in the public treasury. The amount on June 30, 1898, was \$38,743,617; June 30, 1899, \$76,283,655; June 30, 1900, \$101,879,520; June 30, 1901, \$100,010,493; and on June 30, 1902, \$123,983,067. The amount was increased on December 10, 1902, to \$148,765,190. The benefit of these increases in the deposits was offset to some extent, however, by the steady excess of Treasury receipts over ordinary expenditures. This excess from June 30, 1902, to December 10, 1902, was \$15,886,153. The increase in deposits of public funds in the banks during this period was therefore offset more than half by the steady stream of money pouring into the Treasury in excess of government needs, and the net increase of the money

at the command of the market was only about \$9,000,000.

THE PURCHASE OF BONDS.

A device adopted by Secretary Shaw, which had been often employed in previous autumns, was the purchase of unmatured bonds in the open market. The action of Secretary Shaw in this respect was far within the limit of many previous transactions, because previous purchases had so reduced the floating stock of bonds that it is now difficult to purchase them except at prices which would arouse criticism. Secretary Gage purchased bonds in the autumn of 1899 to the face value of \$19,300,650, at a cost of \$21,771,867, and in the autumn of 1901 to the face value of \$33,114,420, at a cost of \$41,982,986. The offer made by Secretary Shaw on September 26 to purchase the old five per cent. bonds, of which only \$19,410,350 were outstanding on July 1, brought in only \$25,300. Negotiations with large holders of bonds in New York finally brought to the Treasury late in October \$16,504,300 of the long-term four per cent. bonds maturing in 1925. It was necessary, in order to obtain these bonds, to pay premiums to their holders to the amount of \$6,342,229, principal and interest, thus releasing for the market the sum of \$22,846,529.

THE ANTICIPATION OF INTEREST.

Another measure, inaugurated by Secretary Gage and Assistant Secretary Vanderlip in 1899, was resorted to with some degree of success last autumn. A circular was issued September 25, 1902, offering to prepay the interest on all classes of government bonds up to June 30, 1903, provided that the bondholder submitted to a rebate of two-tenths of one per cent. per month on the amount of interest prepaid. The amount of interest which might have been claimed under this offer was \$20,656,252, but the amount actually demanded up to December 1, 1902, was \$3,481,322, on which the rebate in favor of the Government was \$40,097. Other payments in anticipation of interest were made, according to a long-established practice of the Treasury in periods of pressure, and they proved beneficial in releasing money when it was most needed. In the long run, however, such payments merely anticipate by a few days or weeks payments then required under operation of law.

THE SUBSTITUTION OF LOCAL BONDS.

The most radical departure made by Secretary Shaw from established precedent was the acceptance of State and municipal bonds as security for deposits of public money in the banks in

place of the United States bonds which had always been required. The purpose of this substitution was to permit the banks to employ the United States bonds thus set free as the basis for the increase of their note circulation. Indeed, the local bonds were accepted by the Treasury only on the condition that the United States bonds released should be put to immediate use in swelling the bank circulation. This step was significant because it constituted an admission that the market was unequal to the needs of the circulation, and that some special means must be found for making more bonds available. By this, and by direct appeals to the banks to take out circulation, the total amount of local bonds deposited in the Treasury to December 10 was \$20,526,500, of which the bonds of the State of New York were \$7,204,000, and those of the State of Massachusetts \$5,770,000.

How active was the effort and solicitation of the Treasury Department to induce the banks, in spite of their indifference, to increase their circulation based on United States bonds was frankly avowed by Secretary Shaw in the following passage of his annual report :

The department exerted every influence within its authority to counteract this natural contraction. During the early spring the surplus revenues were deposited with national banks upon satisfactory security, but preference was given to such institutions as maintained their limit of circulation. Then, during the months when rates of interest were low no deposits were made. Later in the season, when it became apparent that some measure of financial stringency was certain to arise, the department suggested to certain depository banks the wisdom of making preparation for the issuance of additional circulation. This suggestion was submitted to eighteen of the larger institutions located in central reserve cities, to which fifteen responded with orders for printing \$12,000,000 circulation, and in the actual issuance of something over \$7,000,000. Later, additional deposits were made, but they were made mostly with such banks as agreed to increase their circulation by an amount equal to and frequently double the deposit. In this way \$4,000,000 more circulation was secured. Still later an offer was made to accept, as security for deposits already made, the substitution of State and certain municipal bonds at 75 per cent. of their face value in lieu of government bonds then on deposit, on condition that the Government bonds thereby released should be made the basis of immediate circulation. In this way, about \$15,000,000 circulation was induced. Thus, by means of these several methods, the department secured in round figures \$26,000,000 increase of circulation from the national banks holding government deposits.

THE NECESSITY FOR ACTION OF CONGRESS.

Summing up these measures to save the market from stringency, it appears that, ignoring the ruling in favor of holding government deposits without a cash reserve, the following

sums may be credited to the operations of the Treasury :

Increase of public deposits	\$25,000,000
Purchase of bonds.....	22,900,000
Anticipation of interest.....	3,500,000
Increase of bank circulation	26,000,000
Total	\$77,400,000

It is obvious that the extraordinary measures of the Secretary of the Treasury were all that saved the money market from serious trouble during the autumn. The American currency system, in spite of its solidity, has two serious defects. These defects are the sub-Treasury system, by which money is withdrawn from the market and accumulates in the Treasury in periods of industrial activity, when it is most needed in use, and the fact that the bank-note currency is based upon government bonds, and therefore has no relation to the needs of business. There has been a gradual expansion of the gross circulation of money in the United States until the amount *per capita* has reached \$29.52,—an amount second to that of few countries except France. This fact is made an argument in some quarters against any system which would permit further expansion. It is not so much expansion which is needed, however, as a currency which is responsive to the changing requirements of business conditions. A currency which is not thus responsive may expand until it is absorbed in the channels of trade, and render a further increase necessary when there is a new demand.

The present currency is subject very slightly to the influence of diminished demand. Once in circulation, it is apt to remain out until the scale of prices and market conditions have been adjusted to the enlarged amount. What is needed, in the declared opinion of Secretary Shaw and President Roosevelt, is a currency which responds to the changing needs of the season. In discussing this subject the President uses almost the language of the Republican national platform of 1900, which pledged his party to a reform which has been seriously considered in Congress but not yet achieved. The President says :

Interest rates are a potent factor in business activity, and in order that these rates may be equalized to meet the varying needs of the seasons and of widely separated communities, and to prevent the recurrence of financial stringencies which injuriously affect legitimate business, it is necessary that there should be an element of elasticity in our monetary system. Banks are the natural servants of commerce, and upon them should be placed, as far as practicable, the burden of furnishing and maintaining a circulation adequate to supply the needs of our diversified industries and of our domestic and foreign commerce, and the issue of this should be so regulated that a sufficient supply should be always available for the business interests of the country.

THE BRITISH EDUCATION BILL.

BY W. T. STEAD.

THE House of Commons has been busily engaged for the last two months and more in discussing the Education Bill in a fashion which exposed it not unjustly to Mr. Balfour's sneer, that in the debate he had heard a great deal about local government and about religion, but very little about education. The reason for this is to be found in the nature of the bill. For the information of American readers, who may not unnaturally be somewhat confused by the din of party strife, I will attempt to set forth as simply as possible the salient facts which underlie this fierce contention of parties and of churches.

First, let me state what is common ground, and is taken for granted by the disputants on both sides.

1. The education of the English is not up to the mark. It is deficient in quantity. It is capable of great improvement in quality, and unless some improvement is effected, the English will be hopelessly distanced by their foreign competitors, notably by the Germans and the Americans.

2. For this admitted evil both parties and both sections of the Christian Church—the Free churches and the Establishment—must share the blame. Nearly sixty years ago the first attempt to found a national system of education in England was thwarted by the Nonconformists, who opposed the intervention of the state in the work of education, because they believed it was impossible to separate education from religion, and with them it was an article of faith that with religion in any form the state must not meddle. Thirty years later the Nonconformists recanted; but the Church of England, which had founded a great number of so-called voluntary or denominational schools, opposed vehemently the universal establishment of a uniform national system of elementary education. The result was the compromise of 1870, when Mr. Forster, by his Education Act, laid the foundations of a national system, but allowed the denominational schools not only to continue, but to be regarded as an integral part of the educational scheme, and to receive an annual subsidy from the national exchequer.

3. By the Education Act of 1870, it was permitted to the cities, towns, and parishes of England to elect local educational authorities, which

were known as school boards, whose primary duty was to see to it that adequate school accommodation was provided for all children of school age, to enforce the attendance of such children, and in all schools which they built, or which were handed over to them, to appoint teachers and direct the education of the scholars. But in taking into account the accommodation provided, the school boards were compelled to reckon in all the voluntary or denominational schools, over whom it was forbidden to exercise any control. The cost of education was borne first by a grant from the national exchequer, distributed according to the efficiency of the scholars, tested by inspectors appointed by the National Education Office; by the school fees paid by the children; and in the case of denominational schools, by voluntary subscriptions; and in the case of the board schools, by a rate levied upon all householders in the district. School boards were elected by the cumulative vote, every householder in the district having as many votes as there were seats on the board, with absolute liberty to distribute them as he pleased. He could give one each to as many candidates as there were votes, or he might cumulate them all on a single candidate. Women were eligible to seats on the School Board. After the act had been for some years in operation, school fees were abolished, and the grant from the national exchequer was increased. The two sets of schools, the denominational and the schools maintained by the boards, continued to exist side by side, the former meeting the deficit by voluntary subscriptions, the latter out of the rates.

4. According to the last returns issued by the Education Department, there were in the year ending August 31, 1901, 6,610,416 scholars in the public elementary schools of England and Wales. Of these, 2,881,155 were in 5,797 board schools, and 3,729,261 in 14,319 denominational schools. The total cost per scholar in board schools is about \$15, of which about \$5.40 was a grant from the national exchequer in voluntary schools; in voluntary schools the cost is \$11.66 per head, and the annual grant per head \$5.30.

The board schools in towns have admittedly done their work well. But the school boards in the country districts, where education is un-

popular, where the better-to-do believe it unfits the laboring classes for manual toil, and the poorer classes prefer their boys to earn a few pence rather than that they should go to school, have in many cases worked badly. The board schools in towns having the rates to draw upon, are, on the whole, more efficient than the Church schools, which depend on voluntary subscriptions. In the board schools no religious test is imposed upon the teachers; in the Church schools no Nonconformist need apply for appointment. Both sets of schools are managed by committees of managers, who, in the case of board schools, are appointed by the board; and in the case of Church schools, by the clergyman of the Church; or in the case of Catholic schools, by the priest.

5. Any community which did not choose to elect a school board of its own free will could not be compelled to do so unless the school accommodation was inadequate for the school population. In that case, after due warning, the Education Department stepped in and compelled the election of a school board, which was then bound to supply the deficiency out of the rates. Rates being very unpopular, especially in the more ignorant districts, desperate efforts were made to raise the money by private subscriptions for the supply of the accommodation required by the Act of 1870. By this means it is estimated £29,000,000 (\$145,000,000) was raised since 1870 "to keep out school boards," and prevent the levying of an education rate.

6. The religious difficulty was met by a compromise. In the schools built and maintained at the cost of the ratepayers, the so-called Cowper-Temper clause enacted that no catechism or doctrinal system distinctive of any religious denomination was permitted to be taught. Subject to this restriction the school boards were allowed to decide what religious teaching should be given, or whether the education should be purely secular. As a matter of fact school boards have almost unanimously decided in favor of a Bible lesson being read and explained as part of the regular curriculum. The religious education thus imparted represents the common denominator of Protestant Christianity. It is known as undenominational. It is accepted by Evangelical churchmen and the Free churches, but it is denounced by the Roman and by the Anglican Catholics, inasmuch as it does not assert the authority of the Church, the necessity of the sacraments, and the prerogative of the priest. In the voluntary schools there was full and unrestricted liberty of teaching any dogma desired by the subscribers. The right of parents to withdraw their children from any religious

teaching of which they conscientiously disapproved was secured by what is known as the Conscience Clause of the Act of 1870.

7. Although the clergy and the priests had their own schools, in which they were free to do as they pleased, they had equal rights with all other citizen ratepayers to control the board schools. On many school boards, both in town and country, the Church party is in a majority. Even in Birmingham a Church clergyman is chairman of the board. In the eastern counties there are on an average seven Anglican to five Nonconformists on the School Board.

8. The attempt made in the early seventies by the Clerical party to pay the fees of impecunious scholars in denominational schools out of the rates raised a furious opposition on the part of the Nonconformists, in which Mr. Chamberlain took a conspicuous part. When the payment was transferred to the national exchequer the opposition died away. Since then the grant made to the denominational schools from the national treasury has been increased without any serious protest. The Churchman sneers at the Nonconformist conscience which makes such subtle discrimination between rates and taxes. The Nonconformist replies that he cannot earmark the tax-money devoted to teaching a religion which he dislikes, whereas a rate in aid of the local Church schools comes home to him, as no one can mistake the purpose to which it is to be devoted. Whatever justice, then, may be in this contention, there is, as a matter of historic fact, no dispute that payments to denominational institutions are acquiesced in when the money comes out of the national taxes, and vehemently resisted when it is drawn from local rates.

9. No statistical information is available to show the relative proportion of Nonconformists and Churchmen in the English population. It varies in districts. In Wales the overwhelming majority is Nonconformist. In England the Church has a large numerical majority of adherents, and a smaller real majority of active supporters. The Church is immensely more wealthy than Nonconformity, and it enjoys a monopoly of state endowments. It is free to employ the voluntary subscriptions in maintaining schools which the Nonconformists require for the maintenance of their religious worship. In the House of Commons the Churchmen outnumber the Nonconformists by about ten to one. In the House of Lords it is doubtful whether there is a single Nonconformist peer. In both houses the Roman Catholics, although a much smaller minority in the country, greatly outnumber the representatives of the Free churches.

But inasmuch as there would be no Liberal members in the House of Commons if the Nonconformists staid away from the polls, the Liberal party has been, as a whole, the exponent of the views of the Free churches, as the Tory party has been always and invariably the party of the Established Church.

10. While the elementary education of the country has been left in the hands of the clergy and the school boards, supervised by the Education Department, the secondary schools have been under a variety of authorities. The Endowed School Commission and the Charity Commission have had them in hand, but they are not in any way coördinated with the elementary schools, nor have the local or central managing boards had any relations with the school boards. Technical education, so far as it exists, is in the hands of the county councils. The great public schools, like the universities, are under public control. Nor are they pieced into any great homogeneous universal national educational system. The need for improving secondary education, and introducing some order into the educational chaos, was universally admitted, and it was to meet this need that the Education Bill was ostensibly framed.

These ten points should be kept in mind by all who desire to appreciate the controversy which has been raging in England this year. They are invariably taken for granted by English controversialists, with the result that foreign observers are often hopelessly at a loss to understand what is the bearing of the particular question under discussion.

If ministers had contented themselves with bringing in a bill dealing with secondary, technical, and university education, both parties would have united to pass it into law. Unfortunately the government was unable to resist the temptation of using the majority which it snatched upon the issue of the Boer War in order to alter the fundamental bases of the elementary education settlement of 1870 in the interests of the Established Church. The serpent which tempted the ministry was the Anglican Episcopate, which, finding that the strain of keeping up the voluntary subscriptions needed for the Church schools was becoming unbearable, and foreseeing that sooner or later the board schools, which had the purse of the ratepayer to draw upon, must triumph over the Church schools, formulated a demand that ministers should avail themselves of this large majority in order to throw what was practically the whole burden of maintaining the Church schools upon the rates and taxes. Five years ago the Archbishop of Canterbury had warned his clerical

friends that it was impossible to expect that any government would hand over public money to the Church schools without insisting upon public control. But the huge majority returned in the hot fever of Jingo delirium led him to reconsider this impossibility. After the bishops in convocation had formulated their demand, 10,000 petitions, one from every parsonage in the land, were skillfully poured in upon a hesitating ministry. Overborne by the flood of petitions, they succumbed to clerical pressure, and the Education Bill was the result.

The nominal purpose of the measure was to constitute one educational authority, and to give it supreme power to constitute cosmos out of chaos. But its real effect was to make confusion worse confounded. Its central principle was to transfer the control of education from the school boards to the county councils. Outside London all school boards were abolished. In their place local education authorities were to be nominated by the county councils, who were supposed to be invested with control over all schools, elementary,—both denominational and undenominational,—secondary, and technical, within their area. But in the case of all so-called voluntary or Church schools, the real control of the schools, with absolute power to appoint all teachers, was left in the hands of a body of managers; the permanent majority, of 8 to 2, was to be appointed by the denomination,—that is to say, in almost every case by the clergyman or by the priest. The whole control of religious instruction in these schools was vested in the managers by an amendment, accepted by the House of Commons by a majority of 170, which provoked a violent and widespread revolt on the part of the bishops and the clergy, who protested vehemently against allowing laymen, even of their own appointment, to have any share whatever in the religious teaching of the schools. This, however, was an afterthought. The bill as originally drafted left the clergy in sole control of religious teaching, and the nominees of the clergy in practically sole control of the secular education. Even as amended, the clerically appointed managers were left with the sole right of appointing the teachers, and as the body which appoints the teachers controls the teaching, the bill, in what Mr. Balfour described as "its root principles," destroyed the other root principle, the constitution of one authority.

The denominationalists, in return for nominally placing their schools in the hands of the local educational authority, were allowed to quarter them for evermore on the rates, while at the same time the ratepayers were deprived of any effective control over the schools, which

were maintained solely at the public expense. There is a provision in the bill to the effect that the denominationalists shall provide for the repairs and maintenance of the school buildings ; but by an ingenious device they are allowed to charge the local authority rent for the hire of the schoolmaster's residence, which, contrary to all precedent, they retain in their hands. The Church, therefore, was enabled to maintain its own schools without any further contributions from voluntary subscribers. Its control, owing to the right to appoint teachers, remains virtually intact. The cost of repairs will be met out of the rent of the school. The whole cost of education, the salary of the teachers, etc., will be thrown entirely upon the rates and taxes.

The ratepayer has a voice and a vote in the election of the County Council. But there his authority ends. The County Council which he helps to elect,—and upon which, by the bye, no woman is allowed to sit,—nominates a local educational authority, with nominal authority, subject in all things to the control of the council, which finds itself confronted with a body of managers, three-fourths of whom are appointed by the clergymen, who have the sole right to appoint all teachers in their school. If the local educational authority differs from the denominational Committee of Management, the question must be referred to the Education Department, which has just been reconstituted so as to give the denominationalists complete control. It is no wonder, therefore, that the Nonconformists and the Liberals are roused to fury by this audacious proposal to quarter the clerical schools upon the rates, that Lord Rosebery declares it must be resisted to the death, and that hundreds of thousands of Nonconformists throughout the country are banding themselves together to offer passive resistance to the payment of the education rate. Mr. Bryce, to whom has been deputed the honorable task of leading the parliamentary opposition to the bill, has succinctly summed up the case against it when he said :

The bill proposed to hand over half the schools of the country in perpetuity to one denomination alone, to exclude from the post of teacher in one-half of the schools of the country all persons who would not declare themselves members of the Church of England ;

to perpetuate the distinction of two classes of schools differently managed, but standing side by side ; and to destroy the bodies which in the towns had worked successfully for education, and, indeed, had done nearly all that had been done for it during the last twenty-five years. (Cheers.) Those were the four things which the bill proposed to do. The first was against constitutional principles ; the second against justice ; the third against economy ; the fourth against common sense. And all were against education. (Laughter and cheers.)

The avowed object of the Anglican clergy is to control the whole education of the children whom the compulsory attendance law forces into their schools. They make no secret of the fact that what they are fighting for is not merely to have the right to give religious instruction in the time set apart for it at the opening of the school, but to saturate the whole of the secular teaching with what they call the "Anglican atmosphere." This Anglican atmosphere they know they can secure by keeping the appointment of the teachers in their own hands, and by retaining the right to dismiss them on religious grounds without appeal. By this law religious tests are virtually reenacted in England. After it is passed, one-half of the teachers paid with public money will be compelled, as the condition of earning their daily bread, to subscribe to the doctrine and ritual of the Anglican Church. No one objects to any religious body creating its own atmosphere in any school which it maintains at its own cost. But the whole spirit of modern Liberalism revolts against the formula : "the Catholic child taught by the Catholic teacher in the Catholic school at the expense of the non-Catholic ratepayer."

Underneath all the parliamentary discussion there is a very deep and serious feeling in the hearts of the laity, even of the Church itself, that the time has come when what is regarded as the Romanizing tendency of the Anglican clergy should be checked. There is a much stronger anti-Catholic sentiment in England than appears on the surface. The proposed sacrifice of the next generation of English children to the priestcraft of Anglican clericalism is resented, and bitterly resented, even among Churchmen. What will be the result of forcing the bill through at all costs no one at present can foresee.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THOMAS B. REED ON THE TARIFF.

THE last deliverance of the late Thomas B. Reed on the subject of the tariff appears in the December number of the *North American Review*, published only a few days before the ex-Speaker's death. In this article much space is devoted to a discussion of the trust problem in its bearings on the question of tariff revision, Mr. Reed taking the ground that the present movement in the direction of consolidation of corporations is a perfectly natural one, wholly independent of the action of the tariff. In concluding this part of his argument, Mr. Reed remarks:

"The proposed treatment of corporations, even if something ought to be done, is a fine example of how easily men mistake their wishes for their reasons. It is proposed to repeal such portions of the tariff act as have made these corporations prosperous. Of course, this is not intended to attack the tariff. All we are trying to do is to sap the prosperity of institutions which have grown so large as to frighten us. Why do they frighten us? Because they are great and strong and wealthy. Of course, then, their greatness and strength and wealth are fundamental facts beyond dispute. No tariff law, of course, can be made which does not apply to all. Hence, if the tariff is so reformed that the big, strong, and wealthy corporations go to destruction, how are the small ones to be saved? Really, to the calm and judicious mind this seems like free trade for its own sweet sake."

REVISION BY COMMISSION.

With the tariff perfectionists Mr. Reed has scant patience. They are beguiled, he says, by generalities.

"Is the Dingley tariff bill the end of wisdom? If not, then it can be improved. A tariff bill could be framed, we think, which would be free from all the errors of that celebrated bill and retain its virtues. Where would you enact such a bill? Why, in your own mind, of course! Unfortunately, a bill enacted in the mind has no extraterritorial force. A bill enacted by Congress, like the progress of the world, is the result of a fierce conflict of opposing human interests, and must be so. When men talk carelessly of tariff revision, they talk of a tariff never yet established, and one that never can be. They dream of a tariff which exactly suits them individually, while a real tariff bill is one

which measurably satisfies the country as a whole.

"But can we not have, sitting in perpetual session, a body of men non-partisan, judicious, wise, and incorruptible? Yes, in your mind. You can have anything in your mind. Imagination is unlimited, and it is very delightful to wander round among possible impossibilities. Just think of a non-partisan free trader sitting on a tariff tax! Of course, he would be above any prejudice except his own. I saw one tariff commission sit in 1882, and its report was not enacted into law. All its mistakes were, and the result was satisfactory to nobody."

RECIPROCITY.

Every attack on the tariff, declares Mr. Reed, is a flank attack, and the most plausible of all these hostile movements is based on the demand for reciprocal trade relations with other countries; but reciprocity treaties, says Mr. Reed, are invariably one-sided. When we tried reciprocity with Canada our export trade increased 13 per cent., and Canada's, in eleven years, 500 per cent. That treaty no longer exists. We had such a treaty with the Sandwich Islands, giving them on the average each year \$5,000,000 in remitted sugar duties, and selling them \$4,000,000 worth of goods. In this, as in nearly every other case of reciprocity, the national revenue was sacrificed for the benefit of individuals.

For these reasons Mr. Reed was opposed to Cuban reciprocity. He believed that our own American beet-sugar producers should be favored by our tariff laws, rather than the cane-growers of Cuba.

"For the Republicans to desert the beet-sugar interest is to desert the farmer in the one conspicuous and clear case where his industry is fostered. Under the tariff as it now is all the sugar needed for this country can be made by the people of this country. That is in accord with our system. It is a part of our system, and should not be abandoned until the rest of it is abandoned. When we throw our markets open to the world in all things, then it will be time to do it for sugar."

THE CONDITIONS THAT CONFRONT US.

The practical conclusions reached by Mr. Reed in his article are stated in these characteristic words:

"We have a tariff carefully drawn, which has served us well. That tariff is only five years old. It has brought us away up on the hillside of success. It has no connection with great corporations, except what it has with small corporations and individuals. No attack by repealing the Dingley act can hurt one without hurting all. Any disturbance of that kind would disturb trade in ways with which we are all too familiar.

"A tariff bill at any time is not and cannot be the creature of one mind. It means the result of a contest by all interests and all minds. Hence, whenever any man thinks of a tariff he would make, he always thinks of a tariff bill which will never be enacted."

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LATE HERR KRUPP.

THE late Friedrich Alfred Krupp, third head of the great house of Essen, was in person a very different man from his predecessors, according to Mr. Wolf Von Schierbrand, in the *World's Work* for January. Although he conducted the great business with success, and left it several times as large and as prosperous as

when it came to him fifteen years ago, there was nothing aggressive in his nature, and he frequently spoke to his intimates of the huge fortune left him as a misfortune which had prevented him from following his native taste for art and literature. He was of a mild and amiable disposition, disliking publicity and the bustle and glamour of public life.

"At Villa Hugel, near Essen, he dispensed on many occasions more than royal hospitality, and he associated with monarchs on terms of intimacy. Yet he was never a happy man, and his career, which was determined by an inheritance whose responsibilities he could not shirk, was not the career that he would have chosen if he had been free to choose. The Emperor of Germany was his intimate friend, and to him he once said: 'This big fortune has been a curse to me. If I had not had it, my predilections would have been for art and literature.'

"He had great natural talent and a sound and well-trained taste. He was a generous but judicious patron of art. His admirable collection of paintings in Villa Hugel, which comprises none but masterpieces, and his fine aggregation of *objets de vertu* attest this. During conversation he



FRIEDRICHSHOF, ONE OF THE KRUPP COLONIES, FORMERLY TENEMENT BUILDINGS.

would often dwell regretfully on the fact that the responsibilities of his position left him no choice in life, and he cordially disliked pomp and circumstance, affectation and insincerity. He married a lady of rank, Margaret Baroness von Ende, and the match was a love match. He, like his father before him, scorned all titles and distinctions, except those that came to him in the way of business. He preferred to remain plain Herr Krupp. He entertained his friend, the Kaiser, many times and (just to name a few others) the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria, King Edward VII. when he was Prince of Wales, King Carlos of Portugal, and King Leopold of Belgium; but his manner toward them was never tinged with that obsequiousness to which monarchs are accustomed. With them, as with his workmen, he was always unaffected and unassuming.

"He was a man of fine feelings, of a lofty nature, and of thorough and wide culture. His education had been most comprehensive. He went through the usual eight years' course at the public 'gymnasium' (or lower college) in Essen, then studied in several of the best German universities, and was afterward appointed Commerzienrath (Counselor of Commerce), later on Wirklicher Geheimer Rath (or Privy Counselor of the Crown), and was made a member of the Prussian Staatsrath (Council of State). In 1893, he was elected to the Reichstag, and was likewise elected to the Prussian Diet.

HE FORETOLD AMERICAN COMPETITION.

Without being an enthusiast as a manufacturer, as his father had been, the son's wider horizon had doubtless much to do with the phenomenal growth of the firm under his leadership. During a visit paid the Essen Works a number of years ago I had the pleasure of a conversation with him, in which he spoke about the industrial development of the United States in a manner which showed him little less than a prophet. His remarks then came particularly true as regards that branch of trade with which the great ironmaster was most familiar,—viz., the production and utilization of iron and steel. And a year before, at the Chicago World's Fair, Herr Krupp had already proved by the quality, size, and arrangement of his special exhibit, what an immense importance he attached to this market and its coming competition.

A MAN OF PEACE.

"He had some peculiarities. For one thing, he hated to be spoken of as the 'Gun King.' Small wonder, for whatever the firm may have been in his father's time, it now owns a series

of great enterprises of which more than 70 per cent. of the total values produced are other things than guns and ammunition—things like railroad and ship implements that work for peaceful ends. He was a foe to war, a thorough man of peace. He led a spotless and tender family life, and was a most devoted and indulgent husband and father. He leaves no sons; but two daughters, Barbara and Bertha, survive him. The management of the firm will devolve upon his nephew, who has been very active in it for a number of years. In demeanor he was singularly gentle, almost shy, and this was probably, at least in part, due to the fact that he never enjoyed robust health. His digestion was weak, and he was debarred from most of the pleasures of the table. At the grand banquets he used to give he contented himself with Apollinaris water, and he rarely was allowed a cigar or cigarette by his physician. For several years past, too, he had been under constant medical treatment because of a nervous depression. This, with some organic troubles that came to torment him, made the last five or six years of his life a burden rather than a pleasure. His failing health was generally understood and discussed in Essen for years; but it is probable that but for the savage attack upon him by the Socialist press his life would have been prolonged. He was one of the greatest captains of industry that modern conditions have produced."

OLD-AGE INSURANCE.

M. GRANDMAISON contributes to the second November number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* an excellent article on insurance against old age and incapacity to work. In a very striking passage he pictures the panting multitude of workers, crushed by toil, eternally struggling for their daily bread. These poor people implore help, and hitherto they have been met with merely the dry statement that the problem is insoluble.

PHILANTHROPY HELPLESS.

M. Grandmaison declares that it is no use waiting for a perfect system, but that we must join with the working class to find some fairly practicable solution. Of course, in every civilized country the number of persons who are annually laid on the shelf, either by sickness or old age, added to the number of those depending on them, has passed far beyond the power of private charity to relieve. The efforts of philanthropic societies and the alms of the charitable are the merest palliatives. In each country the state has been obliged to do more or less to meet the problem.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE IN GERMANY.

It is needless to follow M. Grandmaison through his interesting sketch of what has been attempted in France, because it is much more instructive to note what has been done in Germany. In that country, where the form of government so well deserves the epithet of "paternal," the law embraces in its scope practically every person who works for wages or salary, provided that the remuneration in each case does not exceed \$500 a year. This rule incidentally brings under the law some twelve million souls. The difficulties which arise in applying the law are dealt with by the Federal Council; and it is to be noted that foreigners are excluded from the benefit of the insurance, although their employers are obliged to contribute just as much as if the said foreigners were Germans. In return for his or her contributions the worker is guaranteed (1) a pension in case of incapacity to go on working; (2) an old-age pension, to begin at seventy; (3) medical attendance; (4) in certain cases the repayment of the contributions paid in.

THE OLD-AGE PENSION.

It will be observed that what might seem to be the long postponement of the old-age pension is mitigated by the fact that in almost every case the worker begins to draw the pension for incapacity to go on working before attaining the age of seventy. No one can draw the old-age pension who has not attained the age of seventy, and has not paid his contributions for 1,200 weeks. The old-age pension is composed of two parts: (1) of an annual sum of \$12.50, being the amount of the state subvention; and (2) of the sum which is the result of the worker's insurance itself. This sum depends on the worker's wages, and for this purpose the workers are divided into five classes:

Class.	Annual wages.	Pension.
I.....	\$27.50	\$15.00
II.....	\$27.50 to \$127.50	22.50
III.....	127.50 to 212.50	30.00
IV.....	212.50 to 287.50	37.50
V.....	Above \$287.50	45.00

THE PENSION FOR INCAPACITY.

The pension for incapacity to go on working is only granted at the end of twenty-seven weeks of sickness, and then only if all hope of a quick cure seems to be gone. The worker must have paid his contribution for at least two hundred weeks if the insurance is compulsory, and for five hundred weeks if it is optional. The pen-

sion is withdrawn if the worker's incapacity arises from any crime or misdemeanor or voluntary mutilation. The pension for incapacity is divided into two parts,—one of them fixed, and the other varying according to the classes of workers. The minimum is \$36.25, and the maximum is \$163.75. Pensions are paid at post offices on orders issued by the insurance offices. These pensions are protected from seizure by creditors, and cannot be alienated.

HOW THE SYSTEM IS WORKED.

One of the most original provisions of the law is the right which it gives to the insurance offices to watch over the health of the insured, and to impose upon them medical treatment. This medical treatment is in some cases preventive, and is thought to have had a certain effect in checking the progress of tuberculosis in Germany. Broadly speaking, the German system of combining state aid with the contributions both of the worker and of his employer seems to meet a great many social and economic objections which are frequently urged against all old-age pension proposals. Of course, a great deal depends in the practical working of the scheme on the relative proportions of these three contributions, and it is notable that since the inauguration of this German system, in 1889, a good many modifications in points of detail have had to be made as the result of experience. The German system is largely worked in its details by means of cards, on which the worker or his employer places certain special stamps, which are bought at the post offices, and these cards, when they have reached a sufficient face value, are transmitted by the police to the insurance offices, to be placed to the credit of the workers whose names they bear. Curiously enough, this system, which seems very simple, is not very popular in Germany.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S FIRST YEAR.

IT is natural that at the end of President Roosevelt's first year in office there should be various attempts to summarize his achievements. The *North American Review* for December presents two such estimates written from wholly different points of view. The first, by "A Progressive Republican," who is described by the editor of the *North American* as "a thoughtful student of politics who holds a chair in one of the most prominent of American universities," makes no attempt to disguise its author's warm personal admiration of Mr. Roosevelt. Recalling the circumstances under which President Roosevelt assumed office, this writer declares that al-

though the President has been faithful to the pledge of his accession, preserving the policy of his predecessor, still he has translated that policy into terms of his own temperament. In addition to the twofold duties of the office, the execution of existing laws and the recommendation to Congress of measures deemed necessary and expedient for the future, Mr. Roosevelt has added a third duty,—that of informing public opinion in the present. While this last is not an entirely new Presidential function, it may be doubted whether any of Mr. Roosevelt's predecessors has so deliberately or extensively or directly exercised it.

A WELL-EQUIPPED EXECUTIVE.

As to the first class of duties, those of a purely executive nature, "A Progressive Republican" asserts that no one has ever come into the Presidency with a better practical knowledge of the gear of government. Mr. Roosevelt, he says, "did not know the ways and the *personnel* of the legislative department as President McKinley did; and I imagine that the judiciary had for his mind, bent on equity and somewhat irreverent of precedent, many mysteries; but he did know the executive in all its complexity and detail. He had expert knowledge of the navy; he had with remarkable acquisitiveness amassed experience in the army; he knew the civil service from top to bottom; he knew, moreover, as state executive, of the correlation of federal and State functions, and he had had a conspicuous part in working out a difficult municipal problem in New York." The greatest of Mr. Roosevelt's achievements, in this writer's opinion, is that he has used the specialized knowledge gained in his previous official career with an eye single to the good of the service.

As to President Roosevelt's appointments, it is deemed that a catalogue of them would not furnish a list of eligibles for Sunday-school superintendencies or college professorships; but, on the whole, there has been a patent fitness of the man for the office. A few seeming exceptions only serve to emphasize the generality of fitness. According to this writer, there has been a toning up of the whole civil service. "Every effort is made to keep good, efficient men in office, and to keep the other sort out."

A LEADER OF PUBLIC OPINION.

"A Progressive Republican" has special praise for the President's capacity in influencing public opinion. "His speech is homely; it is void of grace, but it is effective. He does not speak merely in felicitous phrase; he must proselyte. He is like one of those old French

pioneer priests in the Northwest, who carried his altar upon his back through the forest and across the plains, and whenever he came to a settlement put it down and celebrated mass."

"He has spoken to the people on 'the state of the Union,' and recommended to them measures 'necessary and expedient;' and through them he delivers messages to a Congress not altogether sympathetic. Yet, in doing this he has divided his party; at the same time he has temporarily strengthened it."

The recent elections can only be interpreted as a vote of confidence in the President's personal policies.

INFLUENCE ON LEGISLATION.

As to President Roosevelt's relations with Congress, this writer admits that he has enjoyed no such relationship with the legislative body as did his predecessor. But he holds that while President McKinley was most successful in getting his wishes recorded, there was nevertheless a serious encroachment of the legislative upon the executive, and the independence of the Chief Executive was menaced. "The coming into the Presidency of one who is a comparative stranger to Congress has necessitated the putting up of the line fences again, and they are not likely to be broken through or moved—at any rate toward the White House." It is to be placed to President Roosevelt's credit, however, that even the opponents of the Panama route in Congress were willing to vote for the Isthmian Canal bill in its final shape, while the success of the arid land legislation is also to be credited in good measure to the support of the President. It was his spirit that helped us to keep our pledge in quitting Cuba; and any future legislation in extension of the Sherman anti-trust law, or a modification of the tariff to make it consistent with changed conditions, will be in no small part due to the support of the President.

A JEFFERSONIAN DEMOCRAT'S IMPRESSIONS.

"A Jeffersonian Democrat," described by the editor of the *North American* as "a well-known writer who, from the point of view of erudition and wide political knowledge, is probably the ablest Jeffersonian Democrat in the country," takes a surprisingly favorable view, all things considered, of the President's administration. He declares that Jeffersonian Democrats generally will applaud Mr. Roosevelt's treatment of the Cuban reciprocity question, his forbearance toward China, his firm adherence to the Monroe Doctrine, and his cordial attitude toward England. His apparent desire to revise the tariff will be commended. His ultimate exhibition of

a wish to curb the trusts through the exercise of powers conferred by the Constitution rather than through a constitutional amendment will also be regarded with approval. The only act of the President that seems to meet with the severe disapprobation of "A Jeffersonian Democrat" is his appointment of the anthracite coal commission. This, he declares, "is a first step in the perilous pathway that leads to the assertion of autocratic authority, an act that seems destined to give the Roosevelt administration a bad eminence in American history."

THE AMERICAN INVASION OF CANADA.

THE marvelous resources of British North America, and the ways in which the citizens of the United States are developing them, form the subject of Mr. Robert H. Montgomery's article in the January *World's Work*. Probably the most important single industrial enterprise in Canada is the building of the Dominion Coal Company and the Dominion Iron and Steel Company in Nova Scotia by Mr. Henry M. Whitney, of Boston. It is said that coal can be mined and put on shipboard at Nova Scotia at less than one dollar a ton, and that whereas the cost of producing hematite iron is \$15.65 a ton in England, \$13.50 in Germany, and \$9.50 in Pittsburgh, the cost in Sydney is only \$7.45 per ton. Even this quotation is made without deducting the government bonus of \$2.70 on each ton of native ore, and \$1.80 a ton for foreign ore manufactured in Canada, which would lower the net cost to \$5.65 or \$4.75 a ton, according to the source of the ore. When the works at Sydney are completed, they will turn out half a million tons of steel a year, and already plans are on foot to begin shipbuilding there.

Mr. Montgomery points out that Sydney is 1,200 miles nearer European ports than Baltimore, the port nearest Pittsburgh, 2,300 miles nearer Liverpool than Pensacola, the port nearest the Alabama iron district; and to the fact not usually borne in mind, that South America lies far to the east of the United States, and Sydney is 600 miles nearer Rio Janeiro and Buenos Ayres than New Orleans and Mobile. It is also 900 miles nearer Cape Town than these gulf ports are.

CANADA'S WEALTH OF STANDING TIMBER.

Canada has about twice as much standing timber as the United States, and the enterprising American paper makers are expending every year millions of dollars on huge pulp mills equipped with the best American machinery. In the December number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*,

Mr. Cy Warman described what Mr. Francis Clergue, of Maine, was doing at the Canadian "Soo," and he is but one of many. The timber privileges are being bought up by corporations, each of which owns many thousands of square miles. The pulp is of a high quality, and is driving the Scandinavian article from the markets of Europe. It is supplying many mills of the United States, and is largely used in Australia, India, and Japan.

This timber belt of Canada stretches from the Atlantic Coast to the plains beyond the Great Lakes, and from the slopes of the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, while on the north, beyond the "Height of Land," is a vast area of timber sweeping across the continent from Labrador to Alaska, 700 miles in width and 4,000 in length. A single district,—that of Lake St. John, north of Quebec,—bears spruce equal to the entire forest area of Norway.

THE WHEAT POSSIBILITIES.

Mr. Montgomery quotes an authority on wheat who has recently calculated that in ten years, at the present rate of immigration into Canada, there would be farmers enough to produce 250,000,000 bushels of wheat a year. Deducting the comparatively small amount required for home consumption, Canada will export cargoes nearly double those of the American shipment of to-day. In Manitoba and the Northwest territories, 260,000,000 acres of arable land await the plow. Mr. Montgomery calculates that there are already 70,000 people of American extraction in the Canadian wheat lands. It is not merely the failures or the dissatisfied that leave America for these Canadian farms. The Indiana, Montana, Dakota, or Nebraska farmer who can sell his old place for from \$30 to \$40 an acre and buy as good or better land under the British flag for from \$7 to \$10 an acre, thinks it is a good thing to try. A certain proportion of each new township is of crown lands, on which the homesteader may secure an allotment on payment of a nominal fee of \$10 for 160 acres of land, and after a residence of three years and compliance of homestead regulations, receive an absolute title. Or he may purchase lands from the large grants owned by the Canadian Pacific and Canadian Northern railroads, or buy a farm from one of the many land companies, chiefly American, which have recently acquired large tracts of the railway lands. The Hudson Bay Company also controls enormous holdings. The total land sales during the summer of 1902 were fivefold those of 1901, with prices steadily rising. Land selling at \$3 an acre five years ago is now bringing double or treble that price. The

soil is deep and exceptionally fertile, and is in many communities yielding twenty bushels of wheat to the acre.

From the British Point of View.

Englishmen who, like Mr. W. T. Stead, have come to believe that the Americanization of the British Empire is inevitable, and cannot be long deferred, will find much to confirm their opinions in an article contributed to the *Fortnightly Review* for December by Mr. Archibald S. Hurd.

Mr. Hurd's paper deals with "The Foreign Invasion of Canada." Canada, he points out, is, firstly, being de-Anglicized by foreign immigration and by the growth of the French; and, secondly, Americanized by the phenomenal flood of immigrants from across the frontier. The natural growth of the Canadian population is small. The census of 1881 showed an increase in ten years of 19 per cent.; in 1901, the increase had fallen to 11.14 per cent. And it is not the British, but the French, who account for most of this small increase. The French-Canadians double in numbers every twenty-five years. Families of eighteen and twenty children are not infrequent; and in Quebec the birthrate is 36.86 per thousand. The French-Canadians, Mr. Hurd insists, are not well affected to England, and they enjoy their liberties as sops given by the British nation in the hope of keeping them quiet. Meantime immigration from the European Continent has increased, while the number of British and Irish born settlers is 100,000 less than it was thirty years ago.

THE AMERICAN WAVE.

The British element in Canada is therefore relatively falling off. Settlers from the United States are flooding the country. Last year only 25 per cent. of the immigrants came from the United Kingdom, while 35 per cent. came across the frontier. In 1901, there were 17,987 immigrants from the United States, and only 9,401 from England and Wales, 1,476 from Scotland, and 923 from Ireland. In 1902, down to the beginning of October, 27,000 Americans had entered Canada. The immigrants bring considerable capital with them, and become permanent settlers. Of the 127,891 who had settled in Canada prior to 1902, 84,493 have already been naturalized.

Canada is, in fact, becoming Americanized. British immigration is becoming every day less important. Mr. Hurd explains this largely by the erroneous ideas which are so widespread in England as to the severity of the Canadian climate. Mr. Kipling's description of Canada as "Our Lady of the Snows," has been itself suf-

ficient to throw back the development of the colony by Englishmen a whole decade. Mr. Hurd, however, says that the immigration of Americans, who thoroughly know the Canadian climate, shows that the climate is a good one. As the result of it all we witness the development of a Canadian policy which, if not anti-British, is not pro-British. The Canadian immigration officials regard the problem solely from a Canadian point of view, and welcome the wealthy and enterprising American who crosses their frontier. Mr. Hurd thinks that this threatening movement can be checked by spreading juster knowledge among Britishers in regard to the Canadian climate. But in view of the increasing disinclination of Englishmen for country life, it seems more probable that the Americanization of the British Empire has definitely begun in Canada.

Decline of Imperial Prestige.

In an article in the *Monthly Review* on "Canada and Imperial Ignorance," Mr. W. Beach Thomas lays stress on the Americanization of the country:

"American ideas, if not America, are taking the country captive. The Americans have no insidious intentions, no *arrière pensée*,—an American seldom has. He is generally candid, if not honest, to a degree. He goes where he goes to make money, and makes no pretense of ulterior objects; he neither simulates nor dissimulates. But power goes with the making of money as an inseparable accident; and the American is apt to win other prizes than millions. It is no small achievement that the press is completely captured. It has been done merely in the way of business; but so effectively that in the last ten years English magazines have been practically banished. Private people and the clubs still take in this or that weekly paper, but it may be said that there is practically no public sale at all; no agents who take English papers, no public which demands them. Some of the shells may be seen, but an inspection of the contents reveals the American edition, in which articles especially designed to suit American tastes have been substituted in New York for the more typical English material."

Mr. Thomas argues that the British are losing their hold on Canada owing to the ignorance of that colony which is so common in England, an ignorance which leads some Englishmen to address their letters, "Ottawa, Canada, the United States." He thinks that it would be more profitable to expend the \$60,000,000 a year now spent in Great Britain on maintaining paupers in making immigration easy.

MR. BRYCE ON THE POWERS OF THE BRITISH CROWN.

THE Christmas number of the *Windsor Magazine* contains a disquisition by Mr. James Bryce, M.P., on the powers of the crown in England as exercised down to the beginning of the present reign. He regards Queen Victoria's reign as the time in which the principles of the constitution first became firmly settled in practice and definitely accepted by all sections and parties in the state. After tracing the gradual transformation of the royal power from almost absolute authority to the Reform Act of 1832, Mr. Bryce observes that the power which at Queen Victoria's accession remained in the hands of the sovereign, considered as an individual person, may to-day be described as being of the nature rather of influence than of legal power. He points out that the personal preferences of the crown may count in the choice of the particular person who is first invited to become prime minister at a ministerial crisis, and in the choice between two possible holders of subordinate ministerial offices. There are two questions raised by Mr. Bryce. He says :

WHEN MAY THE CROWN DISMISS MINISTERS ?

"There are some students of the constitution who have argued that when the crown is convinced that ministers do not possess the confidence of the nation (which, of course, implies that the House of Commons, in continuing to support them, does not possess that confidence), it may of its own motion dismiss its ministers and commission some statesman to form a new administration. It would, of course, be necessary that in taking such a course the crown should have, first of all, requested ministers to dissolve Parliament, and that it should feel sure that a man could be found who would be able to form a strong administration."

Mr. Bryce observes "that the power (if still existing) has not been exercised for a very long time ; and that it would be imprudent for the crown to exercise it unless in a very exceptional case, where it was perfectly clear that the House of Commons had ceased to represent the real sentiment of the people, and that ministers were, in fact, disregarding the popular will. This is a highly improbable contingency."

MAY THE CROWN REFUSE TO DISSOLVE PARLIAMENT ?

The second question which he puts is :

"Is it consistent with the established use and practice of the government of England for the crown to refuse to its ministers permission to dissolve Parliament when they ask for such per-

mission ? Suppose that a ministry which has been defeated in the House of Commons believes that a general election would give it a majority. Ought the crown, as a matter of course, to assent to a dissolution ?"

He answers that "nothing but the subsequent approval of a considerable majority of the nation could justify what would be, *prima facie*, an unusual stretching of the functions of the crown as they have been understood for many years past." Mr. Bryce thinks that the monarch may be especially useful as an adviser in foreign affairs through his family connections with other crowned heads. As regards the appointment to posts in the public service, he says the army and navy are by long tradition a little more closely connected with the crown than is the civil service, and the crown has a large share in the selection of bishops.

THE MAD MULLAH.

VERY interesting at the present moment is the article concerning the personality of the Mad Mullah, contributed by M. Hugues Le Roux to the *Revue de Paris*. The writer, who entitles his article "The New Mahdi," spent last year in Somaliland, and he gathered many interesting particulars concerning Abdulla Achur, whose religious crusade in that country has met with such unexpected success, and who will, M. Le Roux declares, end by becoming as formidable an adversary as he who was vanquished at Omdurman.

THE NEW MAHDI.

Some years ago Abdulla Achur was already much discussed among the Mussulman population of Aden and of the surrounding country, the Europeans made light of "the new Mahdi," as he was already styled, and at Aden was first invented for him the foolish and misleading nickname of the Mad Mullah.

Abdulla seems to have first appeared on the horizon five years ago ; he had then performed four times the lengthy and difficult pilgrimage to Mecca, and he edified all the Mussulmans with whom he came in contact by his piety and learning. The new Mahdi is some thirty-two years of age ; he is a true Somali, tall, vigorous, and with regular features. His past career, like that of all Mohammedan "saints," has been very adventurous ; his father was a shepherd in the Somali country, and he was brought up among the herds. There he was met by a Mohammedan missionary, who offered to buy him from his parents, and to bring him up to a religious life. His first pilgrimage to Mecca took place when



A CHARGE OF SOMALI HORSEMEN.

(Drawn by R. Caton Woodville for the *Illustrated London News*.)

he was twenty, and he produced so great an impression on the Sheik Mohammed Salah, the supreme head of the mysterious confraternity known as Tariqa Mahadia, that the latter kept him with him, and now Abdulla is the favorite disciple of this important religious leader.

HOW THE MULLAH GAINS HIS POWER.

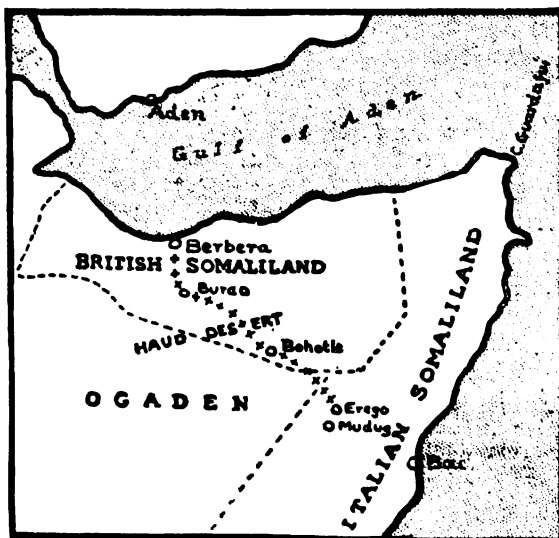
Abdulla, in spite of the fact that he is regarded more or less as a savage by his adversaries, is a man of considerable learning, familiar with every kind of theological subtlety, and quite able to work on the religious fanaticism of his followers. Already the Mad Mullah has obtained extraordinary influence over the inhabitants of Somaliland. He has passed various decrees, of which one makes it illegal to be married by an ordinary Cadi who is subject to the King of England; such marriages, he declares, are null and void. He also freely excommunicates all those who do not follow his peculiar tenets, and in all sorts of ways he recalls, as no other Mahdi has ever done, his great predecessor Mohammed. Up to the present time, Abdulla has met with only one important reverse. This was inflicted on him in the spring of 1900 by

the soldiers of Menelik; since then the Mullah avoids his northern neighbors.

M. Le Roux pays a high tribute to Colonel Swayne, who, he says, knows Somaliland better than any Englishman alive, and who, he declares, must have known well the determined foe against whom he was pitted with such insufficient forces. The French writer tells the story of the repulse. He evidently considers that the Mad Mullah may develop into a very serious adversary, and he advises the British Government to prepare a serious campaign for February, which is, he says, the best season of the year for the enterprise. The question is much complicated, because certain loyal tribes, while perfectly willing to live contented and happy lives under British rule, are determined to resist every effort made to compel them to fight their co-religionists.

ANOTHER DE WET.

At Aden the new Mahdi is no longer called the Mad Mullah; indeed, the local paper spoke of him as "another De Wet," for, like the Boer general, Abdulla seems to have a remarkable power of darting from one point to another. Meanwhile, the Emperor Menelik is watching what is to him a most interesting game with intense attention; he also is anti-Mullah, but, according to M. Le Roux, he is waiting to be asked to lend his powerful aid to Great Britain, for then he will be able to ask in exchange that his new ally should formally recognize the existence of Abyssinia, which his French friend considers should be regarded as an eastern Switzerland, or No-man's Land.



SKETCH MAP OF SOMALILAND, SHOWING THE LINE OF MARCH OF THE BRITISH TROOPS FROM BERBERA TO ERIGO.

THE RUSSIAN TEMPERANCE COMMITTEES.

LAST month we noticed at some length an article in the *Nineteenth Century* describing the movement in favor of people's theaters in Russia. That movement has developed largely under the stimulus of the so-called "Temperance Committees" instituted by M. de Witte for the purpose of organizing counter attractions to drink. In the December *Contemporary Review* there is an extremely interesting article by Miss Edith Sellers, dealing with these committees, both as to their theatrical and their other activities. Miss Sellers is inclined to take a more favorable view of the Russian spirit monopoly than is generally taken in Russia, but her account of the counter-attraction side of the monopoly is very instructive and very interesting.

HOW THE COMMITTEES WORK.

Every Russian town and every Russian province has now a temperance committee, and every village has a temperance guardian. These committees have several functions, the chief of which is to create counter attractions to drink. The committees are largely composed of officials. Their campaign against drink is based largely upon the principle that the lack of good food and the want of rational amusement are the chief causes of the evil. The committees have carried on their campaign in such a way that Miss Sellers thinks that the working class of Moscow and St. Petersburg are to be envied by the same class in England in the provision which is made both for their mental and bodily needs. In one of the "people's houses" outside Moscow men are decently lodged for 2½ cents a night, and boarded and lodged for 12 cents a day. A "people's house," as understood in Moscow, is a workman's restaurant, club, library, and much besides. The restaurants are fine large rooms, well lighted and well ventilated and beautifully clean; soap, water, and towels are supplied gratis to the visitors. They are open from early morning till late at night, breakfasts, dinners, and suppers being supplied. The food supplied is both good and cheap, and only the bare cost is charged, the other expenses being paid out of the government subsidy. In one of the people's houses there is a labor bureau, and others have reading rooms, where visitors may pass their whole day if they desire.

THE PEOPLE'S PALACE IN ST. PETERSBURG.

The St. Petersburg Committee's People's House is exactly what London's People's Palace was intended to be and is not. It is a pleasure resort for the poor, a place where they may

betake themselves whenever on enjoyment bent. The building, which is the old Nijni-Novgorod Exhibition building renovated, is situated close to the Neva in a beautiful park, with great trees around it, and flower beds dotted here and there. The building is divided into five parts,—a great entrance hall, a restaurant, a concert hall, a theater, and a reading room,—into all of which admission costs only 5 cents. The average price paid for dinner is only 5 cents. "The restaurant is a perfect model of what such a place should be." In the theater there is room for 2,000 spectators. Of her visit to this theater Miss Sellers says:

"Evidently the play appealed in a quite special degree to the audience, for even the roughest among them followed it with close attention. Some of them, indeed, were quite transformed as they listened; there was real distress in their faces when the hero's plans seemed going agley, and their eyes glowed with excitement when he finally put his foes to rout. They sat as if spellbound so long as each scene lasted, and then shook the very building with their applause. Never have I seen a more appreciative audience, or one more enthusiastic. When the play was over they turned to one another, eagerly comparing notes and discussing its bearing. Evidently the theater serves its purpose admirably if that purpose be to put new ideas into the heads of those who frequent it and give them something to think about."

THE QUESTION OF FINANCE.

How are all these amenities given to the people for nothing? The answer is that the government subsidizes them out of the profits of the spirit monopoly. The provincial committees receive 50,000 rubles a year, and the St. Petersburg and Moscow committees get annual subsidies of 500,000 rubles and 300,000 rubles. In addition, the St. Petersburg Committee was granted 1,000,000 rubles for the purpose of building the People's Palace. Altogether, M. de Witte handed over to the committees in 1900 nearly 4,000,000 rubles, and the amount was increased when the monopoly system embraced the whole country. As the profit from the monopoly in 1897 was 20,375,000 rubles, he could well afford to do so.

"A WORK OF REAL CHARITY."

Miss Sellers gives high praise to the energy and capacity of the officials who are intrusted with the task of carrying on the work of the committees. They have gone on the principle of gaining the confidence of the working class.

"Russian temperance committees are not ideal institutions; they have their faults, of course; still they are undoubtedly doing much useful work, work which will make its influence felt more and more from year to year. For they are not only fighting against intemperance, but they are fighting for civilization, for a higher standard of life among the workers, for their social and intellectual development. They are striving, too, so far as in them lies, to introduce purple patches into dull, gray existences, and thus render this world of ours a pleasanter place than it is. And this in itself is a work of real charity. It is a great thing for a nation to have, as Russia has, thousands of men and women banded together for the express purpose of giving a helping hand to the poor, of removing stones from the path of the weak, and rendering life all round better worth living. As I went about among the Moscow workers, and saw them in their great dining halls, with their well-cooked dinners before them, I often wished that English workers were as well catered for as these Russians are. I often wished, too, when in St. Petersburg, that London had, as that city has, its pleasure resorts for the poor, its people's theaters, nay, even its variety shows, with performing Chinamen and ditty-singing negroes."

AN ARCTIC PRISON-VILLAGE.

MR. HARRY DE WINDT, who reported so favorably on the prisons in western Siberia, and who has always maintained that, were he sentenced to a term of penal servitude, he would infinitely sooner serve it in Siberia than in England, writes in the *Strand* on darkest Siberia and its political exiles. He describes a colony of such exiles at Sredni-Kolymsk, away in the remote northeast. He states that physical brutality is a thing of the past. A convict who shot a police officer for cruelty to a comrade will, he expects, be acquitted. But the physical privations in respect to food and warmth are portrayed in lurid colors. Yet this is the worst count in his indictment:

PREVALENCE OF INSANITY.

"The most pitiable peculiarity about Sredni-Kolymsk is, perhaps, the morbid influence of the place and its surroundings on the mental powers. The first thing noticeable among those who had passed some years here was the utter vacancy of mind, even of men who, in Europe, had shone in the various professions. Indeed, I can safely state that, with three exceptions, there was not a perfectly sane man or woman among all the exiles I saw here. 'A couple of years usually

makes them shaky,' said an official, 'and the strongest-minded generally become childish when they have been here for five or six.' 'But why is it?' I asked. My friend walked to the window and pointed to the mournful, desolate street, the dismal drab hovels, and frozen, pine-fringed river darkening in the dusk. 'That,' he said, 'and the awful silence—day after day, year after year, not a sound.'"

Mr. de Windt concludes with the hope that the "clemency of a wise and merciful ruler may yet be extended toward the unhappy outcasts in that Siberian hell of famine, cold, and darkness, scarcely less terrible in its ghastly loneliness than those frozen realms of eternal silence which enshrine the mystery of the world."

RELIGION IN ITALY TO-DAY.

THE religious condition of Italy is the subject of a painstaking and fair-minded paper in the *Church Quarterly Review*. The writer has lived for several years in Italy, and acknowledges the generous friendship of not a few of the most learned and most devout clergy as the source of almost all his information. He states that among the younger and more enlightened clergy there is a large and growing section which would indorse the words of one of them: "The temporal power is impossible; thank God, it is impossible." The tension between the papacy and the monarchy is, he thinks, injurious to religion, excluding, as it tends to do, devout Catholics from Parliament, and forcing the monarchy to favor anti-clerical movements. The confiscation of monastic property has thrown out of cultivation the land formerly tilled by the monks, and has done great temporal injury to the poor, for whom there is no legal provision.

WORSHIP IN THE VILLAGES.

The writer gives his general impression:

"With all allowance for a considerable minority who have rejected Christianity, there can be no doubt that by far the greater part of the Italian people profess and practice the Catholic religion. The churches are numerous, and generally well attended. . . . There is something beautiful and touching in the unanimity of an Italian village in matters of religion. The English visitor may be moved to a righteous envy when he observes the whole population flocking together to the house of God, and compares with this pleasant scene some village at home, where a great part of the population spends the Sunday morning in bed, and the rest of the day in the public house or at the street corner; where those who worship worship in hostile church and

chapel; where most of those who worship in church think they have fulfilled the obligations of Sunday by listening to matins, and where only a tiny minority offer the Lord's service on the Lord's Day."

The writer laments the apparent indifference of Italians during the most solemn act of worship, yet hazards the opinion that "Italians realize more than we do the privilege and the duty of prayer. Yet prayer is often regarded as a charm rather than an intelligent devotion." Of prayer to the blessed Lord, he says, we find very little; of prayer to the Eternal Father, hardly a trace. The Madonna is the principal object of worship. He says that devotion to our Lord is maintained in Italy chiefly by reverence to the blessed sacrament.

THE ITALIANS' LOVE OF ORATORY.

Unlike what might have been expected from a ritualistic people, "the Italians are great lovers of oratory, and a sermon seldom fails to attract a congregation, the rather, perhaps, because it is not a regular part of divine service. The ordinary sermon of a parish priest is often admirable—a simple inculcation in plain and effective language, and with much of the grace which is characteristic of the nation, of some homely duty."

The great and increasing need of definite religious instruction is urged. The writer gathers "that in the majority of communal schools there is a certain amount of religious instruction, but that in many places it does not go beyond the recitation of a prayer, and perhaps a slight amount of teaching of gospel history from a manual. In the government schools of a higher grade, the *Ginnasio* and the *Liceo*, there is no religious teaching at all, so that it is possible for a lad to be trained for one of the learned professions without ever learning a word of the Christian faith."

THE MORALITY OF THE CLERGY.

As to the moral character of the clergy, witnesses who can hardly be charged with clerical prejudices give, on the whole, a favorable account of the northern priesthood.

"We cannot speak with equal assurance of the south. An eminent Roman priest lent us a pamphlet by a German pastor in Naples, which gives a horrible account of clerical immorality. We returned the pamphlet to him with the remark that it was the work of an enemy. 'Yes,' he replied, 'but of an enemy who speaks the truth.' The worst statement in this book is the assertion that people are not shocked by clerical immorality, but regard it as natural and inevi-

table. It is to be feared that the standard of sexual morality is not high. An Anglican friend tells us that a prelate lamented to him that a certain cardinal was not elected at the last conclave. 'But,' our friend replied, 'he is a man of conspicuous immorality.' 'No doubt,' was the answer; 'but you Anglicans seem to think there is no virtue but chastity. The cardinal has not that, but he is an honest man.'"

Nevertheless, the writer regards clerical marriage as outside the limits of practical reform. He says, "We have never come across an authenticated case of the misuse of the confessional for the service of vice." Not profligacy but sloth is the besetting sin of the Italian priest. The writer adds that he cannot "welcome the movement which bears the name of Christian Democracy," and laments the lack of the intelligent study of theology. He sees few signs of Protestant progress, and dissuades from protestantism. He reports that Italians seem no more oppressed by the dogma of Papal infallibility than Englishmen are by the dictum that "the King can do no wrong."

JAPANESE FORMOSA.

IN the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, the Rev. W. Campbell pays well-deserved praise to the results of Japanese colonization in Formosa. His descriptions of the reforms and improvements introduced are of great value, in that they show to the ignorant that the Japanese are thoroughly convinced of the necessity of intelligence and common sense in such work. Mr. Campbell visited the Taichu prison, and says of it:

"The whole thing was intensely interesting to me, because on every hand one could see the operation of high intelligence, firmness, and even of mercy in grappling with evils which are found among people of every land. Before coming away the governor remarked to me that the entire group of buildings, including the surrounding walls, was the outcome of convict labor; and it did, indeed, seem to be a feature of the system here that no prisoner was allowed to shirk duty who was really able to work. Nor can any one question the soundness of this principle, for the healthful appearance of the large companies I saw engaged in the manufacture of straw mattresses, and as brickmakers, builders, carpenters, and coolies, was in favor of it; while statistics given me regarding the after-career of those who had served their terms of confinement also showed that prison life in Taichu was both bearable and distinctly reformatory in its tendency."

JAPAN AND THE OPIUM TRADE.

Dealing with the question of the opium traffic, which in Formosa is one of the government monopolies, Mr. Campbell writes :

"As to the attitude of Japan in regard to the opium trade, it may be said that the government at Tokyo has never wavered in its opposition to opium as an article of commerce ; and this opposition, coupled with a general knowledge throughout Japan of the origin and consequences of the trade elsewhere, has led to the Japanese having kept themselves wholly clean from the enervating effects of the opium curse."

WHAT JAPAN HAS ACCOMPLISHED.

Mr. Campbell sums up what has been done in Formosa as follows :

"At the outset it should be remembered that, when they arrived in 1895, instead of being allowed to take quiet possession, they found the people everywhere up in arms against them, and had literally to fight their way from north to south before anything like settled government could be established. . . . Immediately after some measure of peace had been restored, the executive sent out qualified experts to engage in survey work, and to report on the resources of their newly ceded territory.

"A complete census of the population was taken in 1897, 800 miles of roads were made, and a tramway line laid down from Takow to Sin-tek. This was followed by construction of the main line of railway from Kelung to Takow, about one-half of which has already been opened for goods and passenger traffic. Three cables were also laid down, connecting Formosa with Japan, Foochow, and the Pescadores, and over the existing 1,500 miles of telegraph and telephone wires immediate communication has been made possible with every important inland center. The post offices recently opened in Formosa number over a hundred, and letters can now be sent to any part of the empire for two cents each. Up till the close of 1899, one hundred and twenty-two government educational institutions had been established, only nine of those being for Japanese, and one hundred and thirteen for natives. There are at present ten principal gov-

ernment hospitals in the island, at which about 60,000 patients are treated gratuitously every year, while sanitary precautions and free vaccination have become so general that the danger from visitations like smallpox and plague has been very much reduced."

THE SIZE OF ALASKA.

WHEN we say that the area of Alaska is about 600,000 square miles, only a vague idea is conveyed to most minds. In order to visualize the statement, we must have the outline of the Territory superimposed upon the map of some country with which we are familiar. The accompanying illustration represents a chart prepared by Mr. Alfred A. Brooks, geologist of the United States Survey, in charge of the Government work of exploration and geological investigation of the Territory. Mr. Brooks has drawn upon the map of the United States this map of Alaska in solid black, in order to show the relative areas most effectively. The scale used in both instances is the same.

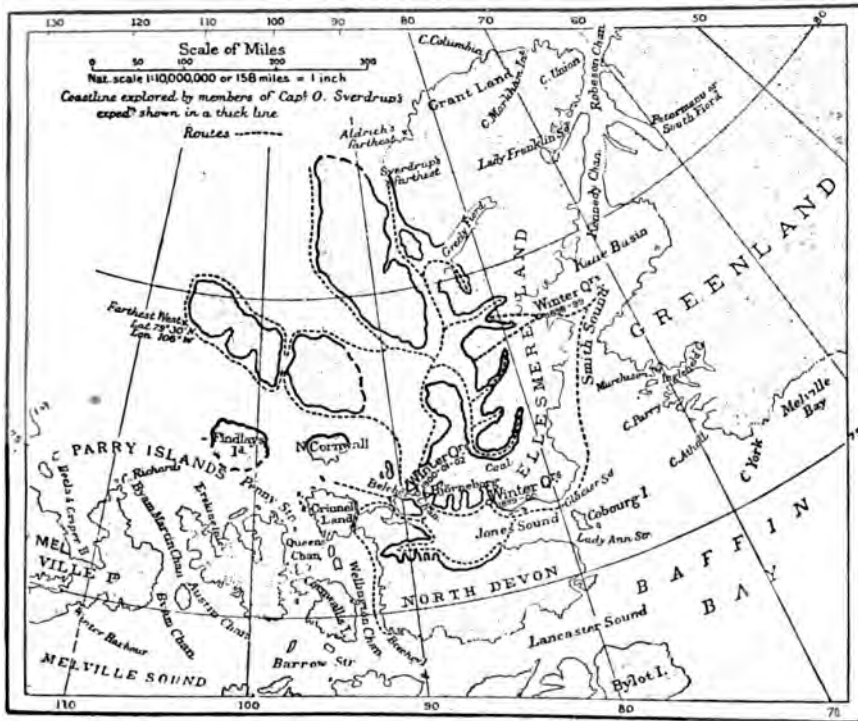
As pointed out by Mr. George B. Hollister, of the Geological Survey, in the *Popular Science Monthly* for December, when Point Barrow, the most northerly extremity of Alaska, is placed upon the Canadian border in northern Minnesota, Mount St. Elias falls near the Ohio River between western Kentucky and Indiana, and the main portion of the Territory covers almost the entire area of the Great Plains and Mississippi Valley as far south as Arkansas. The extreme southeasterly portion of the narrow strip of Alaska, upon which Sitka and Juneau are situated, would extend to the Atlantic Ocean at



ALASKA'S AREA COMPARED WITH THAT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Georgia; the celebrated Nome district would fall in western South Dakota, near the Wyoming line, and the most westerly of the Aleutian Island group would lie upon the Pacific coast line near Los Angeles, the intermediate islands touching the Mexican border in Arizona and New Mexico. In other words, the Territory of Alaska is sufficient in geographical extent to reach from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Canada to Mexico. Placed in this position on the United States,

as well as three large islands west of Ellesmere Island; they have explored the northern coast of North Devon; they have connected Belcher's work with the coasts of Jones Sound; they have reached a point within sixty miles of Aldrich's farthest; and they have discovered that land north of the Parry Islands, the existence of which was conjectured, as far west as the longitude of the eastern coast of Melville Island. This includes the discovery of the northern sides of



MAP OF CAPTAIN SVERDRUP'S EXPLORATIONS, 1898-1902.

Alaska would cover, in whole or in part, twenty-three States and Territories, and the western third of Lake Superior.

SVERDRUP'S WORK IN THE ARCTICS.

THE accompanying map, which appears in the December number of the *National Geographic Magazine*, shows the routes followed and the coast line explored by Captain Sverdrup in his last four years of Arctic work. This work of Sverdrup and his associates is summarized by Sir Clements R. Markham in the November number of the *Geographical Journal* as follows:

"They have discovered the western side of Ellesmere Island and its intricate system of fiords,

North Cornwall and Findlay Island. In addition to the main Arctic problem which is thus solved, it is likely that the region discovered will be of exceptional interest, from the winds and currents, the varying character of the ice, the existence of coal beds, and the abundance of animal life. A systematic survey has been made of these important discoveries, checked by astronomical observations. We must look forward to an account of these things, and to the details of the expedition, with the deepest interest; and meanwhile we may well express admiration for the way in which the work was conceived and executed, and at the perfect harmony with which all loyally worked under their chief. Without such harmonious work success was not possible."

CABLEGRAMS AT TWO CENTS A WORD.

THE nationalization of ocean cables is the subject of an article by Mr. Henniker Heaton in the *Magazine of Commerce*. In the course of his argument this writer says :

"People in the United Kingdom who study these tables, know that they annually spend £1,000,000 in cabling to America (including Canada), £412,000 in cabling to Australia, £366,000 in cabling to South Africa, £300,000 in cabling to India, and another £300,000 in cabling to China, Hongkong, and the East. John Bull, in brief, puts his hand into his capacious pocket to the tune of £6,755 every day of the week, except Sundays, to cable to his customers and clients and cousins over seas,"—or a total sum every year of £3,278,000 (\$16,390,000). At the same time England's mail packet service to America, Australia, India, and China costs \$7,500,000 only, and he thinks that for Britain's \$4,500,000,000 worth of exports a less costly cable communication is necessary. Mr. Heaton proceeds :

"I assert that we shall have imperial federation in a true sense only when we can telegraph from London to New Zealand as cheaply as we now telegraph from London to Ireland. And why not? In Australia we send a word three thousand miles for a penny—the same distance, within five hundred miles, that divides England from India, to which a word now sent costs us, not one penny, as it ought, but thirty-six pennies. All parts of the world, excepting America, can be cable-connected by land, barring one thin blue line of sea ; and land lines cost only one-fifth of submarine cables—in other words, land lines are laid at an outlay of £40 a mile, and sea-cables at £200 a mile. On the other hand, land lines carry five times more messages than are carried by cables."

ANOMALIES IN PRESENT RATES.

He goes beyond the imperialization of the cables, and urges that in any question of purchasing the cables the American and British governments should join hands. He enforces all these contentions by one of his delightful collections of anomalies :

"It costs 6½d. a word to telegraph from London to Fao, the head of the Persian Gulf ; it costs 1s. 2d. to Egypt, half the distance. It costs 6s. 3d. a word to telegraph to Lagos, half-way to the Cape, and it costs only 3s. to telegraph to the Cape. But the most striking instance of how the French look after their colonists is afforded by their treatment of the people of Senegal and the Ivory Coast, as compared with our treatment of our people, also on the

west coast of Africa. From Paris to Senegal the French charge is only 1 franc a word. From London to Lagos (British), 100 miles beyond, the charge is 6s. 5d. a word. In 1899-1900, my friend at Lagos sent his telegrams to London *via* Senegal and Paris. Surely an imperial postmaster will remedy this state of things!"

A NEW DEVICE IN ARCHITECTURAL METHOD.

EVER since the first employment of "staff" on a large scale, at the World's Fair of 1893, the architects have been finding new uses for this beautiful and inexpensive imitation of white marble. This material is especially attractive to those who are fond of experimentation. The most notable instance of such utilization of "staff" is the erection, in full size, of a whole bay of the great New York Public Library, the corner stone of which has only recently been laid. Some of the reasons for this unusual procedure on the part of the architects of the building are set forth by a writer in the *Architectural Record* as follows :

"The layman is apt to assume that it is part of the art and mystery of the architect's craft, that he knows, *ex-officio*, how details on a drawing-board are going to look, when they are executed from drawings in which they are not seen in their real relations or at their proper distance. An eminent engineer has been heard to say scornfully of the present experiment, that it was a 'confession of incompetency.' But, in fact, it is such a confession as a candid architect can very well afford to make. An architect of great eminence and long experience was once addressed by a lay acquaintance : 'With your experience, I suppose you can tell beforehand just how your detail will look at a given distance from the eye and at a given elevation,' and he rejoined : 'On the contrary, I find myself deceiving myself on just that point all the time.'

FULL-SIZE MODELS OF ARCHITECTURAL FEATURES.

"The modern practice of carving detail in the place, instead of much more handily and cheaply at the stonework, is a very inadequate resource. It has been remarked that if the carver could stand on the sidewalk, from which his work is to be apprehended, and cut it on the cornice, say, the device would be effectual. Not so when his own nose is buried in it, nor is the matter greatly bettered if the designer stands on the sidewalk and throws suggestions to him. But to put the detail actually in place and try the effect of it is a very different business. This is a kind of help which no architect in the world



MODEL OF ONE BAY OF THE FIFTH AVENUE FRONT OF THE
NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.

(Erected in "staff.")

can afford to disdain or reject when he can afford to make use of it. And a full-size model of one feature, or of a dozen features, of so important and costly a work as the new Public Library of New York is to be is worth many multiples of its comparatively trifling cost. And evidently the device is more useful according to the extent to which you can carry it. Here not merely a detail but a whole feature is reproduced, and a feature, moreover, which constitutes one of the main architectural units of the building, for such is a whole bay of the long curtain wall which is to connect the central pavilion that contains the entrance with the terminal pavilions. It is in this curtain that the effect of length, in a front very noteworthy indeed in New York in that dimension, is mainly to be conveyed, and that the actual dimension is as much as possible to be increased to the eye by architectural device, by that magnitude and repetition which, according to one æsthetician, constitute 'the artificial infinite.' Upon the effect of the unit very largely depends the effect of the series.

"When the designer has satisfied himself as to the effect of his bay, he has in effect satisfied himself about the effect of the whole curtain wall of which it is to form an integral part. To set up a fragment which is also a unit, so that not only the designer but the wayfaring man may study and appraise it, and search out what, if anything, is the matter with it, is a process for which, quite irrespectively of the merits of the architecture it embodies, the judicious can find nothing but praise. It is as different as possible from the order of Pietro de Medici to Michael Angelo to build him a statue in snow, which Ruskin holds up to the odium of succeeding generations. If the order had been for a model to be subsequently done in marble, and the monarch had been able to guarantee the sculptor against a thaw until he had studied, marked, and inwardly digested the effect of the snow image, the procedure, if accompanied with a *bona fide* order for the production of the work of art, would have, whether from an artistic or a 'professional' point of view, been entirely unobjectionable and even praiseworthy. And it is such an opportunity that the clients of the architects of the New York Public Library have afforded to those designers. It is so commendable an example that it seems likely to impose itself upon all owners and representatives of owners in charge of public and monumental architecture."

DISPOSAL OF THE DEAD IN CITIES.

THE burial of the dead of our great cities is a problem that becomes increasingly difficult as the years go by, although it seldom receives the attention that its importance merits. The distance of the cemeteries from the population centers—required by sanitary considerations—and the growing values of suburban real estate combine to add to the cost of city funerals, which is already a great burden on the poor. The advocates of cremation have as yet made very slight headway in this country, but theirs is the only plan that promises relief from the present unsatisfactory conditions. The believer in this method of disposal of the dead inevitably runs counter to the sensibilities of many of his readers in anything that he may write on the subject, but this should not prevent a candid examination of his arguments.

The most recent statement of the cremation proposition in its social and economic aspects is contained in an article contributed by Mr. Louis Windmüller to the current number of *Municipal Affairs*. This writer's account of the process of cremation as it is actually conducted in many

places at the present time should be read by all who are prejudiced through ignorance of the facts.

"In a modern crematory the unclad corpse, simply wrapped in a damp winding sheet, is noiselessly rolled to the retort, and quickly consumed by air that has been heated to fifteen hundred degrees Fahrenheit. Gases are consumed in the same furnace in which the body is burned, so that it may not offend the nostrils of the most skeptical critic. Some crematories have been erected in the very heart of modern cities, and would draw no attention but for the peculiar construction of the edifice. Those who prefer not to witness the act may listen to the sermon of their pastor or rabbi in comfortable pews or a chapel, while they are protected against the heat of incineration as well as against the wind and weather of open burial grounds. Too many meet an untimely death because of the disease contracted when they 'honor' their departed friends.

ECONOMIC ARGUMENTS.

"Cremation merely reaches in a shorter period the same final result as burial. Fleishy parts of the corpse decompose in the earth in five or ten years; during the whole period of decomposition they constitute nothing but a putrid mass of carrion. Bones, which take centuries to crumble, are unceremoniously carted from one cemetery to another when necessity compels their removal, and increase the horror of death after they have ceased to be identified and claimed. If they are converted, with the flesh, into ashes in one hour, they are insured against desecration. The volume and weight of bodies are reduced by the process of cremation some 95 per cent. If ashes were placed in the grave of an urn cemetery, as occasionally is done, the dead would leave more room for the living than their intact bodies demand. Two hundred city lots are now required to bury in the old-fashioned way the seventy thousand persons that annually die in Greater New York. We probably could save more than a hundred and fifty of these precious lots if the ashes of the seventy thousand were placed in urn cemeteries, preserved in niches of a columbarium, or strewn on the waves of a river. As cemeteries are exempt from taxation, the municipality would derive an income from the lots which the living then would use, and from the improvements they would make upon them.

"Another important advantage would accrue to every needy mourner in saving him from useless extravagance. He incurs at present the expense of \$50 at least for a plain funeral; land

values in the suburbs of cities preclude a reduction in the cost of burial. The expense of cremation is \$25 only, and could be largely reduced if the custom became more general.

"Let our intelligent population set the example, as it does in San Francisco, where almost a thousand bodies are annually cremated, and the ignorant masses will be sure to follow. Considering the marvelous progress we have made in every other direction, it is strange that we have failed to adopt the most rational means for the disposition of dead bodies. We hardly are abreast of Homer's contemporaries, who realized that, however well a cemetery may be managed, corpses can do harm but ashes never can. True religion does not and never can teach that it is godly to injure those we leave behind when we die."

THE RELATION OF OXYGEN TO HEART ACTIVITY.

MANY of our readers will recall the announcement, about one year ago, of discoveries by Dr. Jacques Loeb, of the University of Chicago, regarding the effect of sodium chloride (common salt) on the heart-beat (see *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, March, 1902, pages 355-357). Dr. David J. Lingle, who was associated with Dr. Loeb in this investigation, has since conducted a series of experiments that seem to confirm to a remarkable degree what is now known among physiologists as the sodium-chloride theory. These experiments are all described in a highly interesting paper contributed by Dr. Lingle to the November number of the *American Journal of Physiology*.

An independent development of Dr. Lingle's work, which does not seem to have been anticipated by other physiologists, was his discovery regarding the action of oxygen gas on strips of a turtle's heart. His own account of his observations, as embodied in the paper already cited, is as follows:

"If heart strips are subjected to an atmosphere of pure oxygen in a moist chamber, they show certain peculiarities that strikingly reveal the fundamental importance of sodium chloride in heart-beat phenomena. If a strip is placed in sodium chloride solution until it beats begin, and then, while beating, is removed to a moist chamber containing oxygen, the force of its beats is strengthened and the rhythm sustained. In some instances beats under these conditions lasted seventy-two hours, and apparently stopped then because putrefaction destroyed the strip. These experiments were made during excessively hot weather, and if putrefaction could have

been prevented the strips probably would have contracted longer, for in some cases the lower fourth of a strip was yellow and putrid twenty-four hours before the upper part ceased beating.

HEART-BEATS MAINTAINED IN OXYGEN GAS.

"Under these circumstances we have a series of rhythmic beats originated under the influence of a bath containing a single salt in solution, and this is sustained in pure oxygen gas as long as rhythms usually are in a solution with a mixture of salts. Such an experiment shows the exceptional position held by sodium chloride among agents that originate heart-beats, for treatment with no other solution of a single salt accomplishes the same result. It also may be considered as partially confirming one side of Loeb's theory as to the action of sodium chloride. In the experiment described, beats are only started in the sodium chloride solution. Had the heart strips remained in this they would have stopped after a short time. But the withdrawal from the solution while beats were beginning prevented the development of the unfavorable stage produced by the diffusion of an excessive amount of sodium chloride into the strips, and when this is avoided in the presence of oxygen there is no sodium chloride standstill. Air has the same power as pure oxygen, but its influence is not so marked. In the experiments made with strips taken from a salt solution and exposed to moist air, the contractions were always much smaller than in pure oxygen. Furthermore, oxygen gas, like hydrogen peroxide, can restore beats in strips when they have run down in a sodium chloride solution. If a strip in this condition is removed from the sodium chloride solution, and transferred to a moist chamber full of oxygen gas, a latent period follows, then feeble beats reappear which gradually grow stronger until a maximum is reached, and this is sustained for a long time. The whole series continues twenty-four hours, or, in some instances, longer. In this case recovery occurs without any diffusion of salts, which indicates clearly that the ordinary sodium chloride arrest is largely due to a lack of oxygen."

Summing up the action of oxygen, as shown by his experiments, Dr. Lingle says:

"It cannot start beats when sodium chloride is lacking. Combined with sodium chloride, it increases the force of the beats and lengthens the duration of the rhythm. It also restores beats in strips that have ceased to beat in a sodium chloride solution. Oxygen and sodium chloride together can maintain beats as long as a mixture of salts, provided the sodium chloride does not act for too long a time. Oxygen will

also improve the beats of strips in a solution with a mixture of salts. These facts throw a little light on the rôle of salts in causing strips to beat, and they modify, in some respects, the present theories explaining the rôle of salts in such cases."

THE SENSE-PERCEPTION OF INSECTS.

LORD AVEBURY contributes one of his charming studies in animal intelligence to the Christmas number of the *London*. It is headed, "Can Insects Reason?" The question really considered is the extent of sense-perception possessed by insects. Can they distinguish colors? He tested bees by putting honey on different-colored slips of paper, and after each visit of the bee he shifted the slips from one place to another. The bee that had first filled itself with honey from the blue slip, on its return sought out the same blue slip, though changed in place. By another similar experiment he discovered the preference of the bees for the several colors. He found that the bees had a marked preference for blue, then white, then successively yellow, green, red, and orange.

ANTS' TASTE IN COLORS.

Yet more interesting was his experiment with ants:

"I tried to ascertain whether ants were capable of distinguishing colors. . . . It occurred to me to avail myself of the dislike which ants, when in their nests, have of light. Of course, they have no such dread when they are out in search of food; but if light is let in upon a nest, they at once hurry up and down in search of dark shelter, where, no doubt, they think they are again in safety. For facility of observation I used to keep my ants in nests consisting of two plates of glass about ten inches square, and just so far apart as to leave the ants room to move about without touching the upper plate. I then fastened the glasses in a wooden frame, filled up the space with common garden earth, and left a door at one corner. The ants then entered and excavated chambers and galleries for themselves. I kept them covered up, as they like being in the dark, but by uncovering them at any moment I could see exactly what was passing in the nest. If, for instance, I uncovered any of my nests excepting one part, the ants soon collected there. I then procured some slips of glass of different colors and placed them over the nest, so that the ants could go under red, green, yellow, or violet glass. I transposed the glasses from time to time, and then counted the ants under each color. They avoided the violet

in the most marked manner. For instance, in one series of twelve observations there were eight hundred and ninety ants under the red glass and only five under the violet, though to our eyes the violet looked as dark or darker than the red. Evidently the colors affected them differently."

THEIR PERCEPTION OF ULTRA-VIOLET RAYS.

Not content with this conclusion, he wished to ascertain whether ants perceived or felt the rays of light which run beyond our ken—the ultra-violet rays, as they are called. The late Mr. Paul Bert had asserted that animals saw only the same rays as we, no more and no less. This was Lord Avebury's experiment:

"There are some liquids which, though they are transparent to the visible rays of light, are opaque to those which are beyond the violet—the ultra-violet—rays as they are called. Bichromate of potash, for instance, a yellow liquid, is one of them. Again, bisulphite of carbon is to our eyes entirely transparent and colorless. It looks just like water, only a trifle oily, but it has the remarkable property of stopping all ultra-violet rays. I then placed flat bottles containing different colored fluids over the ants, and in this way I could contract them with another containing bisulphide of carbon. I must not, of course, occupy your time with the details of all the experiments; I will only allude to one illustration. I uncovered a nest, and over one part I put a layer of water, over another a layer of bisulphide of carbon, and over a third a layer of violet liquid (ammonio-sulphate of copper). To our eyes, the ants under the violet liquid were pretty well hidden. On the contrary, the water and the bisulphide of carbon were both quite transparent, and, to our eyes, identical. The ants, we know, would desire to get under the darkest part, and yet under such circumstances they always went under the layer of bisulphide of carbon. Evidently, then, though it seemed perfectly transparent to us, it was not so to them. These experiments, then, clearly demonstrated that they were able to see the ultra-violet rays, which are quite invisible to us."

He tried similar experiments with the daphnias, and with similar results. He concludes that these considerations raise the reflection how different the world may appear to other animals from what it does to us. Between the forty thousand vibrations per second of the air at which sound ceases to be audible, and the four hundred millions of millions of vibrations at which light begins to be visible to our retina, we have no organ of sense capable of receiving the impression, yet between these two any number of sensations may exist.

THE WONDERS OF THE BECQUEREL RAYS.

PROFESSOR BECQUEREL, of Paris, is one of the famous family of physicists, three generations of whom have especially distinguished themselves in researches in the phenomena of phosphorescence. Professor Becquerel found that uranium would give out something similar to Röntgen rays when he kept it in a state of phosphorescence by exposure to sunlight. In his experiments in taking photographs with these rays he accidentally found out that uranium emitted the rays even when it was not phosphorescing. This scientist established by some simple experiments then that the emission of this radiation is a property of the uranium itself, and is not dependent upon any previous stimulation.

Professor Joseph J. Thomson, of Cambridge, England, tells in the January *Harper's* of the newest marvels discovered by the physicists in experiments with the so-called Becquerel rays.

A VELOCITY OF 120,000 MILES A SECOND.

These Becquerel rays partake of the nature both of Röntgen and cathode rays, or rather seem to be a mixture of these two. The speed of cathode rays has been measured as high as 70,000 miles a second, when the rays are produced by sending electrical discharges through a vacuum. The velocity of the rays emitted from uranium is much higher, while Becquerel has established that the rays emitted by a substance known as radium travel at a speed of over 120,000 miles per second. The rays themselves seem to consist of small particles called corpuscles, very much smaller than the atoms of any known substance, charged with negative electricity, and moving at the almost inconceivable rates of speed described above.

THE RESEARCHES OF THE CURIES.

Two indefatigable investigators in this field have recently been extracting the radium from pitchblende. Monsieur and Madame Curie have been able to detect the presence of qualities of radium in pitchblende, even though there is far less of the sought-for substance than there is gold in sea water. This has been done by the use of the wonderfully delicate test of radio-activity. The substances exhibiting radio-activity,—that is, substances sending out these cathode rays,—produce an electrical conductivity in gases. Testing by this property, the Curies found it possible to detect quantities of radium and other substances millions of times less than can be detected by chemical analysis, and thousands of times less even than can be detected by spectrum analysis. Indeed, of the three sub-

stances exhibiting radio-activity and obtainable from pitchblende,—radium, polonium, and actinium.—the first is the only one which has been detected by chemical or spectroscopic means.

The radium obtained by these investigators from pitchblende exhibited radio-activity of remarkable strength,—more than 100,000 times that of uranium.

WONDERFUL PROPERTIES OF RADIUM.

Radium emits negatively electrified particles with a velocity sometimes approaching that of light. "This continued emission of particles from the radium of course implies that the radium is losing mass and energy. The loss of mass is exceedingly small; from the results given by Curie for the amount of negative electricity emitted by the radium it follows that the loss of mass would only amount to about one-thousandth of a milligram in a million years for each square centimeter of surface. In consequence of the tremendous velocity with which the particles are projected, the amount of energy radiated is quite an appreciable amount, being sufficient, if converted into heat, to melt in a million years a layer of ice of the same area of the radium and more than a quarter of a mile thick. This loss of energy goes on without intermission, and has been going on—as far as we know—for whatever number of millions of years the radium may have existed."

RADIO-ACTIVITY EVERYWHERE.

Professor Thomson, in the course of recounting other extraordinary discoveries of the investigators in this field, mentions the feat of Elster and Geitel in proving that substances could be made radio-active without the aid of radium or thorium. "All that is necessary is to hang them up in the open air or in a very large room, and charge them strongly with negative electricity; after a few hours they become radio-active." Photographs have been taken with the rays emitted from the scrapings of a copper rod which had been treated in this way. In fact, Professor Thomson goes on to say there is radio-activity all around us. The earth itself is negatively electrified, and the natural electrification of any pointed conductors connected with the earth is sufficient to make them radio-active without further electrification. Thus, the points of lightning conductors, pointed leaves, and spines of trees are always radio-active, and it has been lately shown that freshly fallen rain is so too, and that it retains this property for about an hour.

Professor Thomson says that leaves of trees and the countless objects on the surface of the

earth which are radio-active are, in fact, cathodes discharging cathode rays into the air. "Thus cathode rays, which have only comparatively recently been discovered, and then by the help of most elaborate apparatus, are in all probability so widely distributed and occur so frequently that there is hardly a patch of ground on the earth's surface which does not contain an active source of these rays."

FACTS ABOUT PARASITIC WORMS.

THE habits of parasitic worms and their development from the egg to adult life present one of the most interesting subjects of biology.

In the last number of the *Zoologischer Anzeiger*, Dr. H. von Thering contributes to the literature of this subject by descriptions of new parasites from foreign countries, and suggestions as to the history of the development of parasitic worms based upon their distribution over the world.

A parasitic worm may remain near the outer surface of the animal which serves as host or it may take up its abode within the digestive cavity of the animal, where it appropriates food digested and prepared for the nourishment of its host. Dr. von Thering has given special attention to this class of internal parasites.

Among the families of worms there are parasitic and non-parasitic forms which are related to each other and yet show great diversity of structure according to the degree of dependence upon the host, for among the worms or elsewhere, dependence results in degeneration. The worms under consideration attain their adult form in some vertebrate, as man, the pig, rat, fish, etc., and have reached the greatest degree of degeneration. The mouth is surrounded with hooks and spines, by means of which the worm bores into the flesh and holds itself firmly in place. The digestive organs are lacking, and would be useless if present, for the worm floats in a solution of digested food, which it absorbs through its skin.

VARIATIONS IN THE PREY OF THE SAME PARASITE.

Different worms prey upon different animals, and even the same worm preys upon a different host during different periods of its development. For example, the eggs are found floating in the water of stagnant ponds, where they are eaten by small crustaceans or by water insects. Within the digestive tract of this first host the egg hatches, and the worm goes through the early phases of its development, in some way resisting the action of the digestive fluids surrounding it.

In time the host may be eaten by a fish, or it may be swallowed by some land animal while drinking, and when, after the digestion of its first host, it becomes free in the stomach of the second host, it develops to its perfect, adult form.

The necessity for two different hosts makes life very uncertain for this group of worms, for the eggs may escape notice and not be eaten, or the necessary insect or crustacean may not be present in that particular pond, and even if the egg is taken up by the first host, it must still find its second host before it can complete its development.

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION.

On this account it is somewhat surprising to find these parasites reported as distributed in all parts of the earth. No matter to what extent the vertebrate host animal might have wandered from country to country they nor their descendants were not freed from their parasites, for the lower animals serving as intermediate hosts present analogous relations all over the earth, indicating that in the early history of the earth conditions were similar in all these regions. If new parasites appear in part in the animals of the new regions, still the old relations remain unchanged for the most part. This is especially true in South America, whose parasites, peculiar to North American animals, are not associated with the native animals, but only with birds and mammals which have invaded the country.

The fresh-water fishes of South America have characteristic parasites. The American alligator has no parasite in common with the alligator of the Old World. On the other hand, the wolves, jackals, dogs, and other representatives of *canis*, whether in Germany, Asia, or South America, are infested with the same group of worms, indicating a very close relationship at some time.

ANTIQUITY OF THE WORMS.

Islands which have been long disconnected from their continents show the fauna which they had at the period of isolation sometimes unchanged and sometimes modified under the influence of changed conditions. If parasitic worms occur in the animals of the islands which are also found in the corresponding forms of neighboring continents, then the age of the group of worms must date back to a period preceding the separation of the islands.

We know of such islands cut off in the tertiary epoch, and in the Jurassic; and, no doubt, the parasites found here are related to old groups already well developed in the Mesozoic. From

the general distribution and relations of these worms, it seems probable that they represent an old group of the animal kingdom, and that the ancestral mammals existing in early geological times were preyed upon by representatives of the chief forms of parasites of the present day.

CARAN D'ACHE AND HIS WORK.

CARAN D'ACHE (Russian for "pencil"), whose name is chiefly associated with the *Figaro*, is perhaps the most widely known French caricaturist of the day. In a recent issue of *Harmsworth's Magazine*, Mr. J. N. Raphael, writing on "Stories Without Words," describes a visit to the artist. The article is fully illustrated with most amusing reproductions of Caran D'Ache's work, both cartoons and "Stories Without Words,"—the story of the lazy artist, and how he soothed his irate landlord; the story of the wily serpent's practical joke upon the innocent Englishman (Caran d'Ache would be lost without the Englishman), and the story of the fare who was in a hurry and the Parisian cabby who was not, and others.

Caran d'Ache's real name is Emmanuel Poirée, and though he is called the Sir John Tenniel of Paris, he personally is little known to the Parisians. You may call on him at any hour of the day or night and never find him at home. Even if you succeed in getting an appointment you may ring and ring before getting admittance to his erratic household, and then, perhaps, be received by its master masquerading as a footman with broom and white apron. Caran d'Ache is half Polish and half French, and comes of a line of distinguished soldiers. His serious sketches—for he does draw some—are exquisitely accurate studies of Russian and French military life. But he never uses a model.

"I am absolutely incapable of drawing direct from nature. . . . After I have seen my model for an instant, I never forget a single detail in the dress or of the features, even though I do not draw them till ten years later."

Caran d'Ache will not talk politics, but he is more than suspected of being a strong French Jingo, and very anti-English. He draws a thin-legged Englishman in an impossible tourist suit, and big-footed, big-toothed Englishwomen.

He finds human attributes in most animals, and frequently walks round the Parisian Zoo. But largely as animals figure in his drawings, he rarely draws a cat,—he detests them.

His drawings fetch from \$60 to \$100 each; he is very rich, and lives very luxuriously.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

PROF. J. J. THOMSON'S interesting scientific article on "Becquerel Rays" in the January *Harper's* is quoted from at greater length in another department. Mr. James B. Connolly, who has become so well and favorably known for his ability to put into literature the salty air of the sailor's life, describes in this issue "Arctic Whaling of To-day." In the old days it was a matter of rowing up to the whale in small boats, a fearsome approach, "a hand-harpoon at close range, a hurried backing to be at a safe distance when the 'flurry' should be on, and following that, if they were in luck, a hazardous tow in the wake of the enraged whale, with a final tedious trying-out aboard ship." Killing a whale to-day is a very different matter. The whaling ship, a small steamer, follows a herd of cetaceans, sneaks up behind them, and then fires a harpoon from a harpoon-cannon placed in the bows into the biggest animal the skipper can hit. There is no leaving the steamer at all, and even when the whale is killed the ship's tender, an iron tug, will tow the carcass to a trying-out station on land instead of leaving that operation to be performed aboard the whaler. Mr. Connolly gives a tremendously spirited account of a modern whale-hunt in which he participated.

AMERICAN AND CHINESE CIVILIZATION.

In a brief article entitled "Chinese and Western Civilization," the popular and witty Chinese minister, Wu Ting-Fang, indulges in some kindly criticism of American manners. Mr. Wu thinks that America, now leading the world in material progress, may easily devote too much time and energy to money getting. He does not believe in shortening mealtime to lengthen business hours, or in turning night into day. He makes the statement that in his own country there is no recognition of an aristocracy of wealth, and that greater importance is given to intellectual superiority. He says a scholar and gentleman commands greater respect than a mere millionaire, and that the aim of Chinese education is to make a man a useful and desirable member of society. He doubts whether the Americans as a nation are happier than the Chinese. While Mr. Wu admits that China needs some reform in material institutions, he doubts whether the impact of Western upon Chinese civilization will result in the complete destruction of the latter.

Prof. Albert Mann, of Syracuse University, tells of the curious species of plant life, the diatoms, which exist in countless billions from the polar regions to the tropics, wherever a constant supply of water is found. The beautiful crystalline designs of these plants, plants without root, stem, leaf, blossom or fruit, are shown in photographs of microscopical enlargements.

Mr. Benjamin Kidd has a short philosophical article on "The Man Who Is To Come," in which he examines into the Darwinian law as applied to natural selection in its most important forms in human society. There is an account of "London's Oldest Art Club," the Langham, by Mr. Arthur Lawrence, a sketch of the career of Benedict Arnold, by John R. Spears, and a number of contributions in fiction, with the customary sumptuous illustrations in colors as well as in black and white.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

A BRISK description of "Paris Pawnshops," and especially of the great Mont-de-Piété, is given in the January *Century* by Cleveland Moffett. At the Mont-de-Piété, in Paris, the poor woman who has to pawn her shawl or the workman who pledges his box of tools pays no interest whatever, but merely a nominal charge of five centimes, not one-twentieth of what the operation actually costs the institution. In this indirect way the rich in Paris pay for the poor, and it is a favorite method of the charitably inclined to give back to the poor of Paris certain articles from the great public pawnshop store which might be regarded as of first necessity,—shoes, clothing, bedclothing, mattresses, etc. Mr. Moffett contrasts this with the private pawnshop industry in the poorer sections of London, where, incredible as it may seem, the poor are often called upon to pay interest on petty short-time loans at the rate of 500, 600, or even 1,000 per cent.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND THE TRUSTS.

An explanation of President Roosevelt's attitude toward the great modern combinations of capital is given by Dr. Albert Shaw in "The President and the Trusts." As is the rule in American politics, this trust issue came from public opinion to President Roosevelt, and he has not in any sense created or shaped the issue. He earned the ill-will of the great corporations in 1900, when he was Governor of New York, by having the Ford Franchise Tax law passed, a measure which Dr. Shaw considers a perfectly honest plan for a fair tax on the great business combinations of New York. The corporations, remembering this, succeeded in getting Mr. Roosevelt "shelved," apparently, in the Vice-Presidency. When he succeeded President McKinley, he found the great problem of "curbing" the trusts before him, and his first message, in December, 1901, dealt at length with his ideas of the national government's duty in this field. At this time President Roosevelt held that a Constitutional amendment, giving Congress jurisdiction over interstate commerce in the highest sense, was the wise thing. He proposed to create the new Department of Commerce, and he insisted always on greater publicity for the operations of the large stock companies. Nor did the corporations give expression to any opposition to these views. It was after the President's action against the Northern Securities Company that they began their hue and cry, through chosen organs, against the President's programme. As to the Northern Securities case, Dr. Shaw explains that when the people of the Northwest complained that the great railway merger was illegal, the President naturally referred that question to Attorney-General Knox, who said it was illegal. Then there was nothing to do but to proceed against the incorporators. The President is not in any sense an enemy of great business enterprises, but his whole record shows that he believes his executive duty is to enforce the laws as he finds them. "President Roosevelt's position on the question of trusts and combinations of capital should be reassuring to all men engaged in lawful business enterprises, and they should gladly give his views and policies their hearty support, knowing that what may be called the Roosevelt posi-

tion is the one safeguard against indiscriminating attacks upon the part of sincere though unwise masses of men, led either by demagogues or by honest fanatics and agitators."

THE SUGAR TRUST.

There is a well-informed article in the series on "The Great Business Combinations of To-day,"—Mr. Franklin Clarkin's description of "The So-called Sugar Trust." He shows how this industry of refining sugar is identified with a single family, the Havemeyers. The present head of the family, Mr. H. O. Havemeyer, is in supreme control of an industry which, under his administration, has increased the annual output from a single plant of the trust, the original Havemeyer refinery in Brooklyn, from 800,000 barrels per year to 5,000,000,—nearly a third of all produced from cane in America. The pride of the Sugar Trust and its head is that the margin of profit between the raw sugar and the refined has been reduced, and the official tables of prices do show that the average margin is lower than before the trust, and even lower than the average of the four years in the course of which refineries were going into bankruptcy. "A slightly lessened margin is its footprint. While advancing and depressing the price to the consumer as it saw fit, and paying dividends on increasing capitalization, it was not, in the long run, enjoying the difference between what was paid for raw and what was charged for refined. Fear of competition, actual conflict to overcome those who were striving after the same gain, may have been the impelling cause,—probably it was; yet the result was what it is, and ought to bear a little on the trust problem in general."

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

THERE is a very readable article telling of the modern appearance and manners of "The Old Route to Orleans,"—of the still surviving boat traffic on the great Mississippi,—by Mr. Willis Gibson, in the January *Scribner's*. The glory of the forties and fifties in Mississippi steamboating has departed, but Mr. Gibson says that there is still a very important and highly picturesque scheme of steamboat transportation on the Mississippi of to-day, and he thinks it likely that it will never grow less. The great river in its southern third is so uncertain in its course, and the country on either side of it is so unfavorable to railroad-building, that there will always be a great deal for the steamboats to do in serving the plantations in this rich bottom country. St. Paul is the official head of navigation of the Mississippi now, and there is a thriving traffic, both above and below St. Paul. But it is below St. Louis that the Mississippi has but little to fear from the railroad. There is but one bridge between St. Louis and New Orleans,—that at Memphis.

THE PAVILION FOR THE BLIND.

Margarita S. Gerry tells of the pavilion for the blind in the Congressional Library. The Government is the chief benefactor of this Congressional Library adjunct for the comfort of the blind, and the Government, too, has given a perpetual fund of \$250,000 to endow the publishing house in Louisville, Ky., which does most of the printing for the blind in this country. This is a very important piece of national aid for the afflicted, because the great cost of books has been one of the chief obstacles to the education of blind people. The pavilion was established in the administration of John Russell

Young, when a few blind people begged that there might be a room set apart for their use, where the few books written in the blind type, then on the shelves, could be collected. Mr. Young assented immediately, and the 60 volumes, which were all the library contained, of books printed for the blind, were placed in an attractive room on the ground floor. Since that time, by small appropriations and private gifts, the number has swelled to 500 volumes.

One of the most striking features of *Scribner's Magazine* for the New Year is the serial begun in this number on "English Court and Society in the Eighties." This picture of the manners of fashionable and royal England of twenty years ago is given in the letters of Mrs. King Waddington, a daughter of a president of Columbia College, and the wife of William Henry Waddington, ambassador from France at the Court of St. James from 1883 to 1893. The letters, evidently written to members of Madame Waddington's family in America, are as keen, as human, and as quaint in their characterization of the English court and society as a Pepys' Diary.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

THE January *Cosmopolitan* begins with an article on "Pierpont Morgan, His Advisers and His Organization," by Mr. John Brisben Walker, the editor of the magazine. In describing the way Mr. Morgan works, Mr. Walker is struck by the easy accessibility of the great financier in his office at the corner of Broad and Wall streets. "There are chief clerks in many establishments who surround themselves with more safeguards and are more difficult of access than Mr. Morgan. The general public come to within a few feet of his desk and stand separated only by a glass partition." Mr. Walker says the men of New York who stand closest to Mr. Morgan in large affairs are Mr. George F. Baker, president of the First National Bank; Mr. Samuel Spencer, president of the Southern Railroad; Mr. Clement A. Griscom, president of the International Mercantile Marine Company; Mr. George W. Perkins, of the firm of J. P. Morgan & Co., and Mr. Charles Steele, another partner.

NATIONAL AID FOR GOOD ROADS.

The Hon. Walter P. Brownlow, of the House of Representatives, in an article entitled "National Aid to Road Improvement," describes the plan outlined in a bill introduced in the House by himself to promote a permanent improvement of the public highways of the country. He believes it is within the jurisdiction of the national government to do this work under the provision of the Constitution that Congress should "promote the general welfare" and "establish post offices and post roads." Mr. Brownlow's bill provides that the Government shall contribute one-half of the cost of any given highway when the road is built in cooperation "with any State or political subdivision thereof."

A SKETCH OF RUSSELL SAGE.

In the sketches of "Captains of Industry," the most striking in this number is Mr. Robert N. Burnett's of Russell Sage. He says that the amount of Mr. Sage's wealth is a mystery in Wall Street, but the general belief is that he is worth from \$75,000,000 to \$100,000,000. His great business is that of a money-lender. Only two or three of the greatest banks in New York City now

have more money out "on call" than has Mr. Sage. In addition to the \$20,000,000 which he puts out in this way, he employs \$20,000,000 in time loans, and another \$20,000,000 to \$40,000,000 is invested in high-grade bonds and stocks. Mr. Sage was born in 1815, began his career as a clerk in a general country store, then moved to Troy, and at twenty bought out his employer, who ran a still larger store. He was in Congress as a member from the Troy district just before the war, and after leaving political life, came to New York and increased an already considerable fortune by getting liberal land grants from the Western States and buying up the third-mortgage bonds of the Pacific Railroad Company, afterward reorganized as the Missouri Pacific in 1876. With Commodore Garrison, the Missouri Pacific was made a thorn in the flesh of Jay Gould and the Wabash system. When Mr. Gould bought out the Missouri Pacific he became acquainted with Mr. Sage, and the two were identified together in most of their prominent operations from that day on. Mr. Sage, while not so brilliant as Jay Gould, was the more cautious and evenly balanced. He cares nothing for luxuries, is an agreeable conversationalist, talking in a low, gentle voice, and his chief recreation is with his pets, and especially his horses.

M'CLURE'S.

MR. RAY STANNARD BAKER has been to the mine regions, making a careful investigation of the facts of the intimidation of non-union workers during the great strike. In the January *McClure's* he gives, under the title "The Right to Work," a detailed history of a number of instances of actual intimidation, varying from boycotting and hanging in effigy to outright murder. The score of cases he describes are, he says, typical, and he affirms that he could "fill a whole number of this magazine with other narratives of like incidents." Mr. Baker says that seventeen thousand men were at work in the mines before the strikers returned, and that more than seven thousand of these were old employees, long resident in the communities where they worked, with knowledge of the conditions of life there existing. Of the remaining ten thousand, part was made up of workers recruited from one section of the coal fields into another,—men who dared not work in their home villages, but ventured employment at collieries where they were not personally known,—and part consisted of men having no special knowledge of mining, recruited from neighboring farms or more distant cities.

ARCHIBALD FORBES' GREAT "BEAT."

Mr. George W. Smalley, in writing of "English Men of Letters," selects Mr. Archibald Forbes as the English journalist best entitled to rank as a man of letters. The one feat which, in Mr. Smalley's opinion, placed Forbes at the head of his profession came in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877. Although seven of the Czar's couriers failed to get through Shipka Pass, Forbes did it, and after giving the Czar his information and being complimented on his skill and daring, Forbes rode, without stopping for rest, one hundred miles to Bucharest. "He arrived at 8 o'clock in the evening. He had been three days and nights either in the saddle or in the Shipka trenches, under fire, without sleep, often without food. 'I was dead tired,' said Forbes, from whose lips I had this story. 'Not a word of my dispatch was written, and I had news for which I knew the world was waiting—news on which the fate of an empire and

the fortunes of half Europe depended. And it was as much as I could do to keep my eyes open, or sit up in the chair into which I had dropped.' 'What did you do?' 'I told the waiter,' answered Forbes, 'to bring me a pint of dry champagne, unopened. I took the cork out, put the neck of the bottle into my mouth, drank it with all the fizz, sat up, and wrote the four columns you read next morning in the *Daily News*.' As a piece of literature, the four columns were of a high order. As a piece of news, they were one of the greatest 'beats' ever known."

EVERYBODY'S MAGAZINE.

AN excellent picture of the real life of a working woman in a great city is given by Mrs. Van Vorst's article, "The Woman That Toils," in the January *Everybody's*. Mrs. Van Vorst went to Chicago, took up her abode in a tenement, and worked at six dollars a week in a great clothing factory, then in a picture-framing establishment, and finally in a box and label factory.

Juliet W. Tompkins tells of "The Personality of Helen Gould," and of the intolerable deal of begging letters that come to Miss Gould's house with unfailing regularity. Something like a thousand petitions are opened by her secretary every week. Once she had a list made of the crop of a sample week to mail as a protest to subsequent applicants. The list started with a request for \$1,000,000 to found a colony in Cuba, went on with 231 requests for money, 91 for loans, 149 for sums to raise mortgages, 5 offers to sell manuscripts, 7 were anxious to name their little girls Helen G., one longed for \$500, with which to erect a monument to a parent, 4 modest young women would like help toward their trousseau (one suggesting \$2,000 as a neat and appropriate sum), 18 were crank letters, and 32 requests for interviews. In all, the seven days showed 1,303 letters, each asking something. But 363 of the writers specified the sums desired, and these alone, if obliged, would have relieved Miss Gould of \$1,548,502.

Mr. G. W. Ogden recounts some "Tragedies of Steamboat Histories" of the glorious Mississippi days, when a steamboat was a gold mine and a pilot a dictator; in the series "Great Days in Great Careers," Alfred Henry Lewis goes through that incident with Gen. Andrew Jackson when the nullification and secession schemes of Calhoun were withered by the general's fierce disapprobation; and a very frank article by David Graham Phillips gives the inside history of the events which led to Mr. Roosevelt becoming Vice-President, and then, by the tragedy at Buffalo, President.

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

A GOOD picture of Joseph Chamberlain is drawn in the January *Frank Leslie's* by Mr. J. Swift McNeill, M.P., an Irish Nationalist member. Mr. McNeill describes the colonial secretary as a man of medium size, somewhat slightly built, with legs too short in proportion to his frame. On the theory that every human face suggests some species of animal, Mr. McNeill finds that Mr. Chamberlain looks like a fox, especially in the profile. "He has a high forehead, a Roman nose, well-chiseled features, a mouth expressive of great determination, and large, dark-blue, luminous, and somewhat cruel eyes. His face, which seems pallid in its color at a distance, has, when one looks at it closely, an unhealthy yellow hue, which perhaps is made more strikingly apparent by the coal-black color of his thick

and luxuriant hair. As one looks at Mr. Chamberlain casually, one would guess his age to be about five-and-fifty, but as a matter of fact in 1876 Mr. Chamberlain was a man of the mature age of forty years, who had already enjoyed a civic career of great distinction and had made a large fortune in trade."

PEARY'S HUNTING NEAR THE POLE,

A well-illustrated article by Commander Robert E. Peary describes "Hunting on the Great Ice." Commander Peary's photographs are especially clear and varied, and of themselves give as excellent an idea as may be had of the scenes which confront a hunter in the great Arctic wilderness. The musk-ox is one of the most important animals in the hunting of the searcher after the North Pole. The Peary expedition killed in the past four years something like 350 musk-oxen, some of them as far north as 83 deg. 39 min. The musk-oxen feed in herds of from five to more than twenty, and are an easy prey to the modern rifle, as they do not run far. The meat is as good as any beef, and the skin is used for bedding. The reindeer, too, is slaughtered by explorers by hundreds, and is easy to kill. So far as sport is concerned, the polar bear is the most important of the Arctic fauna, but Commodore Peary tells us that when hunted in the native way with dogs there is scarcely more excitement in the killing of Arctic bear than in the killing of reindeer or musk-ox. If the bear is not too old, Commander Peary assures us that the meat is very rich and palatable, particularly when eaten raw and frozen.

There is a sketch of Dr. Lorenz, an account of the great poultry establishments of America in "The Great American Barnyard," by F. J. Haskin, and a study of William H. Crane the actor.

LIPPINCOTT'S.

A WRITER in the January *Lippincott's* challenges the theory of Mrs. John Lane, advanced in a recent *Fortnightly Review*, that "housekeeping in England costs as much, is less convenient, and altogether becomes more difficult for the mistress, than in Boston or New York. The *Lippincott's* writer goes into the details of the relative cost of New York and London living, and shows that her experience was that "we spent about the same sum in America for ourselves alone as we do now in England when keeping house with two servants. America gave me a life of wide individual horizon, of large income, of greater expenditure and temptation to spend; England is the land of home and heart interests, of smaller incomes, and of less incentive to spend."

J. G. Rosengarten estimates the influence of Benjamin Franklin's visit to Germany in 1766, in bringing Germany to a favorable attitude toward the United States in the struggle with England; there are a number of short pieces of fiction and verse, and a complete novel, "The New Heloise," by Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

A SKETCH of the personal characteristics of the late Herr Krupp and an article on "Our Industrial Invasion of Canada," published in the January *World's Work*, are reviewed in another department. Mr. Lewis Nixon, the famous shipbuilder, discusses "The Battleship of the Future," and how naval warfare will proba-

bly change. He points out that one possibility makes any prophecy about future naval fighting hazardous. This is the chance that some better agents than coal in the steaming engine will be discovered for propelling fighting ships. The stowing of machinery and coal now control the construction of our ships. Mr. Nixon says that after all the talk about progress in shipbuilding, the battleships have not changed essentially in the past generation. It is merely the trimming and the slightly altered shape that show changes. There is little agreement among naval authorities as to important changes coming in the future. One essential defect in ordnance now is that the life of a gun is only about seventy-five discharges. The best minds in this field are working on a new form of gun in which the energy of the charge is imparted almost wholly to the projectile. Mr. Nixon says the most important factor now influencing naval building is the submarine boat. He contends that today the submarine boat is less an experimental vessel than the battleship, and is practically a perfect type of its class. The *Holland*, he says, does successfully whatever a submarine boat could be expected to do.

CONDUCTING A NEWSPAPER IN RUSSIA.

Mr. Wolf von Schierbrand describes "Conducting a Russian Newspaper," and shows how a man who wants to establish a newspaper in Russia may have to wait ten years for permission. A government concession must be obtained, which requires time and money, and a deposit must then be made with the government, and every newspaper must have a "responsible" editor and publisher especially confirmed by the High Press Administration. If the concession is annulled, both the editor and publisher lose forever the right of issuing or writing for any similar publication. This writer says that the experience of the past twenty years in Russian journalism shows that if a paper succeeds it will be suppressed; if it is not suppressed it must forego success. There are two classes of newspapers,—censor-free and censored. The censor-free papers are prohibited from publishing columns and columns of legitimate news and many specific items, but after all enjoy more latitude than the censored papers.

Mr. F. A. Ogg, in writing on "The Proportion of City and Country Population," finds reasons for believing that our cities have reached their greatest proportionate growth, and that henceforth the country will relatively gain rather than lose. If we are to have anything like the population predicted by such writers as Professor Hart, of Harvard, who thinks the Mississippi Valley alone is capable of supporting 350,000,000 people in comfort, the cult of farmers must increase to supply food-stuffs. The change in agricultural methods, the growth of intensive farming, will be the rule of the future; small farms, economically administered, will supplant the worn-out estates, and all this will mean an increase of rural population.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

IN a very pleasant New Year greeting to the readers of the *Atlantic Monthly*, Mr. Bliss Perry, the editor, discusses "Cosmopolitanism in Magazine Publishing," and calls attention to the fact that all the greater American magazines disclaim any special sphere of influence, and fear the provincial note. Of the *Atlantic*, which from its home and name is apt to suffer some suspicion of a dominion chiefly limited by the boundaries of New England, he says that 60 per cent. of

the 317 contributions last year came from outside of New England, and that more than 60 per cent. of its present circulation is likewise outside of New England. Mr. Perry tells a pleasant story of Poe's canny publishing abilities. Mr. Patterson had invited Poe to become editor of a new magazine, to be published at Oquawka, Ill., which had excellent mail and transportation facilities, which Mr. Patterson explained. "But Poe, while assenting to the proposition, and incidentally borrowing from his new publisher \$50 on account, balks at that ominous word, 'Oquawka.' 'I submit to you,' he replies, 'whether it would not pay us to put on our title page "Published simultaneously at New York and St. Louis," or something equivalent.'"

THE WAR AGAINST DISEASE.

"The War Against Disease," by Mr. C. E. A. Winslow, traces the revolutionary progress of the medical methods in dealing with smallpox, typhoid fever, diphtheria, and consumption during the past hundred years. Mr. Winslow says that typhoid fever is a perfectly preventable disease, even if it is not true, as one zealous sanitarian maintains, that "for every case of typhoid fever some one should be hanged." Yet such great cities as Pittsburg, Philadelphia, and Washington are furnishing their citizens with polluted river water containing the germs of this deadly plague. Between 1890 and 1898 more than seven thousand men and women died in the three cities above mentioned of typhoid fever. "Allowing for all other possible causes, it is certain that more than half of them were condemned to death solely by the corruption or the incapacity of those municipal officials who permitted the conditions of the existing water supplies."

There is begun in this issue of the *Atlantic* an autobiography of John T. Trowbridge, who shares, according to the editor, "with Professor Norton only among living men the honor of contributing to the first number of the new magazine."

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE articles in the *North American Review* for December reviewing President Roosevelt's first year in office, and the discussion of the tariff by the late Thomas B. Reed in the same number, have been noticed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month." In this issue there are also two articles dealing specifically with the trust problem; Mr. Joseph S. Auerbach writes on "President Roosevelt and the Trusts," while Prof. Henry C. Adams attempts to give an answer to the question, "What is Publicity?" Mr. Auerbach sets forth certain objections to the President's proposition for a constitutional amendment. These objections are chiefly summed up in the argument that the abrupt transition of the control of the country's commercial interests from the State to the national Congress would be a fatal shock to those interests, since it would deprive them of "the security of State refuge," and would have a tendency to wipe out State lines altogether. In Mr. Auerbach's opinion, no emergency now exists which would justify such an overturning of our institutions. The evils in trusts that have been pointed out can be remedied in great part by legislation without resorting to constitutional amendment.

Some valuable suggestions as to the lines that may profitably be followed by Congress in legislating on the trust question are offered by Professor Adams, who

recommends that any law designed to secure publicity should confer upon the bureau intrusted with its administration power to prescribe a legal form of accounts for all concerns coming under its jurisdiction, and that accounting officers should be made personally responsible for all reports submitted by them.

ELECTRICITY AS A RAILROAD MOTIVE POWER.

Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt, who is an expert mechanical engineer, contributes to this number an instructive paper on "Electricity as a Motive Power on Trunk Lines." Mr. Vanderbilt's conclusion is, that while, from the engineering point of view, it is entirely possible to use electricity as the motive power on trunk lines, from the financial point of view it is as yet an impossibility, except under certain conditions, chief among which are exceptionally favorable location of the road for increasing the density of the traffic and the ability to increase rates along with an increase in conveniences afforded to passengers. Mr. Vanderbilt regards as within the realm of possibility certain improvements which would decrease the fuel cost in electric traction, such as the successful working of oil engines in large units, or inventions that would reduce the line loss. On the other hand, improvements that would produce equal efficiency may be imagined for steam locomotives.

MUSIC IN AMERICA.

Mr. David Bispham writes hopefully of the progress of music as a factor in our national life. He says: "Not to all is it given to be able to comprehend the higher flights of music; but the number is rapidly increasing with education, until it may fairly be said that America stands at the head of the nations in its appreciation of the art to-day. Whatever may be the reason for this, true it is that we want only the best in science, architecture, literature, the decorative arts, and music; and in music we are rapidly reaching a point when it will cease to be considered among amusements, or treated as such by the majority."

THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMAN.

In an interesting survey of the improvement of the legal status of woman in the past half-century, Miss Susan B. Anthony makes the assertion that women do not enjoy one privilege to-day, beyond those possessed by their foremothers, which was not demanded by the late Mrs. Stanton in the early years of her leadership in the reform movement.

THE HOPE OF THE ANTI-IMPERIALISTS.

In a sort of anti-imperialist confession of faith, Mr. Erving Winslow candidly avows the hope of his brethren of that persuasion "that in Hawaii where there is chaos, and in Porto Rico where discontent is rapidly spreading, the conditions will so develop that these 'possessions,' which are only burdens to our country and a menace in case of foreign complications, may be alienated."

THE SITUATION IN CUBA.

Mr. Marrion Wilcox discusses the attitude of the Cuban people toward the United States, with especial reference to the pending reciprocity treaty. He seems convinced that the disposition of most Cubans at the present time is distinctly unfavorable to the proposed arrangement. One point that he makes is quite new, we imagine, to most Americans. It is believed in Cuba, at least, that the new republic will be able to pay her

own way, without asking any favors from the United States. Exceptional and temporary causes have contributed to the growth of the national funds since May 20, and, as Mr. Wilcox remarks, there is nothing like ready money, with or without explanations, to inspire self-confidence.

PHILIPPINE RAILROAD-BUILDING AS A MILITARY MEASURE.

Capt. John M. Palmer, U.S.A., sets forth the advantages of encircling the island of Luzon with a government railroad. It is estimated that a system of insular railroads can be built for \$35,000 a mile. An annual charge of \$3,000 a mile would cover interest, maintenance, and transportation service. A system of 1,000 miles would bring every important point in Luzon within one day's journey of Manila, and would cost but \$3,000,000 a year, a small percentage of the present cost of military occupation. But some revenue from traffic could probably be counted on, even at the beginning. Captain Palmer thinks, however, that as a mere military measure, without regard to income from traffic, a government system of railroads in Luzon would pay.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mark Twain begins in this number an exposition of Christian Science; Mr. W. D. Howells reviews the work of the late Frank Norris; Mr. Charles H. Cramp writes on "British Subsidies and American Shipping;" Solicitor Penfield, of our State Department, gives an account of the "Pious Fund" arbitration; and there are articles on the German Emperor by Sydney Brooks, and "What Constitutes a Play?" by Marguerite Merington. Edgar Fawcett contributes a poem, "Oedipus and the Sphinx."

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

A VIGOROUS assertion of the principles of American protectionism is embodied in the opening article of *Guntton's* for December. The argument and conclusions differ very little from those of the late Thomas B. Reed, as expressed in the *North American Review* article quoted elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Like Mr. Reed, the writer scents danger to the protection policy in the Cuban reciprocity agitation. His views are tersely summed up in the closing paragraph of the article, as follows:

"The true American policy is the simple straightforward policy: Protect the American market with all its opportunities for the American people; give no special privileges to any foreigners to sell in this country; let all enter on the same plane, namely, by being able to compete on American conditions, which always must involve the payment of the full equivalent of American wages. And let our foreign trade be a natural, wholesome, economic growth, by which American producers shall compete on the sound economic basis of being able to undersell, not by any special privilege but by the superiority of American methods and skill. Such a policy is good ethics, good economics, and sound statesmanship."

THE FRENCH MUSEUM OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

Mr. Leopold Katscher gives an interesting account of the work and functions of the Musée Social, at Paris, which he aptly characterizes as a great center for theoretical and practical inquiry into social subjects. Besides its permanent corps of correspondents in nearly

all countries, the museum has a large technical board of management under the direction of Prof. Leopold Mabileau; an administrative committee, composed of persons of distinction; and seven "sections," dealing with the various special questions and lines of research to which the museum's investigations have been directed since its founding, in 1895.

"The center of gravity of this useful institution's activity lies in its work of giving information and advice. If the question is about some subject or matter already known, the secretarial department gives an immediate answer. But if the question treats of something new, or of a specialty, it is handed over for examination and report to the section concerned. Laborers, employers, officials, artisans, farmers, societies, authors, etc., may put questions, and answers are given every day in writing or by word of mouth. Up to the end of March, 1900, over 3,200 pieces of information were given by word of mouth, and over 1,200 in writing; the latter dealt with questions of housing (53), coöperation (258), strikes, insurance (188), wages, old-age pensions (79), profit-sharing (27), accidents to workmen, savings banks, mutual aid associations (142), school matters (9), credit (56), methods of charity and relief (49), alcoholism (10), arbitration (11), etc."

THE INVESTMENT BANKER.

Mr. George Carey writes on the function of the investment banker as an intermediary between idle capital and undeveloped enterprise. The tendency under present conditions, according to this writer, is in the direction of frank publicity of the facts regarding all corporations seeking capital. The investment banker helps to educate the public to insist on a full and fair statement of earnings, operating expenses, balance sheets, and actual conduct of affairs. The banker must have such data to show prospective investors. The book-keeping must be straight, or the statements will not pass muster with the investing public.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

IN the *Nineteenth Century* for December, Mr. Archibald S. Hurd discusses what he calls America's bid for naval supremacy. He declares that the United States is now building more battleships than any country except Great Britain, and there is a growing desire to build a fleet which will be stronger than that of the British Empire; for this end everything possible is done to popularize the navy, and to territorialize it, so that all the cities and States may have a ship called after them. The one weak point is that the navy is deficient in the number of officers and men. The American first-class battleship has only 17 officers where Germany would have 20, France 26, and England 33. The navy requires about twice the number of officers and men now serving to man adequately all the ships built or in course of construction.

THE TANGLE OF LONDON LOCOMOTION.

Mr. Sidney Low discusses the present condition of the problem for supplying London with cheap and rapid means of emptying itself upon the country. He makes many suggestions for remedying this, the most practical of which is that a locomotion committee should be appointed by all the county councils on the tract included within the metropolitan police district. The diffusion of urban populations and the transmission of mechanical power have produced great changes,

to which London's administrative machinery has not learned to adapt itself. Mr. Low would put the trains and trams below the surface; he would construct great boulevards 125 to 150 feet broad, down the center of which a strip 40 feet wide should be set apart for fast mechanical traction. He mentions, among other interesting facts, that it costs \$2,250,000 a mile to construct and equip the tube railway in London. But the Morgan system for making the Piccadilly & City Railway was to average \$4,250,000 per mile.

ENGLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS A PUBLIC PERIL.

Sir Oliver Lodge writes an article under this head in the shape of a notice of Mr. A. C. Benson's book, "The Schoolmaster." He maintains that the terribly limited training and narrow education fostered by the traditional English school system leads to the production of boys who hate knowledge and think books dreary; who are perfectly self-satisfied and arrogantly and contemptuously ignorant; and, not only satisfied to be so, but thinking it radical and almost unmanly that a young man should be anything else. Sir Oliver Lodge maintains that this is a true account, and that the English school is responsible for obstructing the progress of the nation.

THE DRAMA OF THE FUTURE.

Mr. Oswald Crawford contributes a very interesting essay under this head. He admits that the British drama is the highest in price and the lowest in literature and aesthetics of any among the greater nations of Europe. He does not think that it need remain at this low ebb. He applies himself to discover various forms which would render the drama more worthy of its position. The first thing to be done, he thinks, is to popularize play-reading. In the second place, he would shorten the duration of plays by doing away with the twenty minutes' interval between acts; and also by reintroducing something like the old prologue, by which the author could tell the story of the play up to the point of starting, so as to do away with the explanatory dialogue which is of no dramatic value. He thinks that if this were done the novel would become less popular than the drama. The British drama, he thinks, at present suffers from nothing so much as critics; when the Greeks wrote there were no press criticisms; the press had helped to strangle the drama. He would like to see the English press following the example of the Parisian in publishing signed notices of first nights, over the names of the most distinguished men of letters of the day.

THE SERPENT IN EDEN.

Was the serpent in Eden god or devil? According to Mrs. W. Kemp-Welsh,—who takes the woman-headed serpent in Michael Angelo's picture of "The Temptation in the Sistine Chapel" as a text for the purpose of recalling the ancient belief of the 'Gnostics that the serpent was not evil, but good,—it was in reality an incarnation of divine wisdom which summoned the human race to a higher plane of intelligence than that which they had occupied. Their belief was that Jehovah was an imperfect spirit proceeding from an imperfect moral system and keeping mankind in a state of moral ignorance. It was to defeat this limitation that the "Sophia," the wisdom from on high, emanating from God Almighty, came down to earth in order to raise man by appealing to the woman to acquire the knowledge which was indispensable for their development.

Hence it was natural to give the serpent the head of a woman as the giver of all good.

ENGLISH AS IT WAS SPOKE.

Mr. C. L. Eastlake contributes an interesting paper on "Changes in the Pronunciation of English." "Tea" we all know was once pronounced "tay," as it still is in Ireland; but few people know that "sea" was once pronounced "say." In the eighteenth century "mead" was pronounced "made," and "scene" "sain." "Are" was pronounced "air,"—another instance in which modern vulgar speech preserves the correct pronunciation of past ages. Pope made "join" to rhyme with "line," and there is no doubt, says Mr. Eastlake, that the rhyme was unimpeachable.

THE NETHERLANDS AND THE DUAL ALLIANCE.

Mr. Demetrius Boulger, in a paper on "A Possible Addition to the Dual Alliance," suggests that Holland and Belgium may throw in their lot with France and Russia. The addition of thirteen million Netherlanders to France as allies would redress at a stroke the deficiency of her population as compared with Germany. Mr. Boulger thinks this new combination is not only possible, but probable, and declares that England must be prepared for the contingency. Both nations dislike and dread the Germans, and if Belgium were to enter into an alliance with France on the Austro-Roumanian basis, Holland would soon follow. The alliance with Russia would not hinder this, as Russia has a good name in the Netherlands, which are largely interested in her material development.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The Hon. Boyd Winchester, late United States minister in Switzerland, protests against the "Ignoble Use of the Classics" which is involved in making them mere schoolroom drill. Lord Burghclere's translation of Virgil's Georgics is continued. Mr. Harold Gorst contributes Part II. of his "Story of the Fourth Party."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

IN the *National* for December, Mr. Ernest E. Williams, writing on "A Countryside Forlorn," depicts the ruin of British agriculture in depressing fashion, and, unlike Mr. Rider Haggard, declares for protection as the only remedy:

"What is wanted is to give just the stimulus to native production which would bring into cultivation the millions of acres in this country which are capable of growing wheat, but which are not at present cultivated. The best way of doing this is by a reversion to the sliding-scale system. I don't presume to say what should be the starting-point of the sliding scale. Wheat at 40s. a quarter used to be regarded by farmers as the necessary price in order to yield a fair profit. But with the general cheapening of commodities which has taken place in recent years it might be that 35s. would be enough, and, accepting that figure, the sliding scale would work thus: When the price of wheat is 35s., let there be no import duty except the 1s. registration fee, and that might be remitted in the case of colonial wheat. When the price falls below 35s., let there be a countervailing import duty; when, on the contrary, it rises above 36s., let even the registration fee be removed. Of course, in years to come it might be necessary to revise the thirty-five shilling basis, if and when the general purchasing power of money altered; but under

present conditions the figure named would, I think, be found a fair and moderate basis. Thirty-five-shilling wheat would not be oppressive to the consumer; it represents the average price of the decades 1882-91, years in which the country was assumed by every one to be enjoying the advantages of a cheap loaf; while the abrogation of the duties when the price exceeded 36s. would insure consumers against high prices in times of deficient harvest in England."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Sir Leslie Stephen writes on "Browning's Casuistry," and Mr. J. Chorton Collins proves that Shakespeare wrote "Titus Andronicus." Maj.-Gen. Sir E. Collen contributes some appreciative reminiscences of Lord Dufferin's viceroyalty in India. There is an elaborate but purely statistical article by Mr. F. Harcourt Kitchen on "Financial Aspects of the London Water Question."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for December contains only nine articles, which make up by their length for their fewness. The most interesting of them is Miss Edith Sellers' paper on "The Russian Temperance Committees," from which we have quoted elsewhere.

THE CATHOLIC REVOLT.

There is a long article by "Voces Catholicæ" entitled "Catholicism *versus* Ultramontanism," in which the grievances of enlightened Roman Catholics are set forth with great vigor. The writers declare that under Leo XIII. the work of building a perishable edifice upon the eternal rock has been organized with such ingenuity and pushed forward with such energy and fearlessness of by-results that a vast revolution in matters relating to faith, morals, and ecclesiastical government is in full swing. Ultramontanism, which is the work of spiritually weak-minded men egged on by a strong worldly spirit, is usurping the rôle which should by right devolve upon the religion revealed by God himself. The educated Catholic complains of the divorce between religion and science in the upper class, and the intimate union between superstition and piety among the lower orders. It is only the tyranny of the Church, and the knowledge that they would be ruined, which prevents a general revolt. The writers give many instances of clerical tyranny and superstition, and declare that conservative Catholicism is gradually assuming the form of a new Paganism. But though they make out a strong case, they do not satisfy us that their grievances are intolerable enough to force them into open secession.

TIBET.

Mr. Alexander Ular contributes a paper on "England, Russia, and Tibet," in which he makes the following suggestion for stopping the Russian absorption of Asia:

"First of all, available means of communication are wanted, they being the most indispensable instrument of economic invasion; and they should be constructed at all points where economic irruption into Russian dominions in Asia or Russian spheres of interest can be attempted. Tibet herself is of no consequence in this respect. But the whole of the Russian block of territory ought to be surrounded, embraced, broached like a cask by what may be called drainage canals, the double aim of which would be to draw into English commerce and manufacture the natural riches of the countries in question, and to glut all Russian dominions and spheres of

interest in Asia with English goods, so as to make them an English market and render utterly impossible any Russian or native industry, unless under English control. The execution of this vast scheme is much easier than it might seem at first sight. The roads for economic invasion ought to be laid out, as a simple glance on the map will show, in the east and on the west of the Himalaya and Hindu-Kush ranges; the first, in order to connect India by a direct and solid line of communication with the British commercial realm in the Yangtse valley, and to prevent future Russian efforts in western China by introducing as soon as possible English business; the second, in order to attack directly Russian economic life at its weakest and most sensitive point, in Turkestan."

FORMS OF JUSTICE IN MOROCCO.

Dr. E. J. Dillon, in his *chronique* on foreign affairs, gives the following description of the methods of torture employed in Morocco by the Sultan's agents:

"Hydra-headed despotism,—the worst conceivable form of misgovernment,—is tempered by murder and revolt, and these crimes in turn are punished by penalties which can hardly be described in English. Thus, during the insurrection of five years ago, the Sultan put a price of three shillings on the head of every insurgent brought in by his soldiers. The latter, desirous of earning the most money with the least possible labor, cut off the heads of camel-drivers, peasants, and other harmless people who came in their way, and exchanged them for Spanish dollars, whereupon the offer of prize money was withdrawn and the soldiers deserted in scores. The prisoners taken among the insurgents had an iron collar put round their necks, and then a chain was passed through some thirty or forty such collars, so that all the wretched men had to stand or lie down together, even when some of the number were corpses. During the Angera rising, which took place three years previously, many of the rebels had their right hands slashed to the bone at every joint on the inside. Salt was then sprinkled on and rubbed into the wounds. A sharp flint stone was next placed on the bleeding palm, which was closed tightly over it and kept shut by a piece of raw-hide, which was made fast to the wrist, the left hand being meanwhile bound behind the back, so that it should not release the right. The hidebound hand was then plunged in water, taken out, and left to contract in the heat, inflicting maddening torture on the sufferer, who, if he did not die from blood-poisoning, was set free at the end of nine days,—a cripple for the remainder of his life."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

IN the *Fortnightly Review* for December, Sir A. C. Lyall deals with the fundamental difference which exists between the western European idea of the state and the Eastern and primitive conception of race and religion as demarcating factors between different kingdoms, and between the different nationalities in these kingdoms. As in Austria, so in the East, race and religion still unite and isolate the populations in groups, and form the great dividing and disturbing forces that prevent or delay the consolidation of settled nationalities. Sir A. C. Lyall thinks that in Asia the strength of religious and racial sentiments is increasing rather than diminishing. The practical importance of this fact for the great empires which rule over many races and religions is very great, proving as it does that it is

impossible to impose a uniform type of civilization upon different varieties of the human species.

MUNICIPAL SOCIALISM.

In an article entitled "Socialism Sub Rosa," Mr. J. A. R. Marriott continues the campaign against municipalization of services. He maintains that the number of so-called monopolies is very few, water being a necessity for all; but gas is not a monopoly, in the sense that people who do not want to consume it can use other substitutes. The objection to municipal housing lies in the fact that if the houses are let at commercial rents little good is done, while if they are let at less a privileged body of tenants is created. As to the alleged advantage which lies in the cheapness of municipal capital, Mr. Marriott maintains that if the municipalities embark on all kinds of undertakings, interest on municipal loans will go up. He predicts ruined cities with rows of uninhabited houses, and workshops from which industry has fled.

A DEFENSE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

Baron Pierre de Coubertin asks, "Are the Public Schools a Failure?" and answers the question in the negative. The present attack upon the public-school system is made in the name of science. But Baron de Coubertin thinks that by these attacks the formation of character carried on in the schools is endangered. He contrasts the results of Continental and English schooling in the following words:

"A young Englishman realizes from the start that the success of his enterprises depends upon himself and his personal qualities. Of course he knows that he may meet with ill-luck, but every one runs an equal chance of that. With that exception, he admits that all rests with him; and if he fails, he puts at least three-fourths of the blame on himself. Take, on the contrary, any young European brought up in the worship of science. He applies the scientific formula which he carries in his brain. If he fails, he verifies his formula; he has made no mistake, the formula is quite correct. Clearly, then, he ought to succeed; and if he has not, the world must be made wrong, and society is out of joint. Reasoning of this sort prevails to such an appalling extent throughout the world that it is a real rest to escape from it; and one of my chief sources of satisfaction, when I am in England, is that I no longer hear those declamations against all that exists, which are so common in France, Germany, Russia, and almost every other country."

IRELAND AND THE KING.

Mr. M. McD. Bodkin contributes a paper entitled "Why Ireland is Disloyal," from which we quote only one passage:

"The King is personally popular in Ireland; far more popular than was ever Queen Victoria, whose coldness and neglect to the last year of her reign awakened bitter and natural resentment. The Queen made no secret of

her hostility to the great Home Rule statesman, Mr. Gladstone. The King, as Prince of Wales, displayed his friendliness and admiration never more openly than when Mr. Gladstone was engaged in the struggle for Home Rule. The story goes that His Majesty, when he last visited Ireland, was sorely troubled to find that here alone, within the vast circuit of the Empire, was there active disaffection and disloyalty, and, it is believed, that he was sympathetic and statesmanlike enough to seek the remedy in justice and conciliation. Rightly or wrongly, the belief is general among Irish Nationalists that His Majesty personally favors the great conciliation scheme of Mr. Gladstone for the reconciliation of the two nations."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Among the other articles are Dr. Beattie Crozier's "Problem of Religious Conversion," Mary Duclaux's paper on "The Youth of Taine," and Mr. F. G. Afalo's annual review of "The Sportsman's Library."

THE MONTHLY REVIEW.

THE *Monthly Review* for December opens with some deserved praise of Mr. Calderon's "Adventures of Downy V. Green, Rhodes' Scholar at Oxford." Of the other articles, we have noticed briefly elsewhere Mr. W. Beach Thomas' on "Canada and Imperial Ignorance." There is an extremely amusing skit on the methods of some of England's popular novelists, by Mr. E. F. Benson.

THE AGE OF THE WORLD.

Sir Edward Fry writes on "The Age of the Inhabited World." The difficulty of solving the problem lies in the fact that biologists and geologists on the one hand, and physicists on the other, demand for the processes of evolution, erosion, and deposition a lapse of time which physicists are constrained to deny. The biologists demand for evolution as much as 2,700,000,000 years, while Professor Wallace, summing up the opinion of many eminent geologists, declares that the commencement of life cannot be less than 500,000,000 years ago. Lord Kelvin, on the other hand, thinks that only from twenty to forty million years have passed since the consolidation of the earth. Sir Edward Fry proceeds to bring the biological estimates into conformity with the physical estimates by proving that the variation of species may proceed by sudden modification, and that therefore the evolution of modern species does not necessarily require the vast time which the biologists demand on the assumption that variation always goes on slowly.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. M. A. Gerotwohl gives the views of "The French Prelates on the Politico-Religious Crisis." Mr. Arthur Morrison continues his admirable papers on the Painters of Japan. Mr. Filson Young writes picturesquely on the new Bass Rock Lighthouse.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

WE have noticed elsewhere M. Grandmaison's article on insurance against old age in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for November.

THE SIAMESE TREATY.

In the first November number, M. Le Myre de Vilers delivers a strong attack on the Franco-Siamese treaty,

recently negotiated by M. Delcassé, which awaits the ratification of the French Parliament. The famous explorer, who is undoubtedly an authority on the confused politics of this region, traces the history of Franco-Siamese relations from 1863, when King Norodom requested the protection of France. He is convinced that the treaty endangers both the security and the finances of Indo-China, and that it humiliates France

in the eyes of the Asiatics, and that really all that France obtains is the cession of a barren tongue of land, which she practically controlled before, and of two provinces, which, though a little more fertile, will not pay the cost of their administration. M. Le Myre de Vilers admits that he is not in the secrets of the *Chancelleries* of Europe, but he notes with suspicion the unanimous approval which the English press has accorded to the proposed treaty, and he believes that England has played a considerable, though hidden, part in bringing it about.

FRANCE IN THE CENTRAL SOUDAN.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu continues his interesting series of articles on the Sahara, Central Soudan, and the Trans-Saharan railways. He is convinced that the region of Lake Chad is a kind of Eden. There is there, he declares, a new Egypt, perhaps even a greater Egypt, for it has not only a fertile soil, but also metallic deposits, and, moreover, its geographical position affords it security. To bring this inner Egypt into communication with the rest of the world by means of a trans-Saharan railway is, in his view, the mission of France. This would foster an enormous trade in hides, certain tropical plants, various minerals, salt, sugar, and, above all, cotton, of which the country can produce hundreds of thousands of tons. It is, in M. Leroy-Beaulieu's opinion, the last chance which France has of forming an African empire, and if she misses it, she will have failed definitely in her colonizing mission.

THE COLLECTIVIST TENDENCY.

M. Prinz, in concluding his papers on the collectivist tendency of the age, finds fault with the conception of a gigantic state organization of industry, like the Creusot or Krupp or Pittsburg factories writ large. Such an organization implies the subjection of the workers to a series of directors and managers, and he cannot see in what respect their discipline and authority would be more tolerable than that which now exists. He goes on to say that, while the tendency toward social organization is actually being realized under our very eyes, the socialist-collectivist conception is vanishing, and the scientific dress with which Marx clothed it is falling to pieces. The illusion of the mirage often brings hope and encouragement to the traveler who is lost in the desert, and so the radiant vision of a life in which all would be joy and harmony and beauty and love and happiness enables poor humanity to struggle on in the hope of seeing an end to its miseries. Such visions are all very well in their way, but M. Prinz remorselessly urges us to recognize the limits both of our knowledge and of our power. It is only the relatively good which is attainable. The best society is that which, while not proclaiming the absolute superiority of any social system, yet leaves scope for the state, for the individual, and for the corporation alike, —admits all the various manifestations of human activity, and tolerates alike both the forms of individual life and of the life in common. In other words, it is the flexibility of the modern social structure which M. Prinz so much prefers to the rigidity of collectivism.

REVUE DE PARIS.

THE editors of the *Revue de Paris* are able to offer their readers the first portion of what promises to be a brilliant volume of memoirs written by Madame Judith Gautier, the talented daughter of the famous

Theophile of that ilk, several of whose novels have become classics. Very charming, and giving a delightful picture of the famous writer's home life, are these simply written pages; among other vivid pen-pictures is a curious account of Beaudelaire, the eccentric genius who seems to have thoroughly lived up to his reputation for oddity.

HOW TO DEAL WITH AN EDITOR.

On one occasion, when meeting a literary friend, who was also a publisher, in the street, Beaudelaire suddenly said, "Let us go and take a bath together." "Certainly," answered the other, not willing to appear surprised at this singular proposal. Accordingly the two found their way to one of the many bathing establishments which even now still survive in the older quarters of Paris. Scarcely had the editor settled himself down to enjoy his warm bath when he heard Beaudelaire call out, "Now that you can no longer defend yourself, dear friend, I will read you my five-act tragedy!" It should be explained that in those days the taking of a bath was, in Paris, a lengthy and important business; the longer the bather staid in the warm water the better it was supposed to be for his health.

FRANCE'S NAVAL PROBLEM.

The most timely article in the *Revue de Paris* deals with the French naval manœuvres of 1902. The writer has preferred to remain anonymous, but he is evidently well acquainted with the whole subject of the world's navies, for, unlike so many French military and naval critics, he makes no attempt to belittle the naval supremacy of Great Britain. On the other hand, he is not one of those who regards England as France's hereditary foe, and he points out that the French navy may some day find herself engaged in conflict with the sea forces of some other nation.

He gives a careful analysis of the recent French naval manœuvres which have taken place in the Mediterranean, and he points out that by far the most interesting section of the manœuvres was that which concerned the attack on Bizerta, and which was, he says, admirably concerted and managed.

It appears that this year, for the first time, the French beat the record hitherto held by the British navy as regards rapidity of coaling, and he asserts that the *Bouvet's* crew coaled at the rate of three hundred tons an hour!

A FRENCH BOY'S UPRISING.

M. Lavissee, who in addition to being one of the editors of the *Revue de Paris*, is a very distinguished man of letters, offers some curious autobiographical fragments, in which he gives with some detail an account of his upbringing. His was a thoroughly old-fashioned education, and was curiously approximate to that which is given to-day to the British public schoolboy; Greek and Latin played a great part, as did the past history of France. As M. Lavissee quaintly puts it: "I have lived at Athens in the days of Pericles; at Rome in the days of Augustus; and at Versailles when Louis XIV. was King." And yet the dry bones of history were never clothed with any of those picturesque facts which do so much to really teach us the truth concerning past civilizations. Of practical things the boy Lavissee was taught nothing; indeed, looking back, he was astonished that he was not sickened with all learning, and above all with historical learning and research. After leaving school he was sent to the famous École Normale, which

with so many young Frenchmen takes the place of Oxford and Cambridge. The teaching there was in those days—presumably some forty years ago—very much what had been that of the schoolmaster, but some attempt was made to teach the young men general culture. There was a scientific class, with which those pupils concerned with literature were allowed to have nothing to do. M. Lavissee admits that since his day great reforms have taken place in the *École Normale*, but he would like to see the younger generation taught to think and to reason, and, above all, taught to learn.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Other articles include an elaborate paper entitled "Bulgaria and Macedonia," from which we quoted last month, and an article concerning France and Siam and the recent treaty. Of literary value is an account of Anton Tchekhoff, one of the most popular of Russian writers, whose work is little known abroad.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE editors of *La Nouvelle Revue* make a great attempt to be up to date, and on the whole they succeed far better than do their rivals.

A STUDY OF BOHEMIAN CRIMINALS.

M. Raffalovich, who is quite an authority on criminology, gives some account of a curious manual lately issued in Germany and Austria, and addressed to police court judges and to the heads of the criminal investigation departments. The manual might well serve as guide to a Sherlock Holmes, for in it the author, a Professor Gross, of the Prague University, deals at length with every side of the modern criminal. Though he admits that the average criminal is by no means an interesting or romantic individual, the professor declares that the under-world of evil-doers form a caste apart, having their own language, their own mysterious signs, and even their own alphabet, with the aid of which they render their written communications quite secret from those not initiated. The professor, being an Austrian, naturally deals at some length with the Bohemian criminal, apparently an amazingly clever and brilliant specimen, equally at home in every great city, and of whose special characteristics the writer gives some curious indications. When a wandering Bohemian wishes to let those of his own country and kind know that he is about, he crosses two bits of dead wood on the road; when he desires to indicate that death is in the neighborhood, he places a piece of half-burnt wood and a little straw in juxtaposition; and he signifies danger by simply showing those he wishes to warn some object made of leather. The Bohemian is a remarkably clever thief, and seldom develops into a murderer, for his natural astuteness serves him to get out of any scrape into which his nefarious ways may lead him.

THE GREATEST OF FRENCH WRITERS.

Balzac, of whom a statue has just been erected for the first time in Paris, is sometimes styled the French Shakespeare. As an actual fact, the author of the "Comédie Humaine" had very little in common with the author of "Romeo and Juliet." He was the first of the great realists, and he set himself to describe with pitiless truth the French world of his day, sparing neither rank, age, nor sex. Balzac the man has left an

imperishable picture of himself in his extraordinarily lengthy and full correspondence with the Polish lady who ultimately became his wife. In these letters the sympathizing reader follows each step of the gigantic struggle, for Balzac, like so many men of genius, was no manager of money; he was never out of debt, and even the most famous of his novels were written more with a view to satisfying his creditors and to obtaining small sums of ready money than in order to win fame. The great realist was in his own life a pure idealist. He confessed to having only loved three women, of whom the first, most passionately adored, was twenty years older than himself; and it is admitted that each of these three love-affairs was almost certainly Platonic, —indeed, his devoted affection to the Countess Hanska lasted for seventeen years, and was almost entirely fed by letters, for the lady for whom he felt so romantic an affection was an irreproachable wife, and she only became Madame de Balzac after some years of widowhood.

A VANISHED CONTINENT.

It is strange that no great imaginative writer, such as Victor Hugo, or in more modern days Jules Verne, has chosen to take the vanished continent of Atlantis as a scene for a story. M. Dumoret, who deals with the whole subject in a very interesting manner, is evidently inclined to believe that there is some truth in the various theories put forth. As a geologist he is inclined to think that the whole surface of the world has utterly altered, and, to give an example, declares that without doubt Great Britain, or rather the spot where the United Kingdom now stands, was once entirely under some 600 feet of water. He points to the example of Martinique to show that great convulsions of nature are even now by no means uncommon; and a little more than a hundred years ago Iceland was completely devastated by a geological catastrophe, and the formation of Java was more or less changed by an earthquake which occurred in 1822. Ten years later a new island suddenly appeared in the Mediterranean off the coast of Sicily, but after some years once more sank into the sea.

SOME OTHER ARTICLES.

Other articles in the *Nouvelle Revue* consist of a curious paper concerning the foundation and organization of the great Napoleon's Imperial Guard,—that wonderful corps which sung its death song at Waterloo; a gossiping account of Baden-Baden as it was in the days when the old German Emperor was so fond of the lively little watering-place; and some pages of interest to antiquarians describing the village games of ancient France. The French colonies provide two articles; the one dealing with France's colonial relations, the other with the new Franco-Siamese convention.

LA REVUE.

BOTH numbers of *La Revue* for November contain much interesting reading. In both numbers there is rather less literature and more life than is usual in French reviews.

In the number of November 1, M. Camille Flammarion, writing on "The Pendulum of the Pantheon," gives a number of interesting facts concerning the rotation of the earth. He says that if the geocentric theory of the earth were adopted, and the other heavenly bodies assumed to move around it, the sun, in order to complete its daily circuit, would have to move

at a speed of 10,895 kilometers a second, and the nearest fixed star at the rate of 2,941,000,000 kilometers a second. The physical proof of the rotation of the earth afforded by a swinging pendulum was repeated in the Pantheon on a great scale by M. Flammarion and others last February. A steel wire no less than 67 meters long was used for suspending the globe of the pendulum. Each oscillation took 8 seconds, and owing to this great swing the displacement of the plane of oscillation can be seen almost immediately. A pendulum of this size continues to swing for several hours.

Dr. Merck describes the discovery of the microbe and serum of whooping-cough, which has been made by a young Belgian doctor named De Leuriaux.

ARE WOMEN INFERIOR TO MEN?

The November 15 number contains an article by M. Novicow on "The Pretended Inferiority of Women," an inferiority in which M. Novicow does not believe. M. Novicow attributes any difference there may be between the achievements of men and of women to the character of our social order. Among animals, as among savages, the females are not inferior. He points out with justice that there are greater differences between individual men than there are between the average man and the average woman; and if we exclude women from civic rights because of a general supposed inferiority of the whole sex, why do we not discriminate against individual men who are often much more inferior in intelligence to their fellow men than women are? However, M. Novicow goes farther than this, for he will not admit that women as a whole are inferior intellectually or even physically to men. "If we could measure the muscular strength of all men and of all women," he says, "who knows if we should not obtain an average equal for the two sexes?" To the argument that maternity will prevent women rivaling men in the active world, M. Novicow replies that the average woman, who lives perhaps seven hundred and twenty months, is only incapacitated from this cause for ten or twelve months, while many of the greatest men have been invalids for nearly their whole lives.

A FRENCH STORAGE BATTERY.

M. Georges Caye describes a new electrical accumulator invented by a French engineer, M. Paul Schmitt. M. Caye maintains that M. Schmitt's accumulator is more efficient than Mr. Edison's, which has been so much talked about of late. He says that an electrical carriage of the old type, carrying accumulators weighing 300 kilograms, can travel at most 85 kilometers without recharging, whereas, fitted with M. Schmitt's accumulator, weighing only 200 kilograms, it would cover 105 kilometers without recharging.

RUSSIAN RAILROAD-BUILDING.

An article of a very different character is that signed "Un Diplomate Russe," dealing with railway developments in the near East. The writer declares that Russia has nothing whatever to fear from the Bagdad Railway. The German line will always be secondary to the Russian lines from Orenburg or from Vladikavkaz, which form the direct route to India. A Russian line through Persia will finally solve the problem. The Russian diplomatist, in conclusion, declares that the Bagdad Railway will be of very little use to Turkey from a military point of view should war break out,

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

UNDER the title "An Exhausted People," the editor of the *Nuova Antologia* (November 16), Naggiorino Ferraris, continues his campaign in favor of an entire reorganization of taxation in Italy. He opens his article with the statement that Italy is the most heavily taxed nation of the civilized world, and points out that this is the result partly of the inevitably heavy expenses of building up a united people, and partly of the hand-to-mouth expedients by which successive finance ministers have tried to make up the deficits of past budgets. Now, however, the time has come, if the prosperity of Italy is not to be gravely imperiled, for an equitable readjustment of taxation and a reduction of the national burden.

A full and able criticism of Mr. Benjamin Kidd's recent book, "The Principles of Western Civilization," is contributed by Professor Loria, of Padua, who remarks that although the supply of sociological works from England is small, they are usually of high merit. The Italian professor emphatically disputes both the premises and the conclusions of Mr. Kidd's book, but he welcomes the work as a brilliant and useful contribution to sociological science.

F. Crispolti writes an excellent article (November 1) in support of the International League against dueling, pointing out that in Italy, happily, the custom has never obtained the sanction of public opinion to the same extent as in Germany, France, and Austria.

To the *Rivista Moderna* (October 15) Signora Paola Lombroso contributes a very charming article on "Why Babies Love Fables," pointing out that it is quite a mistake to suppose that children have any predilection for the marvelous. The truth is, what appears marvelous to us is no more marvelous to them than many of the most ordinary events of every-day life must appear, such as a fall of snow, an echo, the ringing of unseen bells, and so on. The writer quotes many suggestive examples drawn from her personal experience of children in support of her views.

The anonymous political leader-writer of the *Rivista Moderna* devotes his monthly article, under the title "A Sad Odyssey," to a lamentation over the begging tour of the Boer generals through Europe, which he regards as a mistake on their own part and a damaging blow to the dignity of England.

Emporium, thanks to the excellence of its numerous illustrations, is taking a front place among Italian magazines. The November number contains the best account we have seen of the recent exhibition at Bruges, with some thirty reproductions of the finest pictures exhibited there, and a very fully illustrated article on wireless telegraphy by F. G. di Brazza. There is also an extremely interesting collection of portraits and caricatures, including one by Aubrey Beardsley of Zola, who continues to enjoy an extraordinary amount of notice from the Italian magazines.

Under the title "Triumphant Immorality," the *Civiltà Cattolica* writes—or, rather, shrieks—with horror over the moral condition of Europe as instanced by the recent apotheosis of Zola. The evil is traced to secular education. The protest would have been more effectual had the language been more moderate.

The democratic and socialistic experiments through which Australia and New Zealand are striving to solve their industrial problems are beginning to attract attention on the Continent of Europe. The *Rassegna*

Nazionale (November 1) summarizes some of the recent Australasian legislative enactments in an article called "The Paradise of Workmen."

THE DUTCH MAGAZINES.

"ELSEVIER" once more makes a welcome variation in the article with which it opens; it is not about an artist and his work. True, it concerns a kindred subject, but that can be overlooked. Mr. Zilleken tells us about etching and engraving in this opening article, and what he has to say is interesting, especially as he gives us some reproductions from various sources. The author thinks that there are a great many persons who do not comprehend the difference between etching and engraving, so he begins by telling his readers that an etching is done with acids and an engraving is executed by means of a tool called a graver. Some early notes on engraving are to be found in a French booklet by Abraham Bosse, a translation of which appeared in Amsterdam in 1692; it was illustrated, and some of the pictures are reproduced. The illustrations in the article also comprise "An Etcher at Work," the point of a graving tool, the manner in which the tool is handled, and so on. The other contents of the magazine are of ordinary interest; they are worth reading, but call for no special remark.

The condition of Java gives Mr. C. Th. van Deventer (in *De Gids*) scope for an exposition of the financial position and relations of Holland and her colony. The poverty is greatest in Middle Java; the causes of the distress are, as usual, a matter of opinion, some believing that the rapid increase of the population is the chief factor. The method in which the Dutch Government deals with this state of things is discussed and criticised, and the article teems with facts and figures.

"Charles Hall's Cry" is the title of an essay by Mr. Quack, and it deals with the opinions of Charles Hall on the subject of labor and capital, the rich and the poor. Hall was a medical man who went to Holland to study; the quotations from his books, about a century old, are strikingly modern.

Anna Eker's description of the battlefields of Sedan, which she visited somewhat under the influence of Zola's "Débâcle," is a vivid piece of writing, recalling, to those who have entered the forties, or are older still, the terrible days of thirty-two years ago. "Surrender of Napoleon," "Macmahon Wounded," and "Death of Macmahon" are some of the newspaper headlines, correct or incorrect, that float before one's mental vision on perusing this article.

The next contribution is by Professor van Hamel, on Victor Hugo's Bibliography in Holland. It is really the chief portions of an address delivered by the professor, and it should be useful to librarians and those specially interested in the great French writer. Professor van Hamel knows his subject well.

The wajang orang is a dance, not a monkey, and is to be seen in Java. Mr. Sastro Prawiro, a Javanese, writes about it in *Woord en Beeld*. The wajang is a very primitive affair. There are three kinds, of which the orang is the more advanced specimen, and was instituted in the middle of the eighteenth century by princes under European influence. One kind of wajang is a sort of shadow dance, the shadows of puppets being thrown on a sheet; another kind is a dance of wooden

puppets; while the orang is the same terpsichorean exercise performed by human beings. The dance is one of those curious native amusements that entertain the colored races and serve to illustrate the evolution of dancing.

GERMAN MAGAZINES.

FREDERIC LOLIÉE, in the *Deutsche Revue*, gives an interesting account of Émile Zola's private life. He prefaces his article with a few remarks upon the effect produced by Zola's death in different countries. He does not think that outside France it caused much stir, and that even there his later writings were not nearly so popular as his earlier ones. Zola much preferred living in his country house, and only returned reluctantly to Paris to spend the winter months. Although in his writings he too often used his best powers in depicting the ugliest and most trivial in men's lives, he himself was fond of originality, fantasy, and the romantic. His rooms were crowded with all sorts of furniture from every part of the world. At Medan, where he loved to be, his house consisted of a square tower, at whose foot nestled a small dwelling house. He worked there in a very high and large room. His splendid house in the Rue de Bruxelles, where he died, was furnished in such a way that the visitor could not help being struck with the fact that Zola, since becoming one of the wealthiest "pashas" of literature, had known how to use to advantage the experience of an old decorator and upholsterer. Everything seems to have been in extremely good taste. Mr. Loliée mentions that it was very difficult to obtain entry into Zola's house, his visitors being limited to intimate friends. Altogether, the article gives a very readable description of Zola himself and of his dwelling places.

GERMANY AND HER COLONIES.

Ulrich von Hassell, in the *Monatschrift für Stadt und Land*, deals principally with the recent Colonial Congress at Berlin and the resolutions it arrived at. One was that the congress shall reassemble in 1905. The most interesting part, however, is that relating to the German emigration to Brazil. That, the congress decided, should be encouraged; but emigration to Argentina should not be, the reason being rather a singular one. So much corn is already sent from Argentina to Germany that no more is wanted, therefore no emigrants to that country are to be countenanced. In South Brazil there are not such facilities for the export of corn; the German producer at home will not, therefore, be affected by any competition, so emigrants will be encouraged to go to Brazil! One cannot help being struck with the fact that the whole note of the congress was that the colonies were entirely for Germany, and that all export from them should be to Germany, while the colonies themselves should be obliged to have every requisite sent from the fatherland. Such methods do not succeed in colonies, it does not tend to make them popular, and it limits their markets and therefore cramps their energies. Very little notice appears to have been taken of the congress by the German papers, and it is rather surprising to learn that no fewer than 1,700 people took part in it. It must have been rather unwieldy to manage such an assembly, but it seems to have been well done by Duke Albrecht of Mecklenburg.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

SOME NEW EDITIONS.

The University of Virginia cherishes the name of Edgar Allan Poe as once enrolled among its students. It is fitting, therefore, that a complete edition of Poe's writings should appear as the result of editorial and critical labor in that university. No one could have brought to the task greater zeal and better opportunities than those possessed by Prof. James A. Harrison, who has spent years in the collection of original data re-



PROFESSOR JAMES A. HARRISON.

garding the varied literary work of this American poet. The "Virginia Edition" (Crowell) that has at length appeared contains a considerable amount of material not brought together in any previous collection. Of Poe's critical prose, for example, five or six hundred pages have been brought to light and placed in this permanent form as a result of Dr. Harrison's researches. The last of these seventeen volumes is devoted to Poe's letters, and it is an entirely new collection. The first volume contains a biography of Poe by Professor Harrison, and it is needless to say that it is done with great thoroughness and accuracy. The next five volumes are devoted to Poe's tales. Volume VII. contains the poems, and this volume has had the benefit of critical notes by Dr. Charles W. Kent, of the University of Virginia. The edition throughout is characterized by an unswerving return to Poe's original text, which had in so many places been altered by his literary executor, R. W. Griswold. This edition of Poe is, therefore, very much more than a reprint of a standard American

author; it is a monumental piece of literary editorship and criticism, and is entitled to great praise. Dr. R. A. Stewart should be mentioned as having contributed many notes of value, and it is further to be added that Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie's notable address on Poe, delivered before the University of Virginia several years ago, is included in the first volume of the tales.

Of less importance from the American standpoint, but entitled to real consideration, is a library edition of the writings of Samuel Lover, the Irish novelist, songwriter, and artist. Lover was born in Dublin in 1797, and died in 1868. His "Rory O'More," which appeared in 1837, and his "Handy Andy" (1842) are among his best-known novels, and his legends and stories of Ireland, his plays, and his songs and other poetical writings, have not lost vogue wherever the English language is read. His complete works have never before been collected, and they are now brought out by Messrs. Little, Brown & Co. in a very convenient and attractive set of six volumes, with an introduction by James Jeffrey Roche.

Mr. Crowell has an accurate instinct for the books that the intelligent public wishes to buy as standard; and so we find him bringing out good reprints of Hawthorne's "Marble Faun" and Tolstoy's "Anna Karenina" in a three-volume edition, and also on thinner paper in one.

The Macmillan Company sends us from the famous press of J. M. Dent a charming little two-volume reprint of Thackeray's "Henry Esmond." The same publishers also continue to import and sell further issues in Mr. Dent's popular little series known as "The Temple Classics." Among these are Dante's "Purgatorio," Goldsmith's plays, Bunyan's "Holy War," Kingsley's

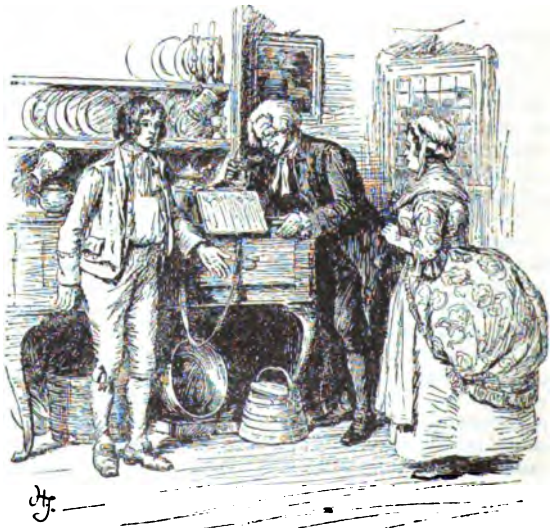


ILLUSTRATION BY HUGH THOMSON FOR "THE VICAR OF WAKEFIELD."

"Westward Ho," and Matthew Arnold's dramatic poems. These Temple Classics are edited with rare taste and judgment by Israel Gollancz. Among charming books of the season are a little reprint of Goldsmith's "Vicar of Wakefield," from the press of the Macmillan Company, with a preface by Austin Dobson and illustrations by Hugh Thomson; and also, in uniform style, Mrs. Gaskell's "Cranford," with a preface by Anna Thackeray Ritchie and illustrations by Hugh Thomson.

The Macmillan Company also issues a reprint of Winston Churchill's "Crisis," which it calls the "James K. Hackett Edition," the book being furnished with several illustrations apropos of Mr. Hackett's production on the American stage this season of Mr. Churchill's play based upon this novel. The continued sale of Nancy Huston Banks' "Oldfield" has brought from the same publishers an attractive edition with colored illustrations. Francis Marion Crawford's "Ava Roma Immortalis" (Macmillan) also appears in a new one-volume edition, with a number of pictures.

Mr. J. P. Mowbray's remarkable book, "A Journey to Nature," well deserves to reappear in the handsome large-paper edition, with numerous attractive half-tone illustrations, that Messrs. Doubleday, Page & Co. have provided for it; and the same publishers are amply justified in giving us an illustrated reprint of Miss Ellen Glasgow's successful novel, "The Voice of the People." It is also well to note that this firm has brought out a new and cheaper edition of Frederick A. Cook's wonderful account of polar adventure, entitled "Through the First Antarctic Night." Even in its more popular form it remains a sumptuous volume, instructive and beautifully illustrated.

R. H. Russell produces a charming edition of William Morris' poem "The Doom of King Acrisius," with photogravure illustrations by Sir Edward Burne-Jones, and an introduction by Fitzroy Carrington. The Outlook Company has reprinted in a slender volume Edward Everett Hale's famous tale, "The Man Without a Country," with a new preface by Dr. Hale to what he calls the "Birthday Edition." This commemorates Dr. Hale's attainment of fourscore years.

Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have made a new edition, finely printed and illustrated, of Kate Douglas Wiggin's "Penelope's Irish Experiences." Messrs. Harper & Brothers have brought out in decorated holiday style, as a slender book, Richard Harding Davis' characteristic Van Bibber story, "Her First Appearance." In its beautifully bound and printed "Thumb-Nail Series," the Century Company has brought out "The Rivals," by Richard Brinsley Sheridan, with an intro-



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THE HORRY HOUSE, CHARLESTON, S. C. (1785).

(From "The Georgian Period.")

duction from "The Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson."

The Frederick A. Stokes Company presents a handsomely illustrated holiday edition of Mr. John A. Mitchell's popular book entitled "The Last American." The H. M. Caldwell Company, of Boston, issue in their "Remarque Series" Balzac's "A Passion in the Desert," Robert Louis Stevenson's "Will o' the Mill," and W. H. Ireland's "Napoleon Anecdotes." They also send us Robert Browning's "Men and Women" in attractive gift-book form, with limp leather binding.

SOME WORKS ON ARCHITECTURE AND KINDRED SUBJECTS.

We have more than once called attention to what seems to us the most interesting of all American publications in the field of architecture,—namely, the series of portfolios brought out by the *American Architect and Building News*, of Boston, under the title "The Georgian Period," the sub-title being "Measured Drawings of Colonial Work." We have now received the tenth and eleventh parts in this interesting series. Many of the best specimens of the building work of our forefathers in this country will, let us hope, be preserved for generations to come; but, on the other hand, a great deal that was most characteristic in type and attractive in detail has already disappeared forever, and every year witnesses the demolition, especially in our



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MULBERRY CASTLE, COOPER RIVER, S. C. (1714).

(From "The Georgian Period.")



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SIMONTON GATEWAY, CHARLESTON, S. C.

(From "The Georgian Period.")

There are, however, a few Georgetown houses included in Part X., and some others in the vicinity of Charleston, on the Cooper and Ashley rivers; while Part XI., with Charleston still holding the leading place, gives some prominence to the architecture of old Beaufort, on the South Carolina coast, and reproduces a few other Southern examples. In these latest parts, as in the earlier ones, there are many full-page and half-page plates reproduced in half-tone from photographs, and a still larger number of admirable reproductions of pen sketches of exteriors, and of measured architectural drawings of details, both exterior and interior.

It is not so true of our travelers now as formerly that they know much about Paris and nothing about the rest of France. Nothing can well be more delightful than a tour of the French provincial and departmental capitals; and for those who plan such journeys it is well to be acquainted with the excellent work in two volumes on "French Cathedrals and Chateaux" that has been written by Clara Crawford Perkins, and is published at Boston by Knight & Millet. The work is sufficiently gossipy and readable, while containing valuable and trustworthy historical and architectural in-



CHATEAU CHENONCEAUX.

(From "French Cathedrals and Chateaux.")

formation. It is profusely illustrated with well-printed photographic reproductions.

The most compact and thorough piece of work of its kind we have ever seen is a little volume on "The Cathedrals of Great Britain: Their History and Architecture," by the Rev. P. A. Litchfield. It is from the press of J. M. Dent & Co., of London, and is published in this country by the Lippincotts, of Philadelphia. It has many illustrations by Herbert Railton and other skillful draughtsmen, and it is to be commended in the most unqualified terms of praise.



GLOUCESTER CATHEDRAL.

(From "The Cathedrals of Great Britain.")

Philadelphia is quite as remarkable as Boston for the interesting work its younger men are doing in tasteful architecture, and the Philadelphia men especially excel in the building of homes, and the planning of gardens as essential parts of the architectural scheme. Besides the charming publications of the 'Square Club of Philadelphia, which one now looks for with eagerness, are to be noted the publications of the School of Architecture of the University of Pennsylvania. The *Biennial Review* of that school, issued as a university publication, is accompanied by a large number of reproductions in half-tone and photogravure illustrating the work of pupils of the school in designing and drawing. It is meritorious work, and does credit to the school.

The current interest in the furniture of our fore-

fathers has begun to work itself out in a literature of its own, and the publishers of "The Georgian Period" have announced a series that is to deal with the furnishings of American colonial houses. Besides several other interesting books devoted to that subject, one has lately come from the Macmillan Company entitled "Furniture of the Olden Time," by Frances Clary Morse, with numerous illustrations and ample explanatory text. This volume has the advantage of covering its ground fairly well, while selling at a much lower price than other books in the same line.

BOOKS ABOUT NATURE AND OUTDOOR LIFE.

Perhaps nothing could better illustrate the reawakening of an interest in nature on the part of the American reading public,—which forms the subject of an article in the November REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Mr. F. W. Halsey,—than the increased production of books descriptive of animal life during the present publishing season. It is no longer true in this country that the publishers regard spring and summer as the only parts of the year favorable to the bringing out of "nature" books. On the contrary, there seems to be even more activity in this direction during the fall and winter months.

One of the most important among recent books of this class is a volume on "American Animals," by Witmer Stone and William Everett Cram (Doubleday, Page & Co.). In this work the authors furnish a popular guide to the mammals to be found in North America north of Mexico, giving full descriptions of many species. Regard has been had to the sensibilities of the general reader, and an effort has been made to free the work, so far as possible, from technicalities. At the same time there has been no sacrifice of scientific truth, and every facility is afforded for the exact identification of species. The full-page half-tone plates which illustrate this volume are remarkably good; most of them are reproductions from photographs made by Mr. A. Radcliffe Dugmore, whose success in this line of work has added so much to the value of our later animal books, and especially to the illustration features of *Country Life in America*. Several of the pictures in the present volume are made from photographs taken with the telephoto lens by Mr. Dugmore and Mr. Carlin.

The camera as an adjunct to nature study is the subject of a little treatise by Mr. Dugmore himself, entitled "Nature and the Camera" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). This is a practical manual intended for all amateur photographers whose interests are especially along the lines of nature study, and tells all about how to photograph live birds and their nests, various kinds of animals, wild and tame, reptiles, insects, fish, and also flowers, trees, and fungi. The work is illustrated from photographs by Mr. Dugmore, and all the suggestions and advice contained in the book are said to be based on the writer's personal experience.

Mr. William J. Long, who has been known for some time as a keen observer of animal life and a well-equipped writer of stories about birds and animals, has written a new book, "School of the Woods" (Boston: Ginn & Co.), which contains life studies of animal instincts and animal training. The illustration of the volume is done by Mr. Charles Copeland; the pictures, like the notes which make up the text, were made in the woods, and are life studies.

The author of "Bird Neighbors"—Neltje Blanchan—has written a little book on "How to Attract the Birds"

(Doubleday, Page & Co.). This, too, is fully illustrated, and deals with such topics as "Bird Architecture," "Home Life," "Why Birds Come and Go," "What Birds Do for Us," and "Some Naturalized Foreigners." No one who is in the least interested in the bird kingdom can fail to receive much profit and stimulus to further study from a perusal of this unpretentious little book. As in the case of the earlier books by the same author, an almost unexplored field has been entered.

Two diligent students of the caterpillar tribe—Ida Mitchell Eliot and Caroline Gray Soule—have written a most instructive volume on "Caterpillars and Their Moths" (Century Company). This work is the fruit of twenty years of experience in studying and rearing moths. The writers have added life histories of forty-three species of caterpillar which may be found throughout the wide range of the United States, giving a picture of the larva and the moth of each species. This book, too, derives no small part of its interest and value from the photographic illustrations.

A subject that offers a common ground for the naturalist and the student of literature has been seized by Dr. Richard Thayer Holbrook and developed in the treatise entitled "Dante and the Animal Kingdom" (Macmillan). This is a study of curious interest, in which the author has endeavored to set forth Dante's whole philosophy of the animal kingdom, to show from what sources he derived his knowledge, and to what ends his knowledge was employed. The book is abundantly supplied with footnote references to sources, and with various bibliographical aids. There are many illustrations, several of which are from rare and quaint originals.

Some indication of the growth of traditional English forms of sport in the New World is afforded by the beautifully printed volume, "Cross Country with Horse and Hound," by Frank Sherman Peer (Scribners). It is said that this is the first book on the subject to be published in America. It includes full information on the breeding of hunters, good form in riding, and horsemanship in general. There are also suggestive chapters about hounds and the game itself. The illustrations are furnished by Mr. J. Crawford Wood, who is himself a well-known hunter in England.

"In God's Out-of-Doors," by William A. Quayle (Eaton & Mains), is the work of a man who frankly confesses that he is neither an entomologist, a botanist, nor an ornithologist. His pages are not burdened with the lore of the specialist, but the whole aim of his writing seems to be to get other people to rejoice as heartily in "God's out-of-doors" as he does himself. We should think that his mission would be successful. He has, at any rate, written an attractive book, and the pictures of natural scenery that accompany it are well calculated to win converts to his gospel of nature love.

A FEW VOLUMES OF TRAVEL, EXPLORATION, AND DESCRIPTION.

Some years ago, Mr. Carl Lumholtz attracted world-wide attention by the publication of his studies of certain cannibalistic tribes in Australia. So interested did he become in the study of savage and barbaric races that he has since determined to devote his life to investigations of this nature. The field of his later efforts in this direction is on our own continent, and two handsomely printed and illustrated volumes, entitled "Unknown Mexico" (Scribners), contain a record of five years of exploration among the tribes of the western Sierra Madre,

those in the states of Jalisco and Mexico, and among the Tarascos in the state of Michoacan. The funds necessary to carry on these explorations were chiefly raised by private subscription in the United States. The work was done under the auspices of the American Museum of Natural History of New York. Mr. Lumholtz was also accompanied by a staff of scientists and students, and the expedition made large collections of plants, animals, and birds. Much more was learned by Mr. Lumholtz regarding the people themselves and their native customs after the expedition had disbanded and while he remained alone among the Indian tribes. For months at a time Mr. Lumholtz "roughed it" among the Indians, gradually gaining their confidence, and after his stock of provisions gave out, subsisting on what he could get from them. Most of what Mr. Lumholtz tells in these volumes refers to a part of Mexico that is never visited by tourists, and is hardly known even to Mexicans themselves. These studies among a primitive people were not made a day too soon. The opportunity will soon have passed forever. Only a few such tribes are left on the American continents,—or, indeed, anywhere on the globe.

An admirable account of Chinese manners and customs, religions, language, literature, and methods of government is embraced in a little volume of lectures on "China and the Chinese" (Macmillan), by Dr. Herbert Allen Giles, professor of Chinese in the University of Cambridge, England, and lecturer on the Dean Lung foundation in Columbia University. While these lectures were delivered at Columbia University by the foremost European scholar of Chinese institutions, they were in no sense intended for advanced students, but rather to draw attention to and arouse interest in the subject. They are, therefore, of a strictly popular nature, and deal with such facts as are of interest to the general reader.

In a unique work entitled "Mythological Japan" (Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle), Alexander F. Otto and Theodore S. Holbrook present the mythological side of Japanese art, and, with the aid of a descriptive text and characteristic illustrations by native artists, attempt an interpretation of Japanese mythology. It is said that the originals of the illustrations, drawn by some of Japan's most famous artists, were over three years in preparation. The pages of this sumptuous book are embossed and folded double at the edge after the Japanese, while backgrounds and shadow tints appear throughout the book. There are full-page plates in color, and many lacquer panels of mythological subjects, besides reproductions in crayon of art objects in various collections. The authors have long been identified with the business of oriental importing, and are expert judges of Japanese works of art.

Gen. James F. Rusling has written an entertaining account of European travels, which is attractively illustrated from photographs, and published under the title "European Days and Ways" (Eaton & Mains).

A good survey of up-to-date Germany is contained in the volume entitled "Germany: the Welding of a World Power," by Wolf von Schierbrand, the well-known press correspondent (Doubleday, Page & Co.). The author treats of such topics as "Germany as a World Power," "The Kaiser as He Is," "The Socialist Movement," "The Polish Problem in Prussia," "The Agrarian Movement," "The Tariff Problem," "Krupp and Siemens," "Shipping," "Education," "Germany's Col-

onies," and many other aspects of modern Germany's social and industrial life.

Journeyings through the country of Donegal and Connemara are described in a little volume by Mr. S. G. Bayne, entitled "On An Irish Jaunting-Car" (Harpers). The work is chiefly notable for its brief descriptions of famous bits of Irish scenery, with excellent photographic illustrations, and for the insight that it affords into the every-day life of the natives.

"The Christmas Kalends of Provence," by Thomas A. Janvier (Harpers), gives an excellent account of the famous Christmas festivities in Provence, together with a sketch of "A Feast Day on the Rhone," and a description of the performance by the Comédie Française,—the finest dramatic company in Europe,—on the stage of the restored theater at Orange, in southeastern France. The restoration of this old Roman theater, founded in the time of Marcus Aurelius, is in itself a matter of the greatest dramatic interest. Mr. Janvier's description of the theater, and of the remarkable performances of "Oedipus" and "Antigone" on its stage, will do much, we have no doubt, to arouse the interest of American travelers in this remarkable enterprise.

In "Journeys with Dumas" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), Miss Katharine Prescott Wormeley has rendered from the French of Alexandre Dumas, the elder, certain characteristic passages of his Mediterranean travels, first published many years ago. Dumas began these journeys in 1834, and continued them in 1842 and 1846. Since those days the number of Mediterranean tourists has enormously increased. Much of the information that Dumas gathered with great pains and recorded in his journals is no longer new; but the narrative details and the anecdotes embodied in his original story are retained for their own sake.

"The Holy Land" (Macmillan) is a volume made up of descriptive text by the Rev. John Kelman, of Edinburgh, with reproductions of water-color sketches by John Fulleylove. Mr. Kelman has arranged his impressions in three parts: the geography, the history, and the spirit of Syria.

In "The Tragedy of Pelée" (the Outlook Company), Mr. George Kennan gives a narrative of personal observation and experiences in Martinique in the weeks immediately following the great eruption of May 8, 1902. Fortunately Mr. Kennan was able to see some of the subsequent eruptions and to explore the whole region in a characteristically thorough manner. His account is not at all lacking in local atmosphere.

In his "New York Sketches" (Scribners), Mr. Jessie Lynch Williams has hit upon more than one picturesque phase of the American metropolis, notably in his chapter on "Rural New York City." Such features of modern New York existence as the village volunteer fire department, country crossroads store, and the shooting of wild game are vividly described. Drawings and photographs illustrate the text.

The task of identifying the homes and haunts of the characters in Boston fiction has been undertaken by Frances Weston Carruth in a volume entitled "Fictional Rambles in and About Boston" (McClure, Phillips & Co.). This writer has arranged her material under three heads,—in "Modern Boston," "In Old Boston," and "About Boston." The volume is copiously illustrated.

Mr. Thomas Fleming's "Around the Capital with Uncle Hank" (New York: the Nutshell Publishing Company) is a humorous account of the visit of a shrewd

New England farmer to the halls of national legislation. Incidentally the buildings, statues, and other external features of the city of Washington are described, but the chief purpose of the book is the humorous portrayal of what the author terms the foibles and vagaries of public life at Washington.

BIOGRAPHIES AND MEMOIRS.

Among the autobiographies published in 1902, the first place must be given to "The Memoirs of Paul Krüger, Told by Himself" (Century Company), and "Three Years' War," by Christian Rudolf DeWet (Scribners). President Krüger's memoirs span three-quarters of a century, and relate practically the entire history of the Transvaal Republic. The account of the Boer War occupies only a small portion of the book, but the anterior causes of that struggle are set forth in detail and with surpassing clearness. Whatever may be our opinions as to the justice of the Boer cause, we cannot wonder, after reading this defense of his position, based on documentary evidence, at the support that President Krüger received from his own people, nor can we despise the patriotic motives that inspired their heroic resistance to the British power. General DeWet's book is of an entirely different character, and is nothing more nor less than a soldier's plain tale of fighting. In all that has been written about the war from first to last there has been nothing so interesting as this bluff soldier's story, nor have we before had so intimate and exact an account from within of the difficulties in which the Boers found themselves immediately after the outbreak of the war in 1899, and of the expedients that they were forced to adopt in order to prolong their resistance to an overwhelming force. General DeWet wastes no words in explanation or philosophizing; he writes only of what he saw himself, goes directly to the core of the matter, and, having told the facts, is content to leave the drawing of inferences to his readers.

"The Life and Letters of James Martineau," the great English Unitarian philosopher, have been written by Principle James Drummond, of Manchester College, Oxford (Dodd, Mead & Co.). This is the first authorized publication of Dr. Martineau's letters, many of which are of especial interest to American Unitarians, with whom Dr. Martineau was in close touch throughout his long life. In the second volume of the work there is a survey of Martineau's philosophical work by Prof. C. B. Upton.

Probably the name of no American of this generation, excepting that of President Roosevelt, is at the present time more frequently met with in the public prints than that of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. A brief and readable character sketch of the great philanthropist, in which should be told the story of the man's life and achievements, has long been in demand. The volume by Barnard Alderson, entitled "Andrew Carnegie: the Man and His Work" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), seems fully to meet these requirements. Mr. Carnegie's rapid rise from poverty to riches, his determined conquering of difficulties, and, finally, his vast schemes for the benefaction of his race, are tersely and graphically described.

A book of special interest to all who study or practice phonography is "Sir Isaac Pitman: His Life and Labors," told and illustrated by Benn Pitman (Cincinnati: the Phonographic Institute Company). The story of Sir Isaac Pitman's life is really the story of the rise of phonography in Great Britain. It has been said that

Sir Isaac Pitman, together with Edison and Bell, are the only inventors of a world-wide necessity that have ever lived to see the whole English-speaking world adopt their inventions. The obstacles that were placed in the way of the development of phonography were many, but the inventor lived to triumph over them all.

"Builders of the Republic" is the title of an attractively printed volume in which the careers of twenty-five great Americans, including Washington, Franklin, Jefferson, Hamilton, Jay, Hancock, Adams, Gerry, Madison, Marshall, and Lincoln, are sketched by Margherita Arlina Hamm (New York: James Pott & Co.). Letters and other documentary materials have been freely drawn upon for facts in the lives of these illustrious Americans.

Among the public men of New Hampshire of the last century the late Moody Currier was one of the most distinguished. A graduate at Dartmouth College and a lawyer of distinction, he was a member of the State Legislature in the fifties, held other State offices, and when nearly eighty years of age was elected governor. In his early life Governor Currier wrote poems and articles for the magazines and newspapers, and was familiar with most of the modern European languages. Since his death his "State Papers, Addresses, and Poems" have been published (Manchester, N. H.: John B. Clarke Company). Governor Currier died in 1898, at the advanced age of ninety-two.

Two noteworthy additions to the "American Men of Letters" series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) are "Henry Wadsworth Longfellow," by Thomas Wentworth Higginson, and "Nathaniel Hawthorne," by George E. Woodberry. It could not have been with the hope of throwing much new light on the careers of men about whom so much had already been written that these biographies were undertaken. One thing that the early biographers could not do was to form anything like an adequate forecast of the place that each writer is likely to take in American letters. Almost forty years has now passed since Hawthorne's death, and more than twenty years since Longfellow's. It is possible now, as never before, to determine, in the work of each man, that which is truly distinctive and vital. This is what the present biographers have attempted to do. We are indebted to them for judicious and well-proportioned estimates of their respective subjects.

HISTORICAL WORKS.

"The Cambridge Modern History" (Macmillan) was projected by the late Lord Acton. The scheme of the work contemplated the publication of twelve volumes dealing with the history of Europe and European colonies from the fifteenth century to the present time, each volume to be made up of monographs by specialists. The first volume, devoted to the Renaissance, has recently come from the press. The writers, nearly all of whom are among the most eminent of English historical students, have not been held to arbitrary limitations. Each has written on the period, country, or subject with which he was most familiar. The Roman Catholic prelate and theologian, the Rev. William Barry, D.D., has contributed a chapter on "Catholic Europe," and it is a matter of especial interest to Americans that the historian selected to write on "The Eve of the Reformation" is Mr. Henry Charles Lea, of Philadelphia, perhaps the greatest living authority on that period of European history.

The two-volume history of "The Reign of Queen

Anne," by Justin McCarthy (Harpers) has the flavor of all of Mr. McCarthy's historical writing. It is the vivacious story-telling of a clever *raconteur*,—never prolix, never dull. No matter what the period of which he chances to be writing, Mr. McCarthy is never for one moment diverted from his journalistic scent of the interesting. More profound students of English history there undoubtedly have been; but no one of them has been able to interpret more acceptably to his own generation the records of the past than the brilliant author of "A History of Our Own Times."

Mr. Irving B. Richman's two-volume account of "Rhode Island: Its Making and Its Meaning" (Putnam's) is a contribution to our national history. Absolute freedom of conscience in matters of religion and complete individualism in political action were the two principles for which Roger Williams stood in the founding of his new commonwealth. But for these principles the early growth of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations would have no special meaning in American history, nor should we at this day be greatly concerned with the records of such a State. The enunciation of those principles made Williams and his little colony illustrious. It is this that lifts the annals of Rhode Island out of the regular category of colonial histories. Mr. Richman has more to tell than the mere story of an English colonial settlement, and the significance of his theme grows on the reader as his work is studied. An appreciative introduction is contributed by that sympathetic student of American institutions, Mr. Bryce.

Mr. Sydney George Fisher's "True History of the American Revolution" (Lippincott) presents the subject in a new aspect. A distinctive feature of his book as compared with earlier histories of the Revolution is the importance that he assigns to the controversy over the conduct of General Howe in his attempts to suppress the rebellion, and Howe's relation to the Whig party. Mr. Fisher, too, has made a serious attempt to deal justly with the large element in the American population of 1776 known as the Tories, or Loyalists. He endeavors to describe these people from their own point of view, giving the arguments, facts, principles, and feelings which they used in their pamphlets and documents. He shows that they were far more numerous than is generally supposed. All of Mr. Fisher's work is based upon the original sources of history, and even in the scheme of illustration fidelity to contemporary records, maps, and engravings is a marked trait.

Another book which throws new light on at least one aspect of the Revolution is Mr. Claude Halstead Van Tyne's "The Loyalists in the American Revolution" (Macmillan). Mr. Van Tyne has based his work upon a careful examination of the laws of each of the thirteen colonies during the whole period of the Revolution. Not content, however, with the study of the laws themselves, Mr. Van Tyne has consulted the newspapers of the time, the letters and journals of the Loyalists themselves, and many other contemporary sources. The treatment of the Loyalists in many of the States was far more brutal than has commonly been admitted by American historians. Mr. Van Tyne feels warranted in heading one of his chapters with the modern phrase: "Reconcentration Camps."

In the December number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS we noticed two new books dealing with the American merchant marine. These have been followed by a volume entitled "American Navigation: the Political History of Its Rise and Ruin, and the Proper Means for Its

Encouragement," by William W. Bates (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This work will be found extremely useful as a convenient *résumé* of the early American shipping policy and its results. The author was formerly United States Commissioner of Navigation, and has written many books and articles on shipping.

Mr. Alpheus H. Snow has written a scholarly treatise on "The Administration of Dependencies" (Putnam's). This work has been written with special reference to American colonial problems. Starting with the clause in the Constitution of the United States by which Congress is given power "to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States," Mr. Snow has made a careful examination of the theory and practice of the administration of the American colonies from their inception in 1584, and has arrived at the conclusion that the clause in question was intended to express the true principles of the administration of dependencies as they were believed to be at the close of the American Revolution. He has also examined the British and European theory and practice from the adoption of the Constitution until the present time, and from the principles of administration thus discovered he has built up a theory of what he terms the federal empire, a form of political organism which he declares was more clearly understood by our Revolutionary leaders than by any other statesmen before or since their time. The term "federal empire" used by Mr. Snow, while to many readers it may seem an un-American phrase, is intended to include the state and its dependencies without regard to the nature of the bonds between them. However distasteful the phrase itself may be, it is made apparent by Mr. Snow's researches that the thing itself was clearly in the minds of the founders of our government.

BOOKS DEALING WITH RELIGIOUS PROBLEMS.

A fresh treatment of an old theme is to be found in "The Quest of Happiness," by the Rev. Dr. Newell Dwight Hillis (Macmillan). It is not often that this aspect of the religious life is presented in so concrete and simple a form of statement as that chosen by Dr. Hillis. The use of the parable as a medium of instruction gives variety to the literary structure of the book and should be an effective aid in securing attention to the message.

Mr. Ernest Hamlin Abbott's volume on "Religious Life in America" (New York: the Outlook Company), contains the record of the author's personal observation of conditions in eighteen States of the Union during the year 1901. Mr. Abbott has grouped his materials under such chapter-headings as "The Workingman and the Church," "The Church and the Workingman," "Religious Tendencies of the Negro," "New Tendencies in the Old South," "The Revolt against Convention," and "New Sects and Old." Religious conditions in New England, the South, and the middle West are described with especial thoroughness and candor.

In a volume entitled "Training the Church of the Future" (Funk & Wagnalls Company), the Rev. Francis E. Clark, D.D., founder of the Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor, sets forth what he terms the principles of Christian nurture as they are related to the modern young people's movement. The general reader will be interested in some of the historical materials collected by Dr. Clark in this volume, especially the account of the early New England movement on very

similar lines to those followed almost two hundred years later in the organization of the Christian Endeavor Society in Dr. Clark's church, at Portland, Me.

"The Price of Africa" (Eaton & Mains) is a little book compiled by Mr. S. Earl Taylor, for the use of mission-study classes in the United Society of Christian Endeavor and the Epworth League. It contains full accounts of the missionary labors of David Livingstone, Adolphus C. Good, Alexander M. Mackay, and Melville B. Cox. As one of these four men who died in Africa was an explorer, one a mechanical engineer, and the other two evangelists, the various types of missionary endeavor are well represented in the work of each. Two of the number were laymen and two were ministers.

A good illustration of the modern invasion of the theological seminary by the spirit of scientific discovery and method is offered in the volume on "Primitive Semitic Religion To-day," by Prof. Samuel Ives Curtiss, of Chicago Theological Seminary (Revell). In his study of Semitic institutions, Professor Curtiss was not content until he had gone as far as it was possible to go in the direction of the original sources of information. He made long journeys through Syria, Palestine, Egypt, and the Sinaitic Peninsula, with the purpose of discovering from personal interviews with natives, who would not come in contact with European civilization, and who were but slightly influenced by Mohammedanism, what was the primitive religion of the ancient Semites. Many of the facts thus secured, while perhaps not in themselves original discoveries, certainly have a new meaning as collected by Professor Curtiss in this volume. Not the least interesting feature of the work is the revelation which the author makes of his methods of research. Professor Curtiss has made an important contribution to our knowledge of primitive religion.

A striking object lesson in the new methods of Biblical criticism is Dr. Benjamin W. Bacon's little book on "The Sermon on the Mount: Its Literary Structure and Didactic Purpose" (Macmillan). This work, the nucleus of which was a lecture delivered at Wellesley College, may even be said to constitute a text-book of the higher criticism, not as a statement of theory, but as an effective presentation of methods and results. Students will, of course, differ as to the value of the new readings given to the Scripture passages which are treated in this lecture, but the book derives its chief importance, in our opinion, from the exhibition that it makes of the purpose, limitations, and results of the so-called higher criticism.

MORE BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG.

In addition to the "juveniles" mentioned in the December REVIEW OF REVIEWS, many other attractive books of this class have recently come to hand.

John Habberton's "The Tiger and the Insect" (R. H. Russell), like Riley's "Joyous Children," and Howells' "Pony Baker," belongs to the category of books about children rather than to that of books for children. That the author of "Helen's Babies" has not lost his cunning as a literary artist, though almost a quarter of a century has elapsed since the former volume appeared, will be deduced from the clever word pictures of maternal or child life, or of New York manners and customs, in which this book abounds.

Charles Major, in writing "The Bears of Blue River" (Macmillan Company), tells the adventures of an Indiana

lad, "away back in the twenties," with the same cocksure knowledge of rough pioneer days in the Middle West that Howells displays in his "Pony Baker." In directness Mr. Major's clear narrative resembles the style of Mr. Howells, though he does not condense, nor illuminate, his text with as graceful humor as does Howells. The illustrations by A. B. Frost in this volume are executed with the artist's usual appreciation of the relative "value" of nature's colors. Especially correct in "color values" is the picture of a bear at the foot of a beech tree, facing page 160.

Such minutiae as the following gives a boy reader of "The Bale Marked Circle X," by George Cary Eggleston (Lothrop), a semblance of strict veracity that is always an ideal charm for juvenile stories: "Three chevrons and the three semicircular bars of red that adorned his arms;"—"As soon as he received his orders, his passport, and his transportation certificates, he betook himself to the nearest commissary's office and drew the supply of cooked rations to which, under his rules, he was entitled;"—"Perhaps the reason" (that a sentry's gun did not discharge) "was that Max Voxetter was at that moment holding the sentry's percussion cap . . . and no gun in that day ever thought of going off without the explosion of a percussion cap on the initiatory nippie of it."

Another story of the Western Plains is "Far Past the Frontier, or Two Boy Pioneers," by James A. Braden, illustrated by W. H. Fry (Saalfeld Publishing Company). Escaping convicts and fights with pirates and cannibals make up a rather direful melange in "Rescued by a Prince," by Clement Eldridge (Saalfeld Publishing Company).

"Little Miss Muffit's Christmas Party," by Samuel McChord Crothers (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), has a picture, though not of the best, on nearly every page, and contains mention of the time-honored characters of child fiction, "Baron Munchausen," "Sanford and Merton," "Rosamond," of the Purple Jar, "Aladdin," and the like, and it even brings us to so late a date as to mention the characters of Uncle Remus, Ernest Thompson-Seton, Kipling, and Eugene Field.

For very little folks we have books with attractive covers and large type like "Mary Had a Little Lamb," by "Fanny M. Dickerson, and Mary Herself," illustrated by H. Alvin Owen (Frederick A. Stokes).

"Grimm Tales Made Gay," by Guy Wetmore Carryl, illustrated by Albert Levering (Houghton, Mifflin Company), though containing parodies on familiar nursery rhymes, is rather keyed up to the comprehension of the adult. Mr. Carryl's verse is quite equal to that of W. S. Gilbert. He is certainly a felicitous wordsmith, as will be seen by this excerpt from

HOW THE HELPMATE OF BLUEBEARD MADE FREE WITH A DOOR.

This damsel disobedient
Did something inexpedient,
And in the keyhole tiny
Turned the shiny
Little key.

Then started back impulsively,
And shrieked aloud convulsively—
Three heads of girls he'd wedded
And beheaded
Met her eye!

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Australia: A Paradise of Labor, T. Minelli, RasN, November.
Australia, Naval Policy for, J. Biddlecombe, USM.
Autograph Hunter, The, H. Furniss, Str.
Automobile: The Twentieth Century Runabout, E. Claver-ing, Mun.
Aztecs of Yesterday and To-day, A. Hrdlicka, Harp.
Bach's Organ Works, Registration of, F. Peterson, Mus, No-
vember.
Bacon-Shakespeare Question, K. Blind, Deut, November.
Baer, George Frederick, W. C. Hollister, Cos.
Bailey, James Anthony, W. Allen, Cos.
Baldwin's Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology, W. H. Davis, EdR.
Bank, National, of India, BankL.
Bank, National, Responsibility of the, in the Present Crisis, A. S. Bolles, Annals, November.
Bank, Practical Work of a, BankNY, November.
Banker, Investment, as an Educator, G. Carey, Gunt.
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Banking: How Note Issues are Regulated, F. E. Steele, BankL.
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Belgian Colonization in the 18th Century, B. de Borchgrave, RGen.
Belgium and France, A. Le Clercq, RGen.
Bible, English, Study of the, E. H. Knight, Hart, November.
Birds: A Skimmer of the Seas, F. M. Chapman, CLA.
Birds, Garden, Taming of, F. Irwin, PMM.
Birds, Shakespeare's Use of, A. King, Can.
Birds, Young: Their Condition at Birth, W. P. Pycraft, PopS.
Biography, Some Recent Literary, W. H. Johnson, Crit.
Björnson, Björnstjerne, Work of, Dial, December 1.
Blackmore, Richard Doddridge, Letters of, Scrib.
Bonds of American Corporations, WW.
Book-Plates, Children's, Zella A. Dixon, Out.
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Brazil, Public Affairs in, G. Chamberlain, Atlant.
Broncho-Busting: An American Sport, A. Chapman, O.
Brown, George Douglas, A. Melrose, Bkman.
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Bull-Fighting, Gentle Art of, R. H. Davis, Scrib.
Butler, Nicholas Murray, S. E. Moffett, Cos.
Burma: The Little Widows of a Dynasty, Mrs. E. Cotes, Harp.
Buzzards, The, C. A. Lyman, O.
Caber, Tossing the, M. Tindal, Pear.
Calcutta, Siege of, Black.
Canada and Imperial Ignorance, W. B. Thomas, MonR.
Canada: Eastern Townships, a Scion of New England, NEng.
Canada, Foreign Invasion of, A. S. Hurd, Fort.
Canada: Something of the French-Canadian, T. C. L. Ketchum, AngA.
Cathedrals, Seven New, H. P. Philpott, PMM.
Catholic Novel, The Basis of, a Rose F. Egans, Cath.
Catholicism versus Ultramontaniam, Contem.
Cattle Range, The War for the, C. Michelson, Mun.
Chamberlain, Right Hon. Joseph, N. M. Marria, Pear.
Chaucer, The Grave of, J. W. Hales, BL.
Child Labor, Evil of, F. Adler, SocS.
Child, Religious Training of the, G. W. Pease, Hart, No-
vember.
China, Filial Piety in, P. Carus, OC.
Chinese Conveyancing, J. D. S. Cook, ALR.
Chinese Dislike of Christianity, F. H. Nichols, Atlant.
Chinese Law, Landmarks of—III., V. V. Beede, GBag.
Christ, Perfectness of, A. B. Curtis, Mind.
Christian Science and Mortal Mind, Mrs. Stobart, Fort.
Christian Science Fallacies, Some, E. J. Francis, AngA.
Christian Science, "Mark Twain," NAR.
Christian Nation? Is This a, R. M. Patterson, Hom.
Christmas? Are We Fair to Our Children at, E. Bok, LHJ.
Christmas at Gadshill, P. Fitzgerald, BL.
Christmas Customs, Old English, A. W. Jarvis, PMM.
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Chulalongkorn I., King of Siam ("The Statesman of Asia"), J. Barrett, Mun.
Church, Country, Civic Function of the, G. Taylor, Chaut.
Church, Maintenance of Discipline in the, J. A. Anderson, MRN.

- Cities, American, Home Rule for, E. P. Oberholtzer, Int.
City Children, Fresh Air Outings for ("The Christmas Spirit in Summer"), J. S. Metcalfe, CLA.
City, The Plan of, J. Schopfer, Arch.
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Coal Mines, A Word More as to the, H. W. Chaplin, GBag.
Coal Strike, J. B. Bishop, Int.; J. Mitchell, McCL.
Collectivist Tendencies, A. Frins, RDM, November 1.
Compass, Modern, Interior of the, F. Forener, NA, November 1.
Composer, The American, H. Norris, Mus, November.
Comstock Mine and Its Great Bonanza, S. E. Moffett, Cos.
Concentration, Bishop John H. Vincent on, Kind.
Conscience, Evolution of, as a Phase of Sociology, W. L. Sheldon, AJS, November.
Coöperative Association of America, H. Vrooman, Arena.
Copyright of a Map or Chart, W. A. Miller, NatGM.
Cost Keeping for Small Shops, H. L. Arnold, Eng.
Credit, Expansion of, in the United States, F. A. Vanderlip, BankNY, November.
Cremation of the Dead in Cities, L. Windmüller, MunA.
Crime, The Fight with, A. Raffalovich, Nou, November 15.
Crimes and the Caucasus, G. F. Wright, Chaut.
Criminal Reform, Science and, W. H. Champness, West.
Criminals of Genius: Why They Have No Type, C. Lombroso, Int.
Cromwell, Oliver, and His Government of "Saints," A. Filon, RDM, November 15.
Cuba, Situation in, M. Wilcox, NAR.
Dante's "Divine Comedy," Educational Elements in—II., Vida D. Scudder, KindR.
Davis, Stanton Kirkham, C. B. Patterson, Mind.
Democracy, A Study in, Mrs. J. D. Hammond, MRN.
Dickens, Charles, New Biography of, T. de Wyzewa, RDM, November 15.
Dinners of Fifty Years Ago, Mrs. E. S. Bladen, Lipp.
Diplomacy, American, New Departure in, W. M. Abell, Gunt.
Disraeli, Benjamin, Earl of Beaconsfield, G. S. Hellman, Bkman.
Drama in Italy, E. A. Butti, NA, November 1.
Drama of the Future, O. Crawford, NineC.
Drama in Spain, B. Matthews, Int.
Drift Line, Microcosm of the, Laetitia M. Snow, ANat, November.
Dual Alliance, Possible Addition to the, D. C. Boulger, NineC.
Duelling, Italy and the International Movement Against, F. Crispolti, NA, November 1.
Dufferin, Lord: A Reminiscence of His Viceroyalty, E. Colen, NatR.
Dumas, Alexandre, Père, G. B. Ives, Atlant.
Dryden, John Fairfield, J. H. Bridge, Cos.
Edinburgh Review: Its Origin and Early Days, W. F. Gray, Gent.
Education: see also Kindergarten.
Army, Post-Graduate Instruction in the, W. H. Carter, EdR.
Coeducation, J. P. Garber, Ed.
Consolidation of Country Schools, F. Nelson and W. B. Shaw, AMRR.
Education as a Civilizing Power, C. E. Greenlee, Ed.
Geometry, Teaching of, G. B. Halsted, EdR.
Girl, Young, Education of the, H. Davignon, RGen.
Grammar, Scope and Method of—II., H. J. Davenport, Ed.
High School Growth, Ten Years of, W. A. Wetzel, EdR.
History, Teaching of, F. F. Brentano, Refs, November 15.
Lecture, Dangers and Uses of the, F. H. Pratt, EdR.
Manual Training in Germany, H. E. Kock, Ed.
Needs of American Public Education, C. W. Elliot, WW.
Negro School, An Alabama, O. G. Villard, AMRR.
Nervous System, Physiology of the, in Childhood, as Related to Education, E. A. Kirkpatrick, Ed.
Professional Schools and the American College, N. M. Butler, EdR.
Public Schools: Are They a Failure? P. de Coubertin, Fort.
School Rooms and School Methods, G. H. Knight, Ed.
Suggestion in Education, F. Regnault, Revue, December 1.
Women, Higher Education of, D. S. Jordan, PopS.
Edward VII., King, at Home, E. M. Jessop, PMM.
Eggleston, Edward, M. Nicholson, Atlant.
Electrical Supply, Water Power in, A. D. Adams, CasM.
Electricity as a Motive Power on Trunk Lines, C. Vanderbilt, NAR.
Electricity in Modern Steel Making, J. H. Smith, Eng.
Engineer as Financier, R. H. Thurston, CasM.
England: See Great Britain.
English Life in the Twelfth and Thirteenth Centuries, W. Seton, Cath.
English, Pronunciation of, Changes in, C. L. Eastlake, NineC.
Environment, Control of Life Through, G. E. Dawson, Hart, November.
Exports and Imports: Their Progress and Importance, BankL.
Exposition in Writing, B. A. Heydrick, Chaut.
Falconry, G. Lascelles, Bad.
Fiction, French, Marriage and Maternity in, H. Béranger, Revue, November 15.
Finance, State, A Study in, C. S. Potts, Annals, November.
Financial Situation, Conservative Word of Warning Regarding the, F. A. Vanderlip, WW.
Fireside, Winter, R. C. Spencer, Jr., CLA.
Florida Home at Christmas Time, A. T. L. Mead, CLA.
Foundry Management in the New Century, R. Buchanan, Eng.
Fowl, Wild: Where They Breed, A. H. Higginson, O.
France:
Anti-Alcoholism in the Army, H. de Malleray, BU, November.
Anti-Clerical Politics and Socialism, E. Berth, RSoc, November.
Brittany, Recent Evictions in, Comtesse de Courson, Cath.
Brittany, Summer Days in, J. Quigley, Gent.
Colonial Relations of France, J. Gielze, Nou, November 1.
Contemporary France, H. Frimault, RGen.
Corruption in French Institutions, H. Joly, Refs, November 1.
Depopulation in France, H. Clément, Refs, November 1.
England, France and, J. Finot, Revue, November 1 and 15.
France of Yesterday, 1871-1873, A. Bertrand, BU, November.
French Language, Etymological Science and the, A. Thomas, RDM, December 1.
Games of Old France, L. F. Sauvage, Nou, November 15.
Imperial Guard, H. C. de St. Chamant, Nou, November 15.
Lorraine, Loss of, Revue, December 1.
Louis XVI. and the Days of October 1789, A. de Maricourt, Revue, November 1.
Miner, Condition of the, E. Laut, Nou, November 1.
Naval Manoeuvres of 1902, RPar, November 1.
Politico-Religious Crisis, Prelates on the, M. A. Gerthwohl, MonR.
Schools, Rural, Anna T. Smith, EdR.
Siam, France and, M. de Villers, RDM, November 1;
V. Bérard, RPar, November 15; RPP, November.
Furness, Horace Howard, T. Williams, Out.
Garden City Movement, Annie L. Diggs, Arena.
German Empire, Formation of the, R. Bienerhassett, NatR.
German Navy, British Admiralty and the, NatR.
Gold Mining in Egypt, C. J. Alford, CasM.
Golfers, American and English Women as, Frances C. Griscom, O.
Gospel, On Preaching and Reading the, S. Bancroft, Fort.
Grant, Gen. Ulysses S.: Was He of Scotch Descent? J. P. Lamberton, Era.
Great Britain: see also South Africa.
Admiralty and the German Navy, NatR.
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Army Training and the Auxiliary Forces, R. A. Johnson, Fort.
Chamberlain, Joseph, and Mr. Krüger, W. T. Stead, RRL.
Colonies and the Navy at the Conference, L. H. Hordern, USM.
Corn Laws, Real Object of, G. L. Molesworth, NineC.
Debt, Public, of Great Britain, BankNY, November.
Education Bill, Progress of the, J. A. Spender, Contem.
Education Question and the Teaching Profession, West.
England, Russia and Tibet, A. Ular, Contem.
"Fourth Party," Story of the—II., H. E. Gorst, NineC.
Imperial Defense and Imperial Responsibilities, T. B. Strange, USM.
Ireland: Why She Is Disloyal, M. McD. Bodkin, Fort.
Liberal Party Débatle, J. G. Godard, West.
Literary Movement in England, J. Jusseau, Revue, November 1.
Medical Organization in War, W. Hill-Climo, USM.
Navy, Police Work of the, W. J. Fletcher, Corn.
Navy, Training of Landsmen for the, W. F. Fullam, USM.
Party System of the Future, Mac.
Recruiting for the Army, Lord Monkswell, USM.
Savings Banks, Parliament and the, G. W. Boag, West.
Schools, Public, as a Public Peril, O. Lodge, NineC.
South African War, Financing of the, F. R. Fairchild, Annals, November.
Subsidies, British, and American Shipping, C. H. Cramp, NAR.
Grillparzer: Poet and Musician—II., Mus, November
Griscom, Clement A., L. Perry, WW.
Grouse, Glance at the, E. Sandys, O.
Hawaiian People, Causes of the Decrease of the, W. B. Elkin, AJS, November.
Heat, Motive Power of, C. K. Edmunds, PopS.
Hegan, Alice Caldwell, W. F. Dix, Out.
Heridity, Health and Morals, W. J. Colville, Mind.
Heridity, Mental and Moral, in Royalty—IV., F. A. Woods, PopS.
Heroism in Every-day Life, S. W. Mitchell, Cent.
Hewitt: Abram Stevens: A Grand Old Man of New York, R. H. Titherington, Mun.
History and Biography, G. McL. Harper, BB.
Holland and Belgium and the Dual Alliance, D. C. Boulger, NineC.
Holmes, Oliver Wendell: His Place in American Literature, E. W. Bowen, MRN.
Horseback, The American Man on, L. Steffens, McCL.

- Household Economics and City Problems, Bertha M. Terrill, Hart, November.
- Housing Problem:
- Coöperative Housing, H. W. Wolff, MunaA.
- Housing Problem: In the United States, R. Hunter; In England, P. Ashley, and L. Fisher; In Germany, W. B. Guthrie; In France, W. E. Hotchkiss, MunaA.
- Municipal Regulation—Not Ownership, R. W. De Forest, MunaA.
- Poorest, Housing for the, J. Mann, Jr., MunaA.
- Rapid Transit and the Housing Problem, A. F. Weber, MunaA.
- Reform Through Enlightened Management, Ellen Collins, MunaA.
- Socialism and Housing, J. Edwards, MunaA.
- Taxing Power and the Housing Problem, L. F. Post, MunaA.
- Hugo, Victor, Last Works of, P. Stapfer, BU, November.
- Humorous Books of the Season, Carolyn Wells, BB.
- Hunting the Big Game of Western Alaska, J. H. Kidder, O.
- Immunity to Disease, Natural and Artificial, V. C. Vaughan, San, November.
- Industrial Advancement of the United States, S. Kanner, SocS.
- Ingram, Arthur, Bishop of London, H. Begbie, PMM.
- Inquiry, Divine Method of, A. T. Burbridge, Bib.
- Inventors, Mechanical, of Lancashire, England, W. H. Bailey, CasM.
- Invertebrates, North-American—XII., H. S. Pratt, ANat, November.
- Ireland, Impressions of, W. Ellison, Ros.
- Ireland: Why She Is Disloyal, M. McD. Bodkin, Fort.
- Irrigationist's Point of View, E. Flower, Arena.
- Irving, Washington, The Country of, H. W. Mabie, Out.
- Israel, Composite Character of, W. M. Patton, Bib.
- Italy and the Church in the Holy Land, E. A. Fopert, RasN, November.
- Italy: The Synthesis of the Reign of Humbert I., P. Giacosa, RasN, November.
- Italy: Titian's Country, Margaret W. Higginson, NEng.
- Jamaica: Summering in Winter, L. de V. Matthewman, Era.
- Japan, New: The Schoolmaster of Asia, J. Barrett, AMRR.
- Jefferson's (Thomas) Great Day, A. H. Lewis, Ev.
- Jesuits and the Law in England, J. Gerard, NineC.
- John the Baptist, Testimony of, R. A. Falconer, Bib.
- Jordan River Between the Seas, J. L. Leeper, Bib.
- Journalism, Early American, W. T. Hale, MRN.
- Judicial Opinion, Evolution of the, E. McClain, ALR.
- Juvenile Literature, Higl. Tide in, T. Jenks, BB.
- Keller, Helen, E. E. Hale, Out.
- Kidd, Benjamin, A. Loria, NA, November 16.
- Kidd, Captain, The True, J. D. Champlin, Jr., Harp.
- Kindergarten:
- Building, Model, for Kindergarten Purposes, at Youngstown, Ohio, Mary S. Morgan, Kind.
- Christmas Work, Katherine Beebe, KindR.
- Cincinnati Mothers' Meetings, Annie Laws, Kind.
- Coeducation, Frau Henrietta Schrader Interprets Froebel on, Kind.
- Holidays, Observance of, Elsie L. Darling, KindR.
- King, Functions of the, in a Constitutional Monarchy, A. Posada, EM, November.
- Kipling, Rudyard, and the Children, Agnes D. Cameron, AngA.
- Kitchener, Lord, Campaigning with, Black.
- Kosuth, Louis, S. Low, Corn.
- Labor Union Success, Essentials of, Gunt.
- Lacrosse in England, W. S. Rawson, Bad.
- La Fayette, General, Unpublished Letters of, Revue, December 1.
- Law, The Immutability of, J. S. Bryan, MRN.
- Lawn Tennis Lessons of the Year, J. P. Paret, O.
- Lear, King, A. C. Swinburne, Harp.
- Leo XIII., Character Study of, E. Trogan, RGen.
- Leo XIII.: His Enemies and Critics, D. J. MacMackin, Cath.
- Letter Writing, Art of, Zitella Cocke, NEng.
- Lewis and Clark, Expedition of, J. O. Pierce, Dial, December 16.
- Libraries, Famous District, in England, Cham.
- Library of Congress, Treasures of the—III., R. Bache, BL.
- Library, On Becoming Possessed of, J. A. Gibson, BL.
- Life, Chemical Basis of—III., N. C. Macnamara, West.
- Life, Control of, Through Environment, G. E. Dawson, Hart, November.
- Lindisfarne, England, The Saint of, Mary F. Nixon-Roulet, Cath.
- Liquefaction of Gases and Low Temperatures—II., J. Dewar, PopA.
- Locomotive Types of Great Britain, J. F. Gairns, CasM.
- London:
- Crowds, English, A. Chevrillon, RPar, December 1.
- Crown Estates in London, Cham.
- Locomotion, Tangle of, S. Low, NineC.
- London Bridge, W. Sidebotham, LeisH.
- Water Question, Financial Aspects of the, F. H. Kitchin, NatR.
- Lorenz, Dr. Adolf: His Mission to American Children, V. P. Gibney, AMRR.
- Louisiana Purchase Exposition, Work Preliminary to the, J. S. Crawford, Gunt.
- Louisiana Purchase, J. A. Foote, Ros.
- Lowell, James Russell, Poetry of, H. N. Snyder, MRN.
- Lubrication of Textile Mills, W. F. Parish, Jr., CasM.
- Luke, Medical Language of—II., R. J. Knowling, Bib, November.
- Lyric, The English, H. A. Beers, BL.
- McDonald, John B., the Builder of the New York Subway, R. Stevens, WW.
- Magi and Their Quest, Gabrielle M. Jacobs, Chaut.
- Magicians, Famous, Best Tricks of, Ruth Everett, Cos.
- Mahdi, The New, H. Le Roux, RPar, November 15.
- Mail Service, Railway, F. Crissey, WW.
- Malay Language, Cham.
- Man, More Life for, Caroline L. Hunt, Chaut.
- Mankind in the Making—IV., H. G. Wells, Cos; Fort.
- Marlowe, Julia, D. M. Halbert, FrL.
- Martineau, Harriet, Neglected Centenary of, C. E. Plumptre, West.
- Martinique and Atlantis, M. Dumoret, Nou, November 15.
- Medicine, Early Days of, in America, S. H. Carney, Mun.
- Mercantile Dominion of the Seas, L. Luzzatti, NA, November 1.
- Metallurgy, Industrial Organization in, C. Benoit, RDM, December 1.
- Mexico, Silver Basis in, E. C. Creel, BankNY, November.
- Mexico: The Miracle of the Batopilas Mines, S. G. Andrus, NatM.
- Milford and Hopedale, Massachusetts, L. G. Wilson, NEng.
- Mind, The Beginnings of, C. L. Morgan, Int.
- Minnesota Primary Election System, F. M. Anderson, Annals, November.
- Missions:
- Bible, Place of the, in Missions—II., F. F. Ellinwood, Hom.
- Buddhism, Confucianism, and Christianity, Concrete Comparison of, S. L. Gulick, MisH.
- Chenchou, China, Tragedy at, MisR.
- Chinese Dislike of Christianity, F. H. Nichols, Atlant.
- Christianity, Work of Missions Inseparable from, A. T. Pierson, MisR.
- Congregational Churches, Mission Study in the, MisH.
- Holy Land, Moslem Attitude in the, A. J. Brown, MisR.
- Japan, Religious Situation in, J. O. Spencer, MisR.
- Jews, Protestant Missions to the, L. Meyer, MisR.
- Manchuria, Recantations in, J. Ross, MisR.
- Palestine, Return of the Jews to, I. Zangwill, MisR.
- Paramecia, Rev. Moses P., of Trebizond, MisH.
- Results, Unpublished, of Missions, C. F. Reid, MisR.
- Sunday-School, Missions in the, Belle M. Brain, MisR.
- Yucatan, Story of, H. W. Brown, MisR.
- Mithraism and the Religions of the Empire, F. Cumont, OC.
- Monetary Crises, Study of, BankNY, November.
- Monetary Disturbance, Present: Is the United States Treasury Responsible for It? F. A. Cleveland, Annals, November.
- Moon and Its Seas, J. Franz, Deut, November.
- Mormons, The: A Successful Coöperative Society, G. Miller, WW.
- Mother: What She Can Do for Her Daughter, Lavinia Hart, Cos.
- Music and Culture, Dial, December 16.
- Music as a Factor in National Life, D. Bispham, NAR.
- Music, Chapter in the Evolution of, NatM.
- Musical Development, Bird's-Eye View of, E. Swayne, Mus, November.
- Musical Game, A. P. H. Goepf, Lipp.
- Music, Religious, C. Martens, RGen.
- Music: The Principles of Phrasing, W. S. B. Mathews, Mus, November.
- Napoleon and the Military Vocation, P. Conard, RPar, November 15.
- Napoleon Anniversary, A. Nou, November 1.
- National Antagonisms, an Illusion, J. Novicow, Int.
- Nature Books, E. Ingersoll, BB.
- Nature, Faith in, N. S. Shaler, Int.
- Naval Supremacy, America's Bid for, A. S. Hurd, NineC.
- Navy, New American, J. D. Long, Out.
- Negro Before the War, What We Did for the, F. Walton, MRN.
- Negro School, An Alabama, O. G. Villard, AMRR.
- Negro, Some Factors in the Rising of the, J. Jeffrey, OC.
- New York City, A Civic Center for, MunaA.
- New York, Day Nurseries of, Lillie H. French, Cent.
- Nile, Subduing the, C. Roberts, WW.
- Nitrogen-Fixing Bacteria, J. G. Lipman, PopS.
- Normandy, Winter Sport in, W. B. Dalley, Bad.
- Norris, Frank, F. T. Cooper, Bkman; W. D. Howells, NAR.
- North Sleswic Question, L. Warming, AJS, November.
- Norway, Fishing and Poaching in, J. L. Bevir, Bad.
- Novelist, Responsibilities of the, F. Norris, Crit.
- Novels, New, H. W. Mabie, BB.
- Novels of a Season, Out.
- Novel-Reading: Will It Cease? P. McEvoy, Can.

- Odell, Gov. Benjamin B., Jr.: A Character Sketch, R. H. Beattie, AMRR.
- Old Age Pensions, German, C. Le C. Grandmaison, RDM, November 15.
- Pagan, Why I Am a Zittkala-sa, Atlant.
- Paganism, Modern, West.
- Palota, Possibilities of the Game of, H. H. Lewis, Pear.
- Pamphlet and the Magazine Article, C. H. Shinn, BL.
- Panama Canal, and the Regulation of the Chagres River, H. L. Abbot, Eng.
- Paris, Streets of, A. Cohn, Cos.
- Parialism or Atavism, C. Lombroso and M. Nordau, Revue, November 15.
- Passion, Psychology of, C. Mélinand, Revue, November 15.
- Payment for Shares in Property, S. D. Thompson, ALR.
- Pendulum of the Pantheon, C. Flammarion, Revue, November 1.
- Persia, An Afternoon Call in, W. St. Clair-Tisdall, LelsH.
- Petroleum, American, Possibilities of, G. E. Walsh, CasM.
- Philadelphia in Fiction, C. Williams, Bkman.
- Philippines:
- Currency of the Islands, C. A. Conant, Annals, November.
 - Destiny of the Philippines, H. Clifford, Mac.
 - Friars in the Philippines, H. C. Stuntz, Hom.
 - Manila, The Belles of, Minna Irving, Era.
 - Soldiers: How They Have Ruled in the Philippines, D. H. Boughton, Int.
 - Tagalog Language, D. J. Doherty, EdR.
- Phipps, Henry, J. H. Bridge, Cos.
- Photography:
- Copying, A. D. Pretzl, WPM, November.
 - Copying and Enlarging, Daylight, A. G. Woodman, CDR.
 - Enlargements by Artificial Light, E. H. Williamson, Jr., CDR.
 - Flashlight Portraiture, F. Voltier, CDR.
 - Intensification, Local, WPM, November.
 - Monochrome, Finishing Prints in, WPM, November.
 - Platinum Prints, Modification of, C. Jones, WPM, November.
 - Printing Processes, Common, F. Leach, CDR.
 - Professional Photography, Some Aspects of, H. Farmer, WPM, November.
 - Sulphites in Photography, WPM, November.
 - Toning Bromide Prints, WPM, November.
- Pikington, George Lawrence, of Uganda, U. G. Foote, MRN.
- "Pious Fund" Arbitration, W. L. Penfield, NAR.
- Plant Growth, Stages in, J. A. Cushman, ANat, November.
- Poet? What Constitutes a, Marguerite Merington, NAR.
- Poet as a Teacher, E. Markham, Arena.
- Poetry, Current Neglect of, H. W. Boynton, Dial, December 1.
- Poetry, Recent, F. D. Sherman, BB.
- Poetry, War, of the Nineteenth Century, A. Livet, RSoc, November.
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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.	Edin. Edinburgh Review, London.	NC. New-Church Review, Boston.
AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y.	Ed. Education, Boston.	NEng. New England Magazine, Boston.
AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.	EdR. Educational Review, N. Y.	NineC. Nineteenth Century, London.
AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago.	Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y.	NAR. North American Review, N. Y.
ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis.	Era. Era, Philadelphia.	Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.	EM. España Moderna, Madrid.	NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome.
AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.	Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y.	OC. Open Court, Chicago.
ANat. American Naturalist, Boston.	Fort. Fortnightly Review, London.	O. Outlook, N. Y.
AngA. Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.	Forum. Forum, N. Y.	Out. Outlook, N. Y.
Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.	Frl. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.	OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal.
Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y.	Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London.	Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
Arena. Arena, N. Y.	GBag. Green Bag, Boston.	PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London.
AA. Art Amateur, N. Y.	Gunt. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.	Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
AI. Art Interchange, N. Y.	Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y.	Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y.
AJ. Art Journal, London.	Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn.	PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y.
Atlant. Atlantic Monthly, Boston.	Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y.	PL. Poet-Lore, Boston.
Bad. Badminton, London.	IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila.	PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London.	Int. International Quarterly, Burlington, Vt.	PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn.
BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.	IntS. International Studio, N. Y.	PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
Bib. Biblical World, Chicago.	JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.	PBR. Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila.
BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.	JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.	QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.	Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.	QR. Quarterly Review, London.
Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.	KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.	RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
BB. Book Buyer, N. Y.	LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.	RefS. Réforme Sociale, Paris.
BL. Book-Lover, N. Y.	LelsH. Leisure Hour, London.	RRL. Review of Reviews, London.
Bkman. Bookman, N. Y.	Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.	RKM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago.	LQ. London Quarterly Review, London.	Revue. Revue, La, Paris.
CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y.	Long. Longman's Magazine, London.	RDM. Revues des Deux Mondes, Paris.
Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto.	Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.	RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels.
Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London.	McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y.	RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris.
CasM. Cassell's Magazine, N. Y.	Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London.	RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
Cath. Catholic World, N. Y.	MA. Magazine of Art, London.	RSoc. Revue Socialiste, Paris.
Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y.	MRN. Methodist Review, Nashville.	Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
Cham. Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh.	MRNY. Methodist Review, N. Y.	San. Sanitarian, N. Y.
Chaut. Chautauquan, Chicago.	Mind. Mind, N. Y.	School. School Review, Chicago.
Contem. Contemporary Review, London.	MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston.	Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
Corn. Cornhill, London.	MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y.	SR. Sewanee Review, N. Y.
Col. Cosmopolitan, N. Y.	Mon. Monist, Chicago.	SocS. Social Service, N. Y.
CL. Country Life in America, N. Y.	MonR. Monthly Review, London.	Str. Strand Magazine, London.
Crit. Critic, N. Y.	MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y.	Temp. Temple Bar, London.
Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.	Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.	USM. United Service Magazine, London.
Dial. Dial, Chicago.	Mus. Music, Chicago.	West. Westminster Review, London.
Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin.	NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.	WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
	NatM. National Magazine, Boston.	WW. World's Work, N. Y.
	NatR. National Review, London.	Yale. Yale Review, New Haven.
		YM. Young Man, London.
		YW. Young Woman, London.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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LADY CURZON.

WIFE OF THE VICEROY AND GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA.

(Formerly Miss Mary Victoria Leiter, of Washington, who was a great personage at the recent durbar at Delhi.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

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No. 2.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Venezuela Affair. Last month's comments in this department of the REVIEW,—beginning with some retrospective summing up of the experiences and substantial achievements of the year 1902,—ended with an account of the joint naval expedition of England and Germany against Venezuela, and the happy decision, through the efforts of the United States, to settle the matters in dispute by arbitration. It was particularly desired by the German Emperor that President Roosevelt should himself act as arbitrator, and this choice was equally agreeable to England, Italy, and the several other European claimants, while, on the other hand, the proposal was also strongly favored by Venezuela. If no other plan had been available, President Roosevelt would, of course, have consented to act.

But to him and his official advisers at Washington, this case seemed eminently adapted for reference to the tribunal which the European powers themselves had so recently established, with headquarters at The Hague, for the legal and just settlement of precisely such claims and disputes. The English Government readily accepted this view when presented by our State Department, as also did the Italian foreign office. The German Government was more reluctant, but was willing to allow the controversy with Venezuela to go to The Hague for settlement after agreement upon certain preliminary conditions. The principle laid down by the United States that in no case should Venezuela be required to surrender any territory in consideration of European claims was fully accepted by Germany and the other plaintiff governments.



THE INTERNATIONAL ALPHONSE AND GASTON.

ALPHONSE ROOSEVELT: "You arbitrate it, my dear Gaston."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

Meanwhile, the blockade of Venezuela by the warships of the European allies had continued; and inasmuch as our government, as the chief neutral power affected, had refused to admit that there could be such a thing as a pacific blockade, the situation had involved, in a technical sense, a state of warfare. This position having been assumed in a formal way, it did not seem fitting to Germany and England that it should be receded from until there had been a definite agreement made,—either for direct settlement of claims, or else for arbitration. In order to reach such an agreement, a conference between commissioners was necessary, and it was arranged that this should meet at Washington. On behalf of the European powers, their ambassadors to the United States were authorized to act in this capacity; and Venezuela, instead of selecting one of her own diplomats, chose to commission Mr. Herbert W. Bowen, the American minister at Caracas, to act for her with full powers. Mr. Bowen, accordingly, sailed from La Guayra on the *Dolphin*, of the United States navy, on January 11, and



From the New York Independent.

PRESIDENT CASTRO AND MINISTER BOWEN.

was landed at Charleston, reaching Washington on the 20th. He came with strong hope of being able to effect a settlement by direct negotiation with the European commissioners, thus obviating the necessity of an elaborate and protracted trial of the case, or, rather, the series of cases, before a court of arbitration.

There were many good reasons for believing that such a settlement would be greatly preferred by the German Government, which was reluctant to establish the precedent of allowing its claims to be submitted to an international tribunal of jurists like the Hague court. To the German Emperor, with his views of sovereignty, it would naturally be more agreeable to refer a question at issue to the personal head of a neutral state rather than to a standing board of international law experts. Undoubtedly, Emperor William and the Berlin authorities were deeply disappointed at the failure of their proposal that President Roosevelt should take the whole business in hand, consider principles and facts together, and make a quick, clear decision in his characteristic way. And certainly, from several

points of view, there was much to be said in favor of such a method. The skillful diplomacy at Washington which first resulted in the acceptance by everybody of the principle of arbitration, and then succeeded in getting the Hague tribunal substituted for President Roosevelt as arbitrator, was followed by the prompt recall of the distinguished German ambassador, Dr. von Holleben, at the Emperor's behest.

It was, indeed, announced that this was due to a serious impairment of Dr. von Holleben's health; but since no such unfortunate condition was known to those in daily association at Washington with the genial ambassador, who seemed to be enjoying his usual excellent health, it was natural that other reasons should be guessed at. The true cause of the ambassador's recall seems to have been his failure to bring to pass a solution that had been wished for at Berlin. Undoubtedly, Dr. von Holleben had faithfully informed the imperial government of the strong feeling in the United States against the naval expedition of the European allies, and in favor of the settlement of the Venezuelan matter by reference to a court of arbitration. It was further reported that the opinion prevailed at the German court that Baron Speck von Sternberg, who was ordered to proceed at once to the United States as a special commissioner in this Venezuelan



BARON VON HOLLEBEN.

matter and was appointed to remain as German ambassador, would be a more popular and influential figure at Washington than Dr. von Holleben. That, of course, remains to be seen.

The New Ambassador. For many years, Baron Speck von Sternberg was connected with the German legation and embassy at Washington. He also married an American wife, and already possesses many friends and ample popularity in America. It is proclaimed that it will be his special mission to maintain the best of relations between the two countries,—a sort of relationship that was emphasized by the visit of Prince Henry. The English have sent a gallant and interesting representative in the person of Sir Michael Herbert, who also is married to a charming American wife, and the French Republic is sending to Washington a very brilliant diplomat of the younger school, M. Jusserand, who is an authoritative student of English and American literature, and, like his ambassadorial colleagues, is, so to speak, a connection of ours by marriage.

Washington as an International Center. Europe recognizes the fact that, as in the world of industry and commerce, so also in politics and statecraft, the United States has now a far larger part to play



BARON SPECK VON STERNBERG.
(German ambassador at Washington.)

than at any former time. Washington is, therefore, looked upon by the European chancelleries and the diplomatic experts in a way very different from that with which they regarded it a few years ago. A mark of this change is the recent action of the Austrian Government in advancing the rank of its representative at Washington from that of minister to ambassador, this being followed by a similar action on the part of the United States. The most conspicuous fact in our diplomatic situation is the undoubted desire of the chief nations of Europe to maintain the most cordial and friendly relations with our government. It was, of course, a studied and deliberate expression of sentiment on the part of the German Government that was contained in the statement of Baron Speck von Sternberg transmitted from Berlin by the Associated Press on January 15, but it was none the less sincere for all that. This statement expressed the enthusiastic desire of the German Emperor to maintain and extend the friendship between Germany and the United States.

Among many other frank and pleasant things, the baron said :
Von Sternberg's Pleasant Sentiments.

His majesty has been pleased to commit to my care one of the dearest objects of his external policy,—that of extending our friendship with the United States. This is for me a delightful work. The circumstances of each country place it beyond the jealousy and



Photo by "Dinst," Washington.

MR. L. HENGELMÜLLER VON HENGERVAR AND WIFE.
(The Austro-Hungarian representative at Washington has now been made an ambassador.)



THE BARONESS VON STERNBERG.
(American wife of the German ambassador.)

fear of the other, and we have at present good-will, admiration, and respect to build upon. His majesty so thoroughly appreciates the capabilities of Americans, their fair and brilliant women, their genius, their liveliness of disposition, the ease with which they do immense things, and their loyalty to high aims, that my work will be facilitated in every way by his government.

During my many years in Washington, my work was my greatest pleasure, because everywhere I found entire willingness to help, and because the policy of the administration was absolutely open-handed and honest. All the statesmen with whom I had to deal there were men of absolute honor and integrity, capable and energetic, but quite free from intrigue and ulterior aims.

That the governments of England, France, and Russia have similar friendly feelings toward the people of the United States, and find at Washington that they deal with an honest and perfectly open-minded administration, is equally true.

It is, of course, the business of every government to look out for the public interests of its own people rather than to trust implicitly in the good-will of foreign nations; but it is almost as serious a mistake to be over-suspicious as to be over-confiding, and at the present time there is no reason for any feeling in the United States of suspicion or hostility toward any foreign government whatsoever. It

*Good-will
to America.*

is evident, indeed, that the German Government by no means prefers to resort to the Hague tribunal; it does not follow in the least that its desire to have President Roosevelt act as arbitrator was due to a deep design against the Monroe Doctrine. The German Emperor, who is himself a man of amazing effectiveness and of manifold talents, has conceived a great admiration for the directness, efficiency, and varied capabilities of President Roosevelt. This good impression, derived from many other sources, was especially due to the personal reports brought back to him by Prince Henry. His desire that President Roosevelt should act as arbitrator was in every way a compliment to the American



LADY LELIA HERBERT.
(American wife of the English ambassador.)

people. Our government has been able to show its appreciation of that compliment, while at the same time making clear its feeling that better permanent results for the cause of peace and good-will among nations might result from employing the Hague tribunal.

The German Government has been at pains again and again to disavow its intentions to acquire any territory in South America, or to do any of those things which the United States, in the assertion of its American policy, has thought that European powers ought not to do in the Western Hemi-

*Germany
and South
America.*

sphere. The crowning achievement, indeed, of Dr. von Holleben's mission at Washington was to convince the American people of the entire sincerity of his government in its acceptance of the Monroe Doctrine. Last month, again, the German Government took the trouble to send a note to our State Department expressly denying the rumors that Germany was in any manner, directly or indirectly, attempting to retard our negotiations with the Republic of Colombia regarding the Panama Canal. The German Government has again taken occasion to declare its desire that the United States should carry out its plan of creating the proposed water passage between the oceans. Referring to the Venezuelan matter, the new German ambassador, in the interview quoted above, made the following declarations, which became highly important in view of an incident which occurred on the Venezuelan coast a few days later :

One of my immediate duties, after presenting my credentials, will be to join in the negotiations in Washington for a final understanding with Venezuela. Although this question is not susceptible to instant settlement, Germany approaches it with most tolerant views, since President Castro has shown a willingness to recognize that we have grounds for grievance. The position of the controversy is such that we may expect a conclusion measurably satisfactory to each government interested. The German Government feels grateful to the United States for the part they have taken in ad-



Photo by Alman, N. Y.

HON. MICHAEL H. HERBERT.

(The British ambassador to the United States, acting as commissioner for England in arranging arbitration with Venezuela.)

vancing the adjustment that is now clearly in prospect. The Venezuelan affair will cause no further difficulty if all the persons concerned are of the Roosevelt type. The Monroe Doctrine is an unwritten law with Americans, and President Roosevelt interprets it, as he has on several occasions emphasized to the world, as a measure making for peace. As regards the Venezuelan question, I trust confidently in the President's sense of justice and in the tact of his eminent advisers.

These words are to be taken as meaning exactly what they say. Men who bring such a spirit to the settlement of a public question are likely to be able to find conclusions.



MADAME JUSSERAND.

(American wife of the French ambassador to the United States.)

The important incident on the Venezuelan coast to which reference was made in the paragraph above was the bombardment by the German gunboat *Panther*, on Saturday, January 17, of Fort San Carlos, at the entrance to Lake Maracaibo. Reports of this action were received in the United States on Sunday, and appeared in the newspapers on Monday, the 19th, just before Mr. Bowen's arrival at Washington. The first reports from Venezuela were to the effect that the *Panther's* bombardment was by express orders from Berlin, though without any apparent reason, apart from Germany's general policy. The interview with the American Associated Press from which we have quoted is undoubtedly a document of value and authenticity, inasmuch as Mr. Melville E. Stone, the accomplished head of the Associated Press, was in Berlin at the time and was known to be on excellent relations with the new

The Maracaibo Incident.

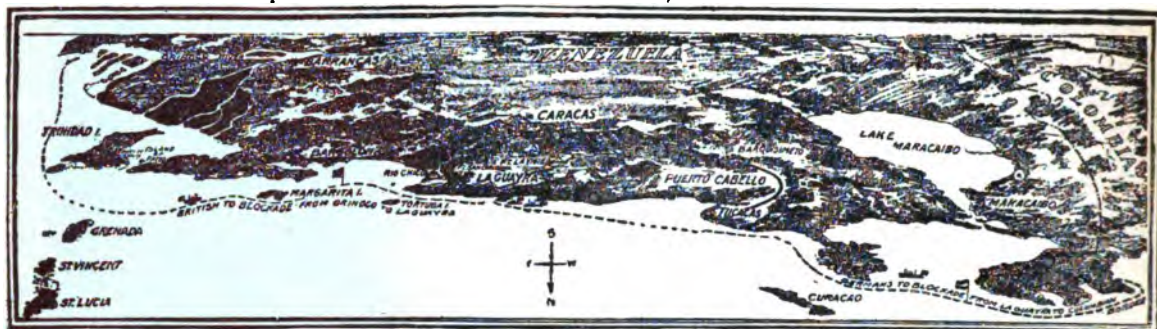


DIAGRAM SHOWING ANGLO-GERMAN BLOCKADE OF VENEZUELAN COAST.

ambassador. The reports from Venezuela stated that the guns of Fort San Carlos returned the *Panther's* fire with spirit, and succeeded, after an hour's interchange of hostilities, in driving off the German gunboat, seemingly somewhat the worse for the combat. This affair, naturally enough, gave a bad shock to people throughout the world who had supposed that Germany, in good faith, was joining in the endeavor to avoid an active war and to secure a peaceable settlement of differences. It was to be taken for granted that the interview with the German ambassador fully and frankly expressed Germany's real intentions, and that the action of the *Panther* was due to some wretched mistake or misunderstanding. The *Panther* is the same boat which only recently sank the gunboat manned by the Haitian insurgents off the coast of Haiti, and she has to her discredit the black record of having still more lately sunk the unoffending little vessels belonging to the Venezuelan Government which were taken by her as they lay dismantled in port. Her commander, who was summoned to Germany to give an account of his behavior in this matter of sinking the Venezuelan gunboats, is reported to have committed suicide in mid-ocean while on his way back to Germany. Unless some proper explanation be forthcoming, it would appear that the successor of this unfortunate commander is now entitled to very serious punishment for a piece of treacherous misconduct hardly paralleled in all modern history.

An Explanation in Order. If Germany does not explain this incident satisfactorily, or, failing to do so, does not severely punish the naval officer responsible for it, she stands guilty of an offense, not simply against Venezuela, but against international good faith, and—to be more specific—against the friendly attitude of the government and people of the United States. There was no particular occasion for the rather effusive compliments to America, the warm avowals of German friendship and good-will, and the elabo-

rate explanations regarding Germany's respect for the Monroe Doctrine and her purposes in South America at the exact moment when the new ambassador,—undoubtedly with the sanction of the German foreign office and the Emperor himself,—gave his remarkable interview to the Associated Press. But since Germany had chosen to appear in a rôle of such charming frankness and communicativeness, it became imperative that the Maracaibo incident should be explained in the same free and open manner. Otherwise, it could only be construed as an affront to the United States. Of course, we do not for a moment believe that this seemingly reckless use of her guns by the *Panther* was deliberately ordered from Berlin. It was probably a part of that almost irrepressible recklessness and assertiveness on the part of the German forces shown by the German troops in the recent Peking expedition, shown by the German ships which annoyed Dewey in the Manila days of '98, and more freshly manifested by the behavior of German naval officers throughout this Venezuelan expedition.

The Blockade—A Dangerous Nuisance. It was entirely inconvenient for commerce, and very injurious to Venezuela, that the blockade which began on December 10 should have been continued last month. The original plan as announced by the allies was the prompt seizure of custom-houses, with the fullest encouragement of commerce. This plan would have kept the Venezuelan revenues at a maximum and applied them as rapidly as possible to the payment of the foreign indebtedness. The war blockade, with its prohibition of all commerce, was, as actually enforced, a punishment that did not in any manner fit the offense. It is certainly a novel idea to destroy your debtor's means of income as a mode of collecting what he owes you. Such a blockade is also in fact,—whether or not it is so in the technicalities of international law,—a serious wrong perpetrated against an un-

offending neutral like the United States. Our trade with Venezuela is very much larger than that of any other nation, and during these past weeks of the blockade this trade has been absolutely shut off for reasons altogether too trivial to justify such an inconvenience to us. With the great growth of commerce and the interests that belong to peace, it is becoming more and more true that the public opinion of the world will not permit nations to assume the belligerent pose without some show of reason that would justify what otherwise becomes an unbearable nuisance. Furthermore, a technical war blockade endangers the world's peace, because of the temptation it offers for such incidents as the one at Maracaibo last month.

*The Rights
of Neutrals.*

The growth of the doctrine of the rights and immunities of neutrals in time of war has been a very important development in international law. But, largely under the leadership of the United States, there has also grown up a corresponding doctrine as to the duties and responsibilities of neutral nations. This subject was most ably presented by Dr. David J. Hill, Assistant Secretary of State, last spring, in a paper before the American Social Science Association. He pointed out that what he called the "over-tension of neutral duty" must inevitably result in an "extension of the right of intervention for the sake of peace." Dr. Hill reminds us that the United States was simply worn out, after three years of war in Cuba between the Spaniards and the patriots, with efforts to observe strictly the international duties of neutrality. We were finally forced to intervention to secure peace, and thereby to relieve ourselves of the strain of a situation that we could not fairly be expected to endure any longer. In like manner, Dr. Hill would undoubtedly hold that the great European powers had very seriously burdened us when they sent a naval expedition and established a technical war blockade of the Venezuelan coast,—thereby absolutely annihilating our commerce with that republic,—merely because Venezuela's finances were in such chaos, through internal revolutions, that her debts to European creditors were in arrearage.

*A Fair Offer
from Castro.*

Quite apart from all relation to the Monroe Doctrine, it would have become the duty of our government, on behalf of American commerce, to make strong representations against the long continuance of the blockade. For we were entitled to assert that by reason of the amount of our commerce, the blockade itself involved greater hardship



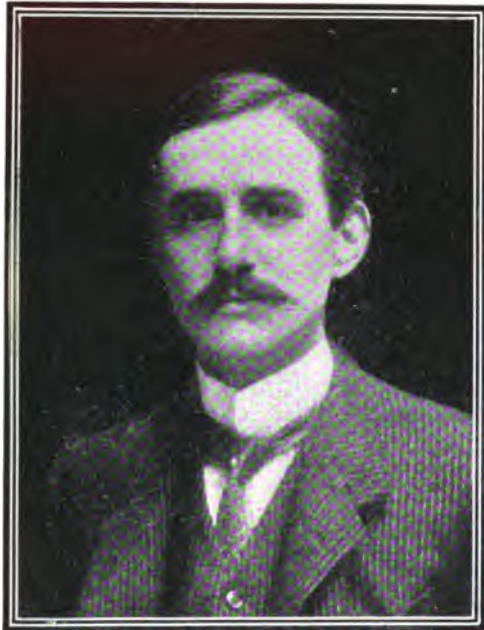
DR. DAVID J. HILL.

(Who leaves the State Department to become minister to Switzerland.)

than would have resulted from some further delay in the payment by Venezuela of the debts owing to her European creditors. Fortunately, the response of the European powers to our request that arbitration be employed spared our government the necessity of making any very strenuous protest against a blockade which, it was to be hoped, might end almost any day. President Castro had, indeed, last month, made what seemed a very fair offer to relieve the general distress of the seaboard towns and the impending famine at Caracas. He had proposed that the blockade should be raised, the Venezuelan Government agreeing to permit the foreign warships to remain in the harbors, and also agreeing to pay all the expenses of the blockading squadron. The Italian Government immediately signified its readiness to accept this proposal, but the authorities at Berlin were unwilling. If preliminary negotiations should prove tedious, it would seem to be the duty of our government to inform Germany and England that the blockade can serve no further useful purpose and is causing us great loss and incon-

venience. The grounds upon which such an argument would be permissible were well set forth in Dr. Hill's address to which reference has been made.

A Change in the State Department. In this connection it is to be noted that Dr. Hill has accepted the President's appointment as minister to Switzerland, to which post he will proceed at once. He has been First Assistant Secretary of State for more than four years, and has rendered public service of varied scope and high character



MR. LLOYD C. GRISCOM.
(New American minister to Japan.)

through a period when the foreign relations of the United States have been of exceptional importance, and have therefore required in the State Department men of Dr. Hill's great knowledge of international law and diplomatic history. It is well known in Washington that the President offered Dr. Hill the post of minister to Japan after that position had been declined by Mr. John Barrett; but for reasons of a personal and family nature, Dr. Hill found it more convenient to go to Switzerland, where due attention to his public duties will not prevent the carrying on of important study and writing in the field of diplomatic history. At the State Department, Dr. Hill is succeeded by Mr. Francis B. Loomis, who brings to our diplomatic headquarters in Washington much experience and knowledge that will be of particular value

at this time. It will be remembered that Mr. Loomis, who had attained prominence in Ohio journalism, went to Venezuela as United States minister in 1897, serving at that post until appointed, a little more than a year and a half ago, as minister to Portugal. At a former period, Mr. Loomis had spent several years as a consul in France.

Other Diplomatic Changes. His post at Lisbon is filled by the appointment of Mr. Charles Page Bryan, who, having just completed five years of service as United States minister to Brazil, is conversant with the Portuguese



HON. CHARLEMAGNE TOWER.
(Who succeeds Dr. Andrew D. White as ambassador to Germany.)

language. The various recent changes in the foreign service of the United States have indicated a strong tendency to professionalize our diplomacy. Thus, our readers were last month reminded of the fact that Mr. Bowen, who succeeded Mr. Loomis at Venezuela, had performed conspicuous service as United States consul-general at Barcelona, Spain. Mr. Charlemagne Tower, who succeeded Dr. Andrew D. White at Berlin, was transferred from St. Petersburg. His place at St. Petersburg has been filled by the transfer of Mr. Robert S. McCormick from

Vienna. Mr. Bellamy Storer is promoted from the post of minister to Spain, following a previous service as minister to Belgium, by being made ambassador at Vienna. Mr. Arthur S. Hardy, in turn, goes to Madrid, thus vacating the position in Switzerland to which Dr. Hill has been appointed. Before going to Switzerland, Mr. Hardy had been minister to Greece, and before that, minister to Persia. The post of minister to Japan, made vacant by the sudden death of Mr. Buck, in December, has been filled by the appointment of Mr. Lloyd C. Griscom, of Philadelphia, who thus obtains a remarkably rapid promotion from the post of minister to Persia, to which he had recently been appointed after having rendered brief but prominent service as secretary of legation at Constantinople. Mr. Richmond Pearson succeeds Mr. Griscom as minister to Persia, being promoted from the consulate at Genoa, Italy.

An Excellent Service.

Two things are important in our foreign service; first, that the men we send abroad,—whether as ambassadors, ministers and secretaries of legations, or as consular officials,—should be, personally, men belonging to the highest type of American citizenship; second, that they should have those qualities of directness and practical efficiency that belong to the American method of doing public and private business. It is, of course, desirable, though less important, that they should be versed in the conventionalities of European diplomacy. It may now fairly be said for our foreign service as a whole that it probably meets all these tests to a higher degree, on the average, than at any time for many years past. We ought by all means to pay our representatives abroad much better salaries, and to provide permanent quarters for them in the principal capitals. Appreciation of the work of the State Department found expression in a remarkable dinner in honor of Secretary Hay, last month, given by the Ohio Society of New York. Our more recent diplomatic negotiations with foreign countries have had to do, in the main, with commercial affairs. With England, we have negotiated a treaty to obviate a misunderstanding about our construction and control of an isthmian ship canal, and have effected a reciprocity treaty on behalf of Newfoundland. The most immediately important of these commercial negotiations has been that with Cuba, by virtue of which a treaty was completed agreeing upon mutual trade concessions between the governments of the two republics, ratified by the Cuban lawmaking body, and wholly assured, last month, of acceptance by our Congress at Washington.



HON. FRANK B. LOOMIS, OF OHIO.
(First Assistant Secretary of State.)

Cuban Reciprocity Assured.

The delay of reciprocity with Cuba caused great anxiety in this country last year, and was productive of much bitter feeling in Cuba toward the United States. Fortunately for Cuba and for our good relations with that republic, there has come about an amazing change in economic conditions, due to a marked increase in the world's market price of sugar. This radical change in price was due to several causes, important among which may be mentioned a comparative shortage in the beet-sugar crop of Europe, and the anticipated working of the Brussels agreement, by virtue of which the principal European sugar-exporting countries have agreed to give up the system of export bounties. With profitable prices for their products, the Cubans could borrow money, and engage hopefully in agriculture and industry. What has thus become a fairly comfortable situation would, of course, be still more improved and better safeguarded by a tariff reduction of 20 per cent. on Cuban sugar and other products entering the ports of the United States. And inasmuch as the advance in the world's prices of sugar has been highly profitable to the American producers of sugar from the beet root, there was last month a corresponding withdrawal of opposition to the plan of Cuban reciprocity. So far as this country is concerned, the real grounds of urgency for the Cuban reciprocity treaty are no longer the needs of Cuba, but the benefits to be

conferred upon our own producers and traders by giving them a preferred position in the markets of a rich island which can buy increasing quantities of flour, textiles, machinery, and various other products of farm and factory.

*Negotiating
for the Ship
Canal.*

The most difficult as well as the most far-reaching of all the commercial negotiations with which our government has been occupied is that which is necessary in order to clear the way for constructing a transoceanic ship canal. Some of our readers will remember distinctly what legislation was adopted by Congress last June before the long session of the present Congress ended, but others may like to be reminded again of its exact nature. The great and elaborate canal commission appointed by President McKinley, under the chairmanship of Admiral Walker, had reported in favor of the Nicaragua route. It had, however, also reported that the Panama route had some engineering and other advantages, but was out of the question because of the impossibility of dealing on reasonable terms with the French company, which had practically abandoned the situation, but clung to the assets. The commission stated that in its judgment the work actually performed by the old and new Panama companies, together with the stock owned by those companies in the Panama Railroad and all other assets, including maps, plans, and the like, would not be worth more than \$40,000,000 to a purchaser proposing to complete the canal, whereas the French company had been demanding about three times as much. When this report became public, as everybody will remember, the French company immediately sent its agents to Washington with the proposal to sell out at the commission's figure of \$40,000,000. Whereupon the President referred the matter back again to the Walker commission, which promptly changed its report and recommended Panama instead of Nicaragua.

*The
Spooner Act.*

The House of Representatives, under the lead of Mr. Hepburn, had with practical unanimity passed a bill adopting the Nicaragua route and appropriating a large sum of money for construction. The Senate, however, was impressed by the new situation, and after much discussion it finally agreed upon a compromise measure introduced by Senator Spooner, which was duly accepted by the House, and became a law by the President's signature on June 28. This measure, entitled "An Act to Provide for the Construction of a Canal Connecting the Waters of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans," authorized the President (1) to

buy out the assets of the new Panama Canal Company of France for a sum not greater than \$40,000,000, and (2) to secure perpetual control and jurisdiction over a strip of territory not less than six miles wide, by negotiation with the Republic of Colombia, such strip, of course, to comprise territory on both sides of the canal route as well as the Panama Railroad, and the ports of Colon on the Caribbean Sea and Panama on the Pacific Ocean. The Spooner act appropriated \$40,000,000 with which to make payment in full to the French company, and further authorized the President to pay whatever sum might be needed to Colombia for territorial concessions. It was provided, however, in this Spooner act, that if the President should not be able to obtain a satisfactory title to the property of the French company, or should not be able to make acquisition of territory from Colombia "within a reasonable time and upon reasonable terms," then the President, having obtained territorial concessions from Nicaragua and Costa Rica upon terms that he should regard as reasonable, might proceed without further authority from Congress to build the Nicaragua Canal. The remainder of the act made provision for the creation of an isthmian canal commission to have charge of construction, provided for bond issues for the estimated cost of a canal, and contained all other provisions necessary to enable the President, without further legislation, to acquire a route and proceed to dig a canal deep enough for the largest ships afloat. The great merit of the Spooner act lay in the fact that it finally placed on the statute books legislation authorizing a canal, and giving practically equal sanction to two possible routes. But it threw a heavy responsibility on the President and his executive advisers.



SUFFERING FROM A TERRIBLE BEE IN HIS BONNET.
From the *Herald* (Boston).

*Our Position
at Panama.*

The difficulties and delays that have ensued have arisen in a somewhat unexpected quarter. It had been supposed that there might be trouble on the score of the imperfections of the French title; but Attorney-General Knox took this matter in hand and made a report declaring the title to be in all respects valid, so that the President might feel justified in paying over the \$40,000,000. A deadlock occurred in bargaining with Colombia for acquisition of the desired property. Our State Department has been negotiating on the basis of the lease of a strip of land six miles wide. It is to be noted that the Spooner act distinctly declared that "the President may acquire such additional territory and rights from Colombia as in his judgment will facilitate the general purpose hereof." Colombia, for a long while past, has been subject to revolutions so frequent and so persistent that it may fairly be said that revolution and disorder are chronic in that country. Under a treaty made by us a long time ago, when the Panama Canal was built, we have acquired both the right and duty to maintain order on the Isthmus of Panama for the sake of the effective operation of the railroad. During the whole of the period through which the discussion of this Panama Canal subject has extended, the maintenance of order on the Isthmus of Panama has been due solely to our active or potential efforts. The railroad would have been seized, first by the insurgent faction and then by the government faction, but for the presence of our warships at Colon and the occasional patrolling of the railroad line by our marines.

*Colombia and
the Isthmus.*

At the present moment there seems to be something of a lull in revolutionary activity, but there is no reason to suppose that peace and civic order are at hand. The government at Bogota, the capital of Colombia, is absolutely unable to regulate affairs in the Isthmus of Panama, for several reasons, among which is the fact that the Panama Railroad is farther from Bogota, by the actual time it takes to reach it, than it is from St. Petersburg, or even from Constantinople. It takes two or three weeks to ascend the Magdalena River from the seacoast to Bogota, the capital of Colombia. The republic is of such territorial conformation that the Isthmus of Panama is no more an essential part of its normal and appropriate area than Alaska was an essential part of the area of Russia. The complete cession of the Isthmus of Panama to the United States need not involve any national sentiment whatsoever. Panama owes such development and importance as it possesses solely to the construction of an

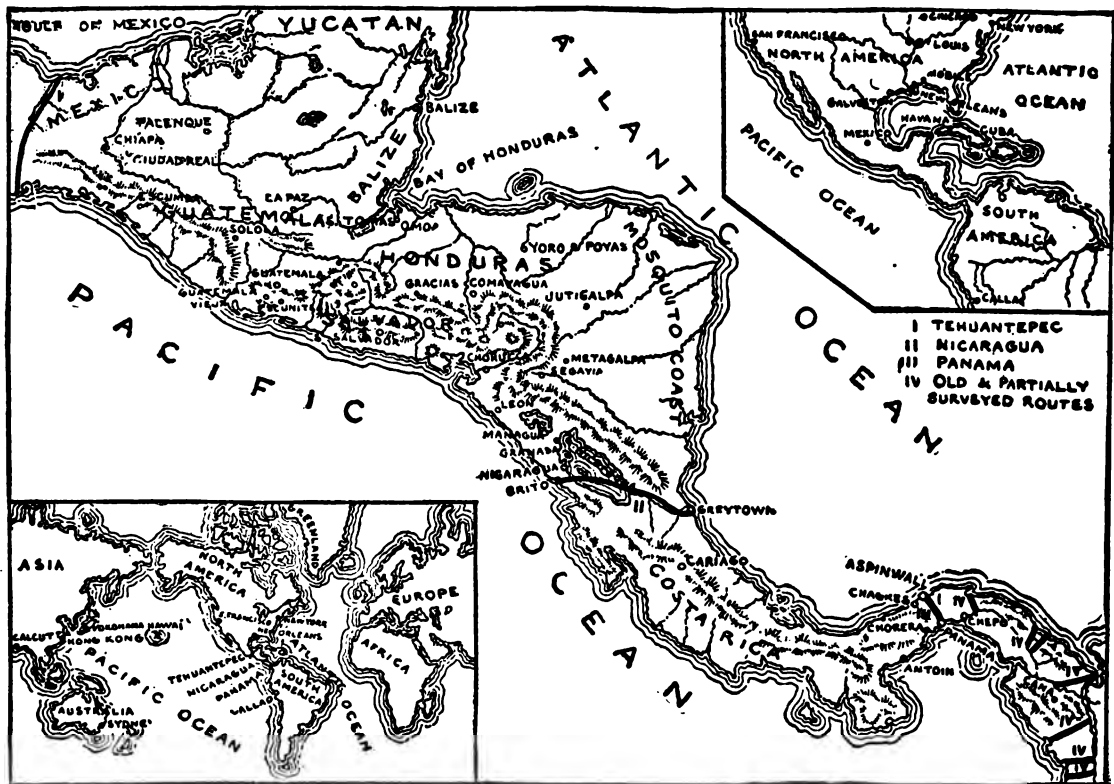
American railroad across it, and to the transshipments due to the existence of that route, and not at all to its connection with Colombia.

*Colombia's
Benefits from
a Canal.*

It should be remembered that the great canal we propose to build is not for anybody's pecuniary profit, and it is to be open to the ships of the whole world. In so far as Colombia, which, like our own country, lies on both oceans, may in future develop a merchant marine and a navy, it is of the highest importance that such a canal should be built. And it is certainly desirable for Colombia that the canal should be in the hands of a friendly power that could have no motive for aggression, and that could guarantee to Colombia the most favorable possible use of the passage for her public vessels, and for her coasting trade and merchant marine. For the United States to take charge of the Isthmus, thus protecting Colombia against revolutionary disturbances in that remote region, and for the United States, further, to build a canal and give Colombia the use of it, would be beneficial in the highest sense, through many centuries to come, to the people of the South American republic. Nothing else could promise so much for the stability and development of the great latent resources of Colombia as to have the United States as a firmly established neighbor on the Isthmus, with the great canal open to the peaceful traffic of the whole world.

*Terms of a
Proper Bar-
gain.*

Thus, if Colombia were a responsible country, with a normal public opinion and a stable government, a proposition like this might be in order: Colombia would agree to make over to the United States, for purposes of permanent protection and necessary jurisdiction, the isthmian district known as the State of Panama, on consideration that the United States should build a ship canal and give perpetually to the government and people of Colombia the same privileges in the use of that canal as those enjoyed by the government and people of the United States. This would be a splendid bargain for Colombia. Yet, instead of taking such a view of the matter, certain officials, apparently possessing a technical authority to represent Colombia, have been presuming upon the determination of the American people to complete a canal at any cost, and have been blocking negotiations by holding out, not only for a ten-million-dollar payment to begin with, as consideration for a lease of a six-mile strip, but are also demanding a permanent annual payment of many hundreds of thousands of dollars as rental money.



We Might Have Occupied Panama. In view of the chaos existing upon the Isthmus and the total inability of Colombia to maintain governmental institutions there, we should have been abundantly justified, long ago, in assuming an indefinite occupancy of the Isthmus pending the establishment of a responsible and constitutional government in the republic. The present government is nothing better than an arbitrary dictatorship. As against the demands of these Colombian officials, it would not seem to be a straining of our rights under international law to make a reckoning of the actual cost to which we have been subjected, in recent years, by the necessity of protecting life and property on the Isthmus, and maintaining the operation of the Panama Railroad. It is important that the preliminaries should be arranged in a proper way before we spend perhaps \$200,000,000 in constructing a canal. That we should be charged in perpetuity a high rental for constructing a public work on Colombian soil that will be of the highest benefit to Colombia, is a financial proposition with hardly a parallel in all history for its absurdity. Meanwhile, fresh doubts seem to have been thrown upon the engineering feasibility of the alternative Nicaragua route, and the whole situation is befogged and extremely

unsatisfactory. A right solution is far more to be desired than a prompt one. It is natural that there should be strong pressure brought to bear on our government to conclude any sort of arrangement with Colombia by the various interests, legal, journalistic, and otherwise, that are serving the cause of a French company which expects to get \$40,000,000 in cash out of the United States Treasury in pay for the assets of an abandoned enterprise, and for franchises which on their face were originally non-transferable, and which had expired some time ago, although renewed for a short term by means which would hardly bear investigation.

The Tehuantepec Railroad. It is a relief to turn from this Panama scheme, which suggests infinite confusion, if not infinite lobbying and corruption, to note the progress of a clean, honorable, and business-like undertaking further north, at the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, in Mexico. It will be remembered that the great American engineer, Captain Eads, proposed, as the crowning work of his life, the construction of a ship railroad across that isthmus. Whatever the engineering possibilities of his novel project, it was dropped, after his death, as experimental and hazardous. More than sixty years ago, the

Mexican Government had given a concession for an ordinary railroad line across this narrowest portion of the republic (the distance is less than two hundred miles), but it fell finally to the Mexican Government itself to build the road as a national enterprise. It was begun in this way some twenty years ago, and opened for traffic nearly ten years ago, the track being 190 miles long. The harbors, however, at either end needed large development before the road could be made profitable, and the Mexican Government found itself operating the line at a loss.

An English Enterprise.

At length, in 1897, it leased the road for a period of fifty years to the well-known firm of Pearsons & Son (Limited), of London, on the agreement of this firm to make deep harbors and provide every facility for the handling of freight at both ends of the line. The firm has been carrying out this contract substantially and well. The great port works, which will maintain a depth of thirty or forty feet of water, will be, it is said, finally completed in the present year. The distances between our Atlantic and Pacific coasts will be about 1,200 miles shorter by the Tehuantepec route than by way of Nicaragua, and 2,000 miles shorter than by way of Panama. The Mexican Government has stipulated for a materially less freight cost by way of Tehuantepec than the present charges of the Panama Railroad. The Messrs. Pearsons propose to operate extensive steamship lines in connection with this railroad, and it would seem that our California shippers ought to consider this new route, as promising not only a favorable and comparatively quick new means of transit, but also as probably furnishing an important regulator of freight rates.

As a Rate Regulator.

It is stated that the rates per ton now guaranteed by the Tehuantepec line will be about \$6.50 from the Gulf of Mexico to San Francisco. It is said that the Pearsons have rebuilt the railroad very substantially, and are equipping it with facilities for the most effective and rapid transfer of freight. The Pacific coast people have looked forward to the construction of an interoceanic canal, not so much for its actual use as for its potential value as a regulator of transcontinental railroad freight rates. But it is not unlikely that, with the fixed agreements existing between the new Tehuantepec line and the Mexican Government regarding rates, it may be found feasible to use this new route very effectively as an argument for the most favorable possible treatment of the Pacific slope by the existing

American transcontinental railway lines, thus diminishing, to some extent, at least, the urgency of the proposed transoceanic canal, and allowing some further time for a wise solution of the many puzzling questions which have thrown the whole canal situation into a state of bewilderment and confusion.

Congress After the Holiday Recess.

After a holiday adjournment of about two weeks, Congress resumed business on January 5. The approved methods of doing business in the House of Representatives have made that body businesslike and effective,—that is to say, there is no longer any obstruction used, and the Speaker, aided by the Committee on Rules, is in a position to arrange a programme, see that each subject is brought to a final vote after an agreed period of debate, and assure to a working majority as swift a disposal of business as is desirable in a parliamentary body. The Senate, on the other hand, is without businesslike rules, and a single persistent member may seriously obstruct, or for a considerable time wholly block, the course of business. The arch filibuster of the Senate is Mr. Quay, of Pennsylvania. As against the preferences of the great majority of his Republican associates, he has determined to bring his pet measure, the omnibus Statehood bill, to a vote at the present session. The Republican programme, as preferred by most of the Senate leaders, would have postponed the Statehood issue to a future Congress, and would have devoted the present session to measures upon which the country expects action from a Republican administration and Congress. It was regarded last month as practically certain that Mr. Beveridge and his committee had secured the defeat of the omnibus bill in its present form. Thus, it is no longer likely that Oklahoma can be made a State until a plan has been arranged under which there will be brought about a reunion of the whole region formerly known as the Indian Territory. There was current, also, some talk of the admission of New Mexico and Arizona as one State. This may be desirable a few years hence, but no such action ought to be taken by the present Congress. Meanwhile, the Statehood question had last month stood in the way of the disposal of other matters in the Senate.

Delay as a Fostered Method.

It was, indeed, more than hinted that certain Senators who were opposed to any legislation at all on the trust question were willing to allow the Statehood bill and other matters to monopolize the time of the Senate. It was reported, moreover, that Mr.

Oxnard, who represents sugar interests at Washington, having been compelled finally to give up his fight against the decent treatment of Cuba, was transferring his energies to the prevention of the sort of tariff concessions for the Philippine Islands that the President, the Secretary of War, the Philippine Commission, and the Philippine Congressional committees were trying to secure. And Mr. Oxnard was said to have adopted the method of defeating Philippine legislation not by directly fighting it but by encouraging the deadlock on the Statehood question and a general time-wasting Senatorial confusion.

*The
Philippine
Situation.*

It is to be noted that the Philippines are just now passing through the throes of a situation much more distressing than that in which Cuba found herself a year ago. It was almost inevitable that there should be an economic reaction before the permanently brighter skies should dawn. The business life of the Philippines was not highly developed, and it was of a kind which was especially likely to be disturbed by changes so profound as those that have taken place. The great fall in the price of silver, which has been so paralyzing to the trade of all countries using that metal as the standard of value, has affected the Philippines with especial severity. It is incumbent upon Congress at this session to give the Philippines a proper currency system. Furthermore, the agricultural life of the islands,—and there is little industry except agriculture in the Philippines,—has suffered an almost incalculable loss by reason of an animal disease which has swept away 90 per cent. of the carabaos. It has been commonly learned by this time in America that the carabao, an animal of the water-buffalo type, is well-nigh the universal beast of burden in the Philippines. Furthermore, there has been great distress throughout the Philippines from an epidemic of cholera, which, according to Governor Taft's annual report to the Secretary of War, made public early last month, has swept through the entire archipelago, depopulating whole villages.

*What Needs
to Be Done.*

In view of the dark picture of conditions drawn by Governor Taft, Secretary Root sent a letter to the President advising the appropriation by Congress of not less than \$3,000,000 as a Philippine relief fund. On January 7, President Roosevelt sent a special message to Congress transmitting Mr. Root's letter, together with the report of the Philippine Commission, and urging upon Congress the granting of the desired pecuniary re-

lief. Secretary Root is of opinion that the need in the Philippines is greater than it was in Cuba when Congress appropriated \$3,000,000 for the payment of Cuban soldiers, and greater than it was in Porto Rico when the national treasury and private beneficence supplied nearly \$2,000,000 after the hurricane of August, 1899. The President particularly urged upon Congress the enactment of the several important measures pending for the benefit of the Philippines, among these being one which would admit Philippine products at one-fourth of the regular Dingley tariff rates, another the bill for a proper monetary system, and a third the constabulary measure, which has been already described in this magazine. It is in no manner to our discredit that the Philippines are in a state of affliction. On the contrary, it is extremely fortunate for the islands that they are able to look to the most humane and enlightened government in the world for sympathy and help in this unhappy plight of theirs. One by one the problems of the Philippines are being solved, and favorable results are bound to become manifest in the near future.

*Civil Order
Established.*

Industrial disturbance and stagnation generally promote brigandage and disorder of a kind that would naturally tend to mask itself in semi-military and revolutionary guise. It is, therefore, a remarkable tribute to the thoroughness of the pacification already accomplished that Governor Taft in this last report should be able to declare that, although there has been the expected outbreak of ladronism, the existing constabulary has been able to stamp it out without any aid whatsoever from the military. Thus, Governor Taft declares that "since the Fourth of July last not a single shot has been fired by an American soldier in the preservation of peace and order, and no request has yet been made to the commanding general for assistance in suppressing lawless violence and disturbance." Before matters grow permanently better, they may be temporarily worse; but, meanwhile, it is gratifying that civil order has made such progress.

*Governor Taft
to Remain
at Manila.*

Gen. Luke Wright, of the Philippine Commission, who spent a good deal of December and January at Washington, to give information to Congress as desired, is soon to return to Manila. It was generally understood that upon his return he would be made governor, and that Judge Taft would come back to take the position on the Supreme bench at Washington about to be made vacant by the retirement of Justice Shiras. Judge Taft, however, has decided to remain somewhat longer

in the Philippines, owing to the conditions of distress existing there and the great confidence in which he is held by the natives of all classes. A remarkable demonstration, participated in by members of all political and religious groups, was made at Manila on January 11 in order to show Governor Taft how strongly the Filipinos desire that he should remain. That any American whatsoever could thus soon have gained so completely the trust and esteem of the Filipinos is a very encouraging fact; and Governor Taft, on his part, has shown his nobility and patriotism in concluding to stay at his post for the present. Gen. Leonard Wood, meanwhile, is to go to the Philippines on military service, and may have charge of the Mindanao department. The present commanding general of the Philippines division is Maj.-Gen. George W. Davis, who reaches the retiring age next summer. If the well-advised bills for the benefit of the Philippines that have been pending should become laws at the present session, together with the Cuban reciprocity scheme, the expiring Fifty-seventh Congress would have accomplished some good work toward the fulfillment of the duties developing upon us in consequence of the war with Spain.

*Coal on the
Free List.*

There are some other matters of considerable importance upon which action, taken last month, before these pages were closed for the press, made it wholly or virtually certain that credit would accrue to the record of the expiring Fifty-seventh Congress. One of these was a measure which placed anthracite coal on the free list, and suspended all duties on bituminous coal for the period of one year. There was a fuel shortage in many parts of the United States last month, with high prices for coal prevailing; and the prospect of relief was not encouraging. At this juncture, after conference with President Roosevelt, it was decided by the leaders in Congress to suspend the coal tariff practically without debate and as an emergency measure. The bill was reported in the House on January 14 under a special rule calling for immediate consideration, debate was limited to one hour, and the vote, when taken, stood 258 to 5. The bill was then taken to the Senate chamber, where Senator Aldrich secured its reference to the Finance Committee, of which he is chairman, consulted with Senator Vest, the ranking Democratic member of the committee, reported at once, and secured a unanimous vote,—all within nine minutes after the bill had been received from the other house. The measure was signed on the following day by President Roosevelt. The Dingley tariff rate on bituminous coal is sixty-seven cents a ton. The duty

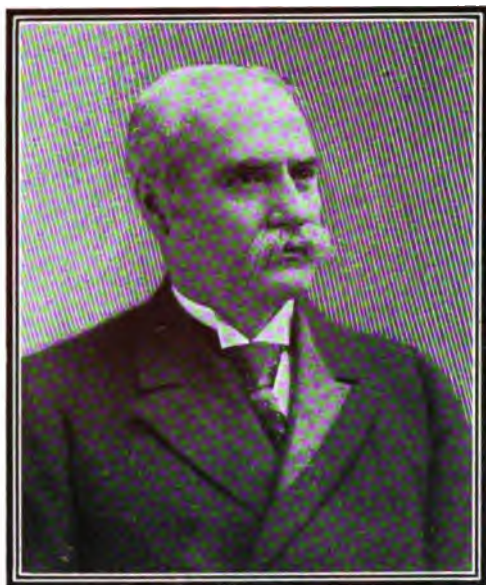
on anthracite coal had been imposed by virtue of a mere construction having to do with the definition of anthracite. That construction is not henceforth legal. Large quantities of British coal have been coming to the United States for several months past, and it remains to be seen to what extent the removal of the tariff may assist in giving our people cheaper and more abundant fuel. It is not to be supposed that the effect will be very marked. A mild sensation was caused by a resolution offered by Mr. Jenkins, of Wisconsin, chairman of the House Judiciary Committee, at about the same time. He proposed that his own committee should be instructed to report at once upon the power of Congress to "declare that a necessity has arisen for taking possession of all coal, coal beds, and coal mines in the United States, and all lines of transportation, agencies, instruments, and vehicles of commerce necessary for the transportation of coal." It is to be presumed that Mr. Jenkins thought it a favorable time to inquire into the extent of the power reposed in the national government to meet the fuel emergency if it should assume an extreme form.

A great effort was made by the Republican leaders in Congress to prevent the suspension of the duty on coal from being used to launch a general tariff



CLIPPING HIS WINGS.

UNCLE SAM: "Cut 'em off close, and he won't fly so high."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis), January 10, 1903.



SENATOR NELSON W. ALDRICH, OF RHODE ISLAND.

(A leader whose influence was felt decisively last month in many legislative matters.)

agitation. It is likely, however, that in the next Congress action in this instance may be used as a precedent to help in revising the Dingley tariff by the separate adoption, from time to time, of other specific changes. There was a sharp and significant debate last month in the Senate, chiefly between Senator Aldrich and Senator Dolliver, of Iowa, on the relation of the Dingley rates to the reciprocity policy. Mr. Dolliver affirmed, and Mr. Aldrich denied, that the Dingley rates were made unduly high with particular reference to their being extensively reduced in practice through the adoption of reciprocity arrangements with various countries. Mr. Dolliver strongly advocated the ratification of the long series of reciprocity treaties,—negotiated under President McKinley's auspices but disapproved and neglected by the Republican leaders of the Senate. Among business men and others of broad ideas there is a steadily growing sentiment in favor of reciprocity with Canada, this, after all, being far more important than reciprocal trade relations with any other country.

*Effective Hint
of an Extra
Session.*

With Secretary Root's favorite measures,—one for a reorganization of the army general staff, and another for the transformation of our militia system,—both promising to become laws at this session, while various other matters of interest to the President and the administration were progressing favorably, it remained true, nevertheless,

that there was, up to the middle of January, a considerable prospect that the Fifty-eighth Congress would be called to meet in extra session early in the spring to take up certain matters that had been left undone by its predecessor. To be specific, it had begun to seem probable that no trust legislation could be enacted at this session. Thereupon, President Roosevelt informed the leaders in both houses that an extra session might be expected, unless some measure looking toward the better control of trusts were now agreed upon and passed. This seemed to have the desired effect. Among other things, the leaders in the House agreed to take up the bill establishing the proposed new Department of Commerce and Labor, which was to contain a bureau of manufactures and corporations.

*The New
Commerce
Department.*

The Senate had passed a bill providing for the new department at the last session. The House measure of last month was different in various respects; but doubtless an acceptable blending of the two bills can be made in conference committee. A very important amendment adopted by the House was one authorizing the President to transfer the Interstate Commerce Commission to the new department, which, in the phraseology adopted by the House, is to be a "Department of Commerce and Labor," inasmuch as the notable bureau at the head of which Col. Carroll D. Wright has long rendered inestimable service is to be assigned to this new executive domain. It would,



DOLLIVER AS THE IOWA WILLIAM TELL.
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

however, be premature to describe the scope of the department until the differing Senate and House bills have been reconciled and the measure has become a law. It is enough to say that in the opinion of the President and of many others interested in the general subject, the bureau of corporations to be established as a part of this new department is destined to have a most vital relation to the future oversight and control of great trusts and corporations by the federal government. It is this bureau that will be the medium of that "publicity" to which the President has attached so much importance as a means for lessening many of the evils of corporate methods.

**Further
Anti-Trust
Legislation.**

Even to have created this bureau might have been regarded as a substantial step in the right direction, while to have secured the transfer of the Interstate Commerce Commission to a subordinate place in a responsible executive department would, in some respects, seem to count still more importantly for a better protection of the country against the discriminations and abuses of the great railroad corporations. But something more positive than this was desired and expected by President Roosevelt. It was evident that the lower house was prepared to legislate with some vigor on the question of trusts, but it was almost equally evident that the Senate was hardly disposed to act at all in the present session. Mr. Littlefield's sub-committee in the House was proceeding with great zeal, but the prospect of action in the Senate was diminished by the character of the bill which Mr. Hoar introduced as his own personal measure. Mr. Hoar, as chairman of the Judiciary Committee, was naturally in a position to give exceptional prominence to his own views. His bill and the speech in which he supported it were interesting contributions to the discussion of the trust question, but he was attempting a programme of legislation more broad and extended than could be dealt with under existing circumstances, and his measure was laid aside.

**The Attorney-
General Takes
a Hand.**

Just as Mr. Littlefield's committee at the other end of the Capitol was prepared to report the result of its labors, Attorney-General Knox, on behalf of the administration, offered suggestions in the light of which it soon appeared that something might be agreed upon by the leaders of both houses. Mr. Knox's views and proposals are the outgrowth of his practical experience in attempting to enforce the existing Sherman Anti-Trust law and various provisions of the Interstate Com-



HON. JOHN DALZELL, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

(A Republican leader in the House and member of the Committee on Rules, which accomplished great results last month.)

merce Act. His chief proposals with respect to trusts and corporations were, first, for the establishment of a commission or bureau which should have authority to require reports from all corporations doing an interstate business and should have unlimited power of investigation. Further proposals had to do with methods of discrimination, whether practised by the transportation companies or by other great corporations. Thus, it is to be made as much a penal offense to receive rebates and kindred favors as to give them; and Mr. Knox would not only apply this principle against the practice of granting special favors on the part of railroad companies to large shippers, but he would also apply it to industrial concerns which vary their prices in different localities for the sake of breaking down local competitors. That the House of Representatives would pass a measure based largely upon Mr. Knox's views was made certain by the consent of the Speaker, the Committee on Rules, and the particular committee having the subject in charge. That the Senate would also act favorably upon a moderate measure of that sort also seemed highly probable after a conference between the President and a group of leading Senators on January 16. With the new Department of Commerce and its bureau of corporations supported by a measure giving

the bureau full power of investigation and requiring reports to it from companies doing an interstate business, together with the proposals made by Mr. Knox for strengthening the Interstate Commerce Act and the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, it would seem to us that a great deal rather than a very little had been accomplished as a result of the effort of the administration to secure federal oversight and regulation of the great capitalistic combinations. We are frank to add, indeed, that quite as much would have been thus accomplished as existing conditions could well justify. In the main, the business world must work out its own problems.

A Southern Appointment. President Roosevelt has made about eighty appointments of federal office-holders in the State of South Carolina, of whom only one has been a negro. This one exception is a certain Dr. Crum, named for the post of collector of the port at Charleston. The State Legislature, last month, adopted resolutions calling upon South Carolina's two Senators to attempt to prevent confirmation when Dr. Crum's appointment should come up for action in the Senate. In our opinion, President Roosevelt would have done better not to appoint Dr. Crum. He has so nearly ignored the colored race in the making of Southern appointments that he might as well have adhered without variance to his main policy of selecting for office in the Southern States only such persons as are entirely agreeable to the people most concerned. In the North, there might well be a good many negro appointments; but not now in the South. It is true enough that only two-fifths of the population of South Carolina is of pure white blood. On the other hand, however, nearly all the people who have business with the collector of the port at Charleston are white people who would prefer a white man in the office. President Roosevelt's motives are of the purest and highest; his attitude toward the South is chivalrous and considerate; no explanation or apologies are due from him; and, indeed, the behavior of some people in the South toward Dr. Crum's appointment seems perverse to the verge of lunacy. That is why the appointment is regrettable.

Roosevelt's Southern Policy. When President Roosevelt was in Charleston at the time of the exposition, leading white citizens advised him not to appoint a negro to such an office as the postmastership, but they assured him that there would be no objection to his naming a negro for a post like that of collector of the port,—an office that is not in any familiar way related to the local life. And they further said

that if any negro were to be appointed, they would commend that most excellent fellow-citizen of theirs, Dr. Crum, to whose worth they themselves had paid tribute by making him the head of the negro department in their exposition, subject to the general direction of Mr. Booker T. Washington. The President unquestionably acted in perfect good faith, therefore, in naming Crum. President McKinley could have appointed forty Crums and nothing would have been said. Mr. Roosevelt is the one President since the Civil War who has been willing to ignore the mere political aspects of the Southern race question, and to consider the situation broadly and with deep sympathy for both races. He has seen the difficulties of the problems which must find solution on the ground by the people who have to live, and work, and maintain civilization in those Southern States. It is a curious fatality, therefore, that the white Democrats of the South should be so unappreciative of Mr. Roosevelt's position; while, on the other hand, it is a great mark of the President's magnanimity that he is not much swerved from what he had originally conceived to be the broad, historic path of duty by the casual circumstance that his policy does not for the moment please either race in the South.

A Suspended Southern Post-office. There has been another incident—and an extremely acute one—that deserves a little comment. At the town of Indianola, in the State of Mississippi, a certain Mrs. Cox, a negro woman, served for several years as postmaster in President Harrison's time, and she was again appointed several years ago by President McKinley. Her commission will expire in the latter part of the present year. She did not expect or desire re-appointment, but would have been glad to serve out the term. All the testimony—and there is an enormous quantity of it—agrees that Mrs. Cox has been an excellent postmistress. Her bondsmen are the leading white Democrats of the neighborhood. A few weeks ago, there arose in the town of Indianola a wave of anti-negro feeling, and two or three colored men were warned to leave the town. Then followed the suggestion that Indianola ought no longer to have a colored person for postmaster; and Mrs. Cox was called upon to resign. It is in dispute whether or not the request to resign was accompanied by serious threats. A formal resignation was sent by Mrs. Cox; but reports from post-office inspectors and others convinced Postmaster-General Payne that Mrs. Cox had acted under duress, and that she did not in fact wish the department to accept her resignation. Mrs.

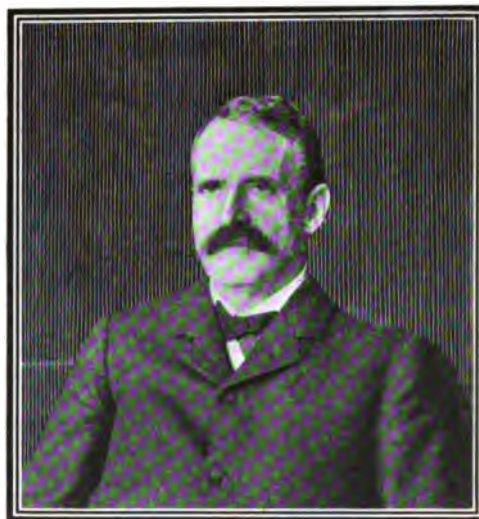
Cox, meanwhile, left the town, and the Post Office Department at Washington suspended the post-office, so arranging matters that the people of Indianola had to get their mail at a town some thirty miles distant.

Not Primarily a Race Incident. Whereupon, there arose a considerable clamor in the Southern press against President Roosevelt, not merely for the temporary closing of the post-office at Indianola, but for the alleged forcing of colored postmasters upon long-suffering white communities. The fact seems to be that President Roosevelt, out of thousands of appointments made since he came to office, has not named a single new colored postmaster in any Southern State. A few already in office may have been continued, as a matter of routine, by the renewal of their commissions. The papers on file in the Post Office Department show a large number of eager applications from white people (none whatever from negroes) for appointment to the Indianola post-office; and there is some justification for the theory that a part, at least, of the agitation against Mrs. Cox was due to the zeal of the supporters of the various rival aspirants for the job. It was not really a question, at Indianola, of white and black, but primarily a question of the dignity of the United States Government as represented there by a branch of its postal service.

The Real Interests of the Negro. We cannot say too emphatically that, in our opinion, as matters stand at present, federal offices are of no use at all to the negro race in the South. President Roosevelt has in the main acted upon this view. An exceptional appointment, like that of Dr. Crum, although absolutely justified by the President's logic and to be commended on several theoretical grounds, does not work well in practice, because it creates a local irritation that imperils things that are of real importance to the negro. Just now, in several Southern States, there is a strong disposition on the part of many white men to divide the State school funds, allowing to the negro schools only the amount of school taxes actually paid by the negroes themselves. Against propositions of this kind, the best conscience of the white Democracy of the South is arraying itself: and it will win the fight for free and universal education of all the children of all the people, black and white. This question alone is of a thousand times more vital importance to the negroes of the South than an occasional federal office. If Dr. Crum, of Charleston, had been as broad-minded and disinterested a representative of his race as might have

been wished, he would promptly have declined the collectorship at Charleston, thus using a conspicuous opportunity to make it plain that leading negroes of the South would rather be of real service to their humble brethren than take federal office at the cost of making it harder for the best men of the South to help the negro race in matters where help is really needed.

Roosevelt, Payne, and Party Politics. The South will, of course, some day see matters in their true proportions, and will then do justice to President Roosevelt's attitude, which has been so free from mere political calculation on his own behalf as



HON. HENRY C. PAYNE, POSTMASTER-GENERAL.
(Who stands for a great political reform.)

to be truly quixotic. He could with perfect ease have made his renomination safe and sure by the simple expedient of placating the professional negro politicians. Owing to the fact that more than a third of the voting strength of Republican national conventions comes from the Democratic "solid South," the President took his political life in his hands, so to speak, when he entered upon the policy of appointing white Democrats to a great many of the leading Southern offices. As for Postmaster-General Payne, who is said by the newspapers to be seeking to control the Southern negro delegates to the next national convention in President Roosevelt's interest, it is strange that the one idea with which he has long been most conspicuously identified should so often be overlooked. For many years past, Mr. Payne, as a prominent member of the Republican National Committee, has tried to secure the virtual exclusion of the South from national Republican conventions by a total change in the

method of apportioning delegates to the States. At present, the representation of each State is in accordance with its membership in Congress. Mr. Payne would base representation upon the actual Republican vote. Now, it happens that South Carolina at the last election gave McKinley only 3,579 votes, while Pennsylvania gave him 712,665, and New York about 822,000. On the strict basis of the popular vote at the last election, in a Republican national convention of a thousand members, Florida would be entitled to 1; Mississippi and South Carolina combined to 1; Louisiana to 2; Georgia to 4 or 5; Arkansas to 6; Alabama to 7, and the other Southern States to considerably more. It would not only be an excellent thing for the Republican party, but also a very good thing indeed for both races in the South, if a sweeping reform could be brought about in the make-up of the Republican national conventions. The Hon. Henry C. Payne, Postmaster-General, deserves the highest credit for his persistent work to bring about such a reform. He hopes to see it accomplished in the convention of 1904;—it would have been accomplished at Philadelphia in 1900 but for a lingering memory of services rendered in certain quarters in 1896.

New England Concerns. With many legislatures in session and various State issues pending, local matters claimed their full share of attention last month. There is manifest everywhere a growth of healthy and vigorous State and municipal life. It seems to us a total mistake to assume that the balance is so shifting as to indicate a harmful tendency to national centralization and a weakening of local institutions. From Maine to California, every State and every considerable town, last month, had its own affairs of throbbing and vital interest. In Maine, they were concerned more than ever with their forests, their fisheries, their manufactures, and their morals as affected by the prohibitory system. In New Hampshire, they were concerned with many questions raised by the work of the recent constitutional convention. Their new governor, Mr. Bachelder, declares prohibition a failure, and the Legislature is expected to make some modification of the present law. In Vermont, also, the liquor question is at the front, and the voters are, on February 3, to pass upon a proposed high-license and local-option law as a substitute for the present prohibition system. In Massachusetts, where Governor Bates has succeeded Governor Crane, the Legislature is undertaking to make a general revision of the corporation laws. In Rhode Island, Dr. Garvin, the new Democratic governor, has passed trench-

ant criticisms upon existing conditions in the State, and the Republican Senate, in its turn, has been blocking the governor's course by failing to confirm his nominations. Connecticut has honored itself by reelecting the Hon. Orville H. Platt to another term in the United States Senate. The perennial question of reform in representation has been brought to the front again by the new governor, Mr. Chamberlain.

Affairs in New York. In New York, there are always questions of such lively local interest pending that the people,—especially those of the metropolis as distinguished from those of the rest of the State,—are relatively ignorant of what is going on in the country at large, their newspapers being mainly devoted to local news and discussion. The Legislature at Albany readily agreed, last month, to give Senator Platt another term at Washington, in spite of the objection of two or three Republican members of the State Senate. It was expected that important consideration would be given in the course of the present session to the question what to do with the Erie Canal. Governor Odell, in his message, had declared in favor of a repeal of the famous Ford franchise tax on street railways and kindred corporations, and recommended as a substitute some plan for the taxation of gross earnings. This advice was promptly felled by a decision of the Court of Appeals declaring the Ford act unconstitutional.

General Greene as Police Head. Meanwhile, the second year of Mr. Seth Low's term as mayor of New York had begun most auspiciously by the appointment of Gen. Francis V. Greene as commissioner of police. General Greene has had so brilliant and distinguished a career that it is hard to believe—what is nevertheless true—that he is quite as young and vigorous a man as his pictures make him appear to be. He is not much more than fifty years old, but he graduated more than thirty years ago at West Point first in his class, serving six or seven years as a member of the Army Engineering Corps in varied but active and skillful public duty, and then going to St. Petersburg as military *attaché* just in time to be with the Russian army in its great campaigns against Turkey, out of which came several important books on the Russian army and on military history. After his return, he was in engineering charge of public works at Washington for a year or two, and for a time was a professor of military engineering at West Point. He then resigned from the army, and spent ten or eleven years in active business life,



GEN. FRANCIS VINTON GREENE.

(WHO BECAME POLICE COMMISSIONER OF NEW YORK CITY ON JANUARY 1, 1903.)

until, on the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, he entered the volunteer army as a New York colonel, subsequently commanding the troops as a brigadier-general at Manila, where he was promoted to be a major-general. He resigned from the army early in 1899, and during the great campaign of 1900 served as chairman of the local Republican committee for New York City. It is too soon to say much about General Greene's work as police commissioner. He simply took up his duties at the beginning of last month as one accustomed to command;—yet, without the slightest air of doing anything spectacular or sensational, his performances gave the community thrills of delight which were fresh every morning and new every evening.

A Disciplinarian on Deck. He found the police force of New York City fat, sodden, and in a vicious state of demoralization, largely through a lack of mental, moral, and physical discipline. The force had been overpaid and overpampered, although in some ways unfairly treated. General Greene promptly took the non-uniformed men who had been on special duty for years, and who were responsible for much of the blackmail and mischief, bade them get patrolmen's uniforms at once, and assigned them to scattered beats. He rearranged the hours of service in such a way as to give married policemen much more time at home with their families. On the other hand, he exacted far more vigilant and efficient service from men while actually on duty. He saw no reason for being tolerant in the slightest degree toward disobedience, negligence, or any shortcomings whatsoever in the rendering of those plain and obvious duties for which policemen are paid. All this, and a hundred other things not here to be enumerated. What the New York police department has needed has been a steady-going *régime* of vigorous and alert discipline,—not merely the formal discipline that one finds in a European army, but also the effective kind that is required in the carrying on of a well-conducted American railroad. When it comes to the work of the detective department, and to the enforcement of a certain class of laws having to do with the suppression of offenses against order and good morals, there are problems of a kind that external discipline alone will not solve. Yet the lifting of the department out of those vicious phases of its life that have been associated with its stagnant character will do much to help solve all the other problems. An important innovation inaugurated by Mayor Low has to do with the method of assessing property for purposes of taxation; and an account of this will be found

in a valuable article, printed elsewhere in this number, by Dr. John R. Commons.

An Active American Season.

A hundred pages of this running comment would not suffice to record the really significant political and social affairs that have claimed the midwinter attention of the American people from New York westward and southward. Reference to many of these will be found on later pages, in our "Record of Current Events," and some of them will be noted at greater length in our next number. Among these topics reserved for such discussion, one will be the great profit-sharing project of the United States Steel Corporation, and another will be the shaping of the municipal issues in view of pending city campaigns in Philadelphia, Chicago, and elsewhere. Others will be the election of a number of members of the United States Senate, the action upon important subjects of numerous legislatures, and the developments in the coal-strike arbitration.

The Great Indian Durbar.

The illustrated press of England, while finding the Venezuelan incident productive of some material, naturally turned toward the great spectacular celebration in India as the topic most entitled to pictorial prominence. The so-called "durbar" at Delhi, as arranged by Lord Curzon, the British Viceroy, in honor of the coronation of the present King and Queen, who are also Emperor and Empress of India, was in its external aspects perhaps the most gorgeous and striking affair in all modern history. It has earned for Lord Curzon the title of "stage manager for the empire." Mr. W. T. Stead writes for us on that topic as follows:

The durbar is no doubt a great scenic advertisement of the empire. But it is doubtful whether in the long run this kind of sentimental *réclame* is worth the money and the attention it costs. Behind these bejeweled maharajahs, though invisible at Delhi, are millions of starving ryots who never have enough to eat. If, as many observers declare, we are bleeding India to death—and the diminution in the natural increase of the population seems to confirm this—all this imperial revelry will not look well in the pages of history. The fireworks, we are told, were of unprecedented magnificence. Where are they now? They are a memory of the past. And that is what our Indian Empire will be if the present drift toward destitution is not checked by more drastic remedies than the most imperial of Imre Kiralfys can supply.

Chamberlain in South Africa.

A much bolder figure on British imperial horizons, however, than that of Lord Curzon, last month, was Joseph Chamberlain's as he moved from point to point in South Africa, receiving ovations, making

speeches, reasoning with Boer deputies, and bargaining on the one hand with colonial governments and on the other with committees of mine-owners and Uitlanders at Johannesburg. Among other things, he got the mine-owners to agree to pay about one hundred and fifty million dollars of England's war debt. Although the British seem not clearly to perceive the fact, Lord Milner, in South Africa, is both irritating and ineffective. Mr. Chamberlain, on the other hand, if at moments slightly irritating, is at least tremendously effective, and his visit to the vast theater of the recent strife between Briton and Boer will doubtless have accomplished much practical good. The thing to be avoided is the creation of a new Ireland in South Africa.

*The Irish
Land Pro-
gramme.*

Fortunately, there is some fresh prospect that the grievances of the Irish at home may in the near future be met by measures so broad and sweeping as to transform the unhappy island into a veritable Scotland of complacency and contentment. Landlords and tenants have been conferring with one another to the end of a much better understanding, and there is on foot a great programme of land reform. Mr. Walter Wellman, our veteran and brilliant journalist whose pen so often comes to the service of the readers of this REVIEW, has very lately returned from a study of the land situation in Ireland. He gives us the benefit of his observations in an article printed elsewhere in this number. It is a most hopeful outlook that he presents. According to Mr. Wellman's information, which was obtained from the best sources, the expected great programme of land purchase and distribution to tenants will be carried out as a leading measure in the ministerial policy in the near future.

*England's New
License Law.*

The most important topic of a strictly domestic nature in England has been the drink question, and the effect to be produced upon the sad prevalence of drunkenness by the new License Law which came into operation on January 1. This was a Tory measure in the interest of temperance reform, advocated by the great prelates of the Church of England; and it is much to the credit, on the whole, of the Conservative party and the Church of England that they should have given the country even so moderate a measure in restriction of their great ally, the liquor interest. The law is particularly severe in those provisions which require the listing of habitual drunk-

ards and forbid the sale of liquor to all such persons, under heavy penalties alike to buyer and vender. Provisions of the law also deal with especial severity against the growing evil of drunkenness among women. This new law will give wide room for the play of discretion on the part of the police; and unless a sharp lookout is kept, there will be a tendency in the metropolitan police force of London toward those blackmail conditions that have attended the operation of the liquor laws in New York. It is admitted by some of the London police magistrates that there is already, to a certain extent, a blackmail system permeating the London police force.

*Social Unrest
in England.*

The question of old-age pensions has been under fresh discussion in England, and there is a prospect that those widespread organizations known as "friendly societies," which have proposed a practical pension scheme, will find such points of agreement with the trade-union leaders and the members of the government as will bring about a national system of universal pensions for the aged and infirm. Such questions derive a part of their urgency just now from the prevailing distress on account of the lack of employment. Last month, there were great processions marching every day in London through the principal streets, taking up collections which were subsequently distributed to those who stayed in the parade to the end of the prescribed course. The largest of these processions had its daily start and finish in the Mile End Road, Whitechapel, and was made up in considerable part of unemployed dock laborers. In this connection it may be noted that there has been a serious relative falling off in the vast shipping trade of London, during recent years, and even if the times were normal, there would still be a large surplus of dock labor. Immense projects are on foot for the modern transformation of the London docks, together with the deepening of the passage up the Thames to the port. It is proposed to buy out the present dock companies at a cost of \$100,000,000, and to spend perhaps one-half of that sum in the deepening and enlarging of the whole system of water approach and shipping terminals. It would be fortunate if such an enterprise could be undertaken at once, inasmuch as it would furnish labor to many of the temporarily unemployed, besides permanently improving the conditions of labor and business in the great metropolis.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 21, 1902, to January 20, 1903.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 5.—The session is resumed after the holiday recess....The Senate discusses propositions to suspend and to abolish the duty on coal....The House considers the bill to create a general staff corps for the army.

January 6.—In the Senate, Mr. Hoar (Rep., Mass.) speaks in support of his anti-trust bill....The House passes the bill to create a general staff corps for the army.

January 7.—The Senate considers the Statehood and militia reorganization bills....The House passes a bill for the redemption of Hawaiian silver coins.

January 8.—The Senate debates the resolution of Mr. Vest (Dem., Mo.) providing for the admission of coal duty free....The House passes the bill to reorganize the Philippine constabulary force.

January 9.—The House passes 144 private pension bills.

January 12.—The Senate discusses the free-coal resolution and the Statehood bill....The House adopts a resolution instructing the Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries to investigate the coal situation.

January 13.—The Senate continues discussion of the free-coal resolution....The House considers the army appropriation bill.

January 14.—The bill suspending the duties on coal for one year and putting anthracite permanently on the free list is passed in both branches....The Senate passes the bill for the reorganization of the militia, with the provision for a national volunteer reserve of 100,000 men stricken out....The House considers the army appropriation bill.

January 15.—In the Senate, the Cuban reciprocity treaty is favorably reported by the Committee on Foreign Relations....The House passes the army appropriation bill and begins consideration of the Department of Commerce bill.

January 16.—The House considers Civil War claims.

January 17.—The House passes a substitute for the Senate bill providing for a department of commerce, with many changes.

January 19.—The Senate, in executive session, considers the Cuban reciprocity treaty....The House passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill.

January 20.—The Senate passes the legislative appropriation bill....The House passes the District of Columbia appropriation bill.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 22.—Secretary Wilson, of the United States Department of Agriculture, raises the quarantine on cattle in Connecticut.

December 23.—Mayor Low, of New York City, appoints Gen. Francis Vinton Greene police commissioner, to succeed Colonel Partridge, resigned.

December 29.—Commissioner Binger Hermann, of the General Land Office, resigns.

January 2.—President Roosevelt orders that the post-office at Indianola, Miss., remain closed until its

patrons are willing to accept Minnie M. Cox, colored, as postmistress.

January 6.—Republican members of the Michigan Legislature nominate Gen. Russell A. Alger to fill out the unexpired term of the late United States Senator McMillan....The New York Court of Appeals decides against William S. Devery in his suit for reinstatement as chief of police of New York City.

January 7.—Republican members of the California Legislature renominate George C. Perkins for United States Senator.

January 8.—Democratic members of the Missouri Legislature unanimously nominate ex-Gov. William J. Stone for United States Senator, to succeed Senator Vest (Dem.).

January 12.—Republican members of the Indiana Legislature renominate Charles W. Fairbanks for United States Senator.

January 13.—Senator George C. Perkins (Rep.) is reelected by the California Legislature....Weldon B. Heyburn (Rep.) is chosen by the Idaho Legislature to succeed Henry Heitfeld (Dem.) as United States Senator.

January 14.—Republican members of the Utah Legislature nominate Reed Smoot for United States Senator....Republican members of the Wisconsin Legislature unanimously renominate Senator John C. Spooner....Republicans of the New Hampshire Legislature renominate Senator Jacob H. Gallinger....Republicans of the Illinois Legislature nominate Albert J. Hopkins to succeed Senator William E. Mason (Rep.).

January 15.—President Roosevelt signs the free-coal bill passed by Congress.

January 19.—Republicans in the New York Legislature renominate Thomas C. Platt for the United States Senate.

January 20.—State legislatures choose United States Senators as follows: Arkansas, James P. Clarke (Dem.); Illinois, Albert J. Hopkins (Rep.); Michigan, Russell A. Alger (Rep.); Missouri, William J. Stone (Dem.); South Dakota, A. B. Kittredge (Rep.); Utah, Reed Smoot (Rep.). The following Senators are reelected: Orville H. Platt, of Connecticut (Rep.); Charles W. Fairbanks, of Indiana (Rep.); Jacob H. Gallinger, of New Hampshire (Rep.); Henry Hansbrough, of North Dakota (Rep.); Boies Penrose, of Pennsylvania (Rep.).

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 23.—General Nord, the new Haitian president, takes the oath of office.

December 24.—Four Maoris are elected members of the New Zealand Parliament.

December 26.—The National Indian Congress opens.

December 27.—The Roumanian Senate adopts a measure providing for the naturalization of Jews.

December 28.—The lower house of the Japanese Parliament is dissolved.

December 29.—The ceremonies of the "coronation durbar" in India begin at Delhi....The Sultan of Mo-

rocco is barricaded in his palace at Fez against the rebels.

December 31.—More than 16,000 prisoners in India are set at liberty to commemorate the coronation durbar.

January 1.—The coronation of Edward VII. as King of Great Britain and Emperor of India is formally proclaimed at Delhi.

January 4.—Elections for the French Senate result in marked gains for the Combes ministry....In a sharp fight with government troops near Guatere, Venezuelan revolutionists lose 57 men killed and many wounded.

January 9.—The port of Tucacas, occupied for four months by the Venezuelan revolutionists, is retaken by the government after an hour's fighting.

January 10.—The German Government proposes a loan of \$23,750,000 to relieve the needs of the individual states of the empire.

January 12.—The Congress of Honduras approves the election to the presidency of Manuel Bonilla.

January 13.—M. Bourgeois is again elected president of the French Chamber of Deputies.

January 14.—The Venezuelan Government orders a forced loan of \$92,400.

January 15.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 313 to 211, approves the acts of the government in the enforcement of the law of associations.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 24.—President Roosevelt receives the formal request of Great Britain and Germany that he act as arbitrator in the Venezuelan dispute....The full text of the reciprocity treaty between the United States and Cuba is made public.

December 25.—It is announced that President Castro of Venezuela agrees to accept the arbitration of the dispute with England and Germany by the Hague tribunal, subject to the cessation of the blockade and the return of the Venezuelan fleet seized by the powers.



THE LATE M. DE BLOWITZ.
(Paris correspondent of the London Times.)

December 26.—At the solicitation of President Roosevelt, the powers concerned agree to submit the Venezuelan dispute to the Hague tribunal.

December 27.—Baron Hengelmüller is received at Washington as ambassador from Austria-Hungary to the United States.

December 30.—France and Guatemala agree to submit their differences to the Hague tribunal.

December 31.—The formal reply of President Castro, of Venezuela, accepting the proposal to submit the controversy with England and Germany to the Hague tribunal is received at Washington....The attitude of the United States in the Panama Canal negotiations with Colombia is officially explained....President Roca is

named as arbitrator in the dispute between Peru and Bolivia.

January 5.—President Roosevelt appoints Dr. David J. Hill United States minister to Switzerland, and Charles P. Bryan minister to Portugal.

January 8.—United States Minister Bowen is ordered



LORD CURZON.
(Viceroy of India; conspicuous in the celebration of the Coronation Durbar in December.)

to return to Washington, where he will represent Venezuela on an international commission.

January 12.—United States Ambassador McCormick presents his credentials to the Czar of Russia.

January 16.—The German Reichstag adopts a resolution requesting the government to denounce treaties with countries where the "most favored nation" clause has been found to be injurious to Germany's interests....Austria-Hungary increases duties with a view to meeting the proposed German tariff.

January 17.—Russia, replying to Great Britain, declines to adhere to the Brussels sugar convention, and denies Great Britain's right to interfere in Russian internal legislation....A Venezuelan fort is bombarded by the German gunboat *Panther*.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 21.—Messages are sent by the Marconi wireless telegraph from Cape Breton, Canada, to Cornwall, England (see page 277).

December 25.—Long-continued and disastrous earthquake shocks are reported from Andijan, Turkestan.

December 29.—The American Association for the Advancement of Science meets at Washington....The Standard Oil Company announces the establishment of a pension system for its employees.

December 31.—The United States Steel Corporation announces a system of profit-sharing and a plan for the purchase of its stock by employees.

January 1.—Greetings to President Roosevelt are sent over the new cable from Hawaii (see page 283).

January 18.—A message of greeting from President Roosevelt to King Edward VII. is transmitted from the Marconi station at Wellfleet, Mass., to the station at Poldhu, Cornwall, England, by wireless telegraphy.

OBITUARY.

December 22.—Very Rev. William R. W. Stephens, Dean of Winchester, England, 68....Prof. Baron von Kraft-Ebing, the Austrian nerve specialist, 62....Robert M. Haines, of Grinnell, Iowa, president of the Iowa State Bar Association, 65....Ex-Gov. James S. Boynton, of Georgia, 69.

December 23.—Most Rev. Frederick Temple, Archbishop of Canterbury, 81....Ex-United States Senator Dwight M. Sabin, of Minnesota, 58.

December 24.—Col. Henry Clay Lockwood, author of "The Abolition of the Presidency," 68....George W. Thacher, a Utah pioneer, 62....Ex-Chief Isparahacher, of the Creek Indians, 90...."Nate" Salisbury, principal owner of Buffalo Bill's Wild West Show, 57.

December 26.—Mrs. Mary Hartwell Catherwood, the author, 55....Associate Justice Jackson Temple, of the California Supreme Court, 75.

December 27.—Mrs. Jessie Benton Fremont, 78....Rt. Rev. John W. Festing, Bishop of St. Albans, England, 65....Silas Farmer, author of a history of Michigan, 63.

December 29.—Marshall T. Bigelow, an authority on proof-reading, 80....Miss Carla Wenckebach, professor of German in Wellesley College, 50....Jacob Skanandah, a noted Onandaga chief, 67.

December 30.—Mrs. Sarah Blake Shaw, well known as an abolitionist and a reformer, 88....Ex-Congressman Henry L. Morey, 63.

January 4.—Charles J. Bell, professor of chemistry in the University of Minnesota, 48....Pierre Laffitte, leader of the French Positivists, 79....Richard Mansill, of Rock Island, Ill., astronomer and author of scientific works, 74....Bishop Gulstan F. Roper, head of the Roman Catholic Church in the Hawaiian Islands.

January 5.—Don Praxedes Mateo Sagasta, ex-premier of Spain, 75....Frederic Clark Sayles, the prominent Rhode Island manufacturer, 67....Gen. Eli Long, veteran of the Civil War, 68....Rev. Phineas C. Headley, writer of historical works, 82....Ex-Gov. Roswell Farnham, of Vermont, 75.

January 6.—Gen. A. L. Pearson, of Pittsburg, 65....Gen. Richard S. Andrews, of the Confederate service, 72....Dr. Bushrod W. James, the Philadelphia eye and ear specialist, 67.

January 7.—William H. Bradley, of Milwaukee, Wis., the millionaire lumberman, 65.

January 8.—Judge C. N. Buckler, the legal author of Texas, 58.

January 9.—Ex-Gov. Daniel H. Hastings, of Pennsylvania, 64....Prof. Charles Waldo Haskins, a well-known accountant, of New York City, 50....Baron Pirbright,



BUST OF THE LATE EX-PREMIER SAGASTA OF SPAIN.

president of the International Conference on Sugar Bounties, 62.

January 10.—Mrs. Susanna Edwards Butler, wife of President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, 39.

January 11.—Representative Thomas H. Tongue, of Oregon, 58....Ex-Judge Lucien Bolles Otis, 83....Rev. William J. Gold, warden of the Western Theological Seminary, of Chicago, 57....Gen. Samuel Thomas, promoter of railroad and business enterprises, 62.

January 12.—Chief Justice Henry McIver, of South Carolina, 66.

January 15.—John Nathaniel Clark, of Connecticut, an authority on ornithology, 72....Cardinal Parocchi, Vice-Chancellor of the Roman Catholic Church, 69.

January 16.—Prof. Estevan A. Fuertes, for thirty years Dean of the Cornell College of Civil Engineering, 65.

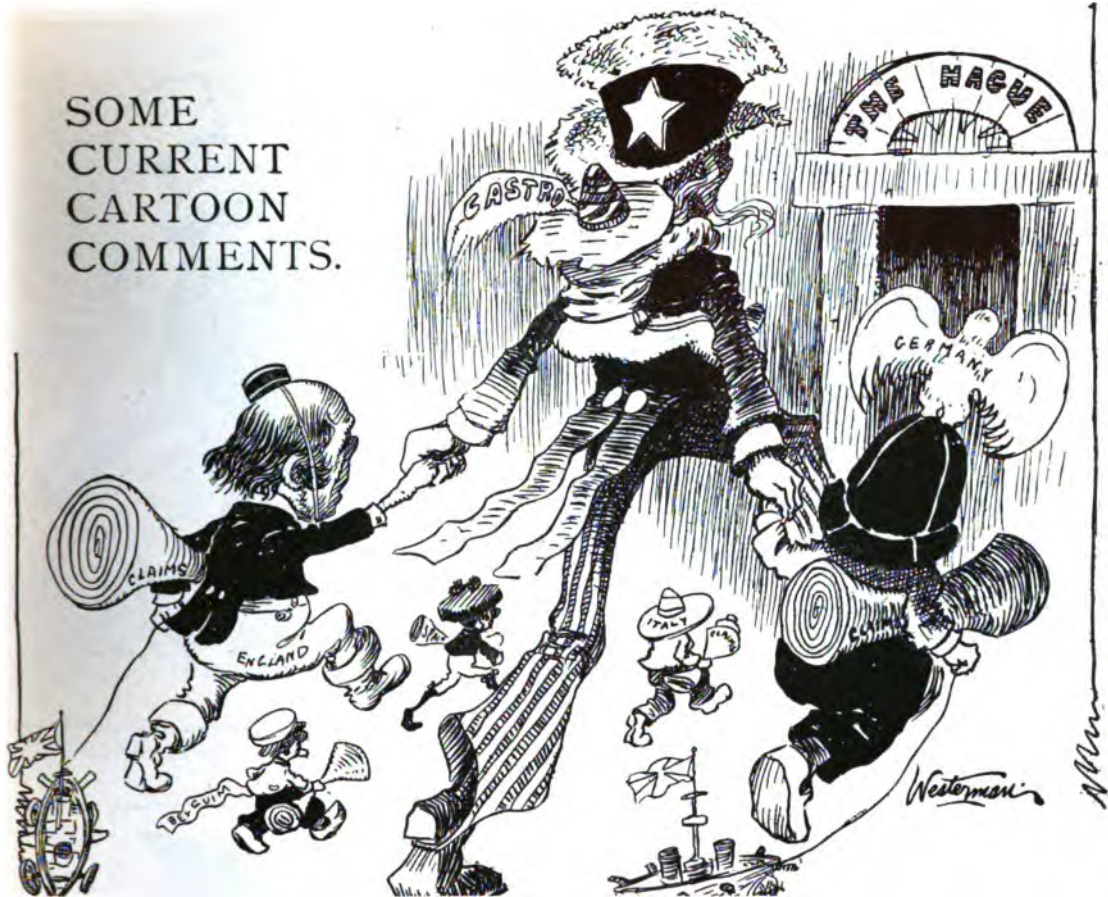
January 17.—Quintin Hogg, founder and president of the London Polytechnic Institute, 57.

January 18.—Ex-Mayor Abram Stevens Hewitt, of New York (see page 264)....Henri G. S. A. O. de Blo-witz, for many years Paris correspondent of the London Times, 70.

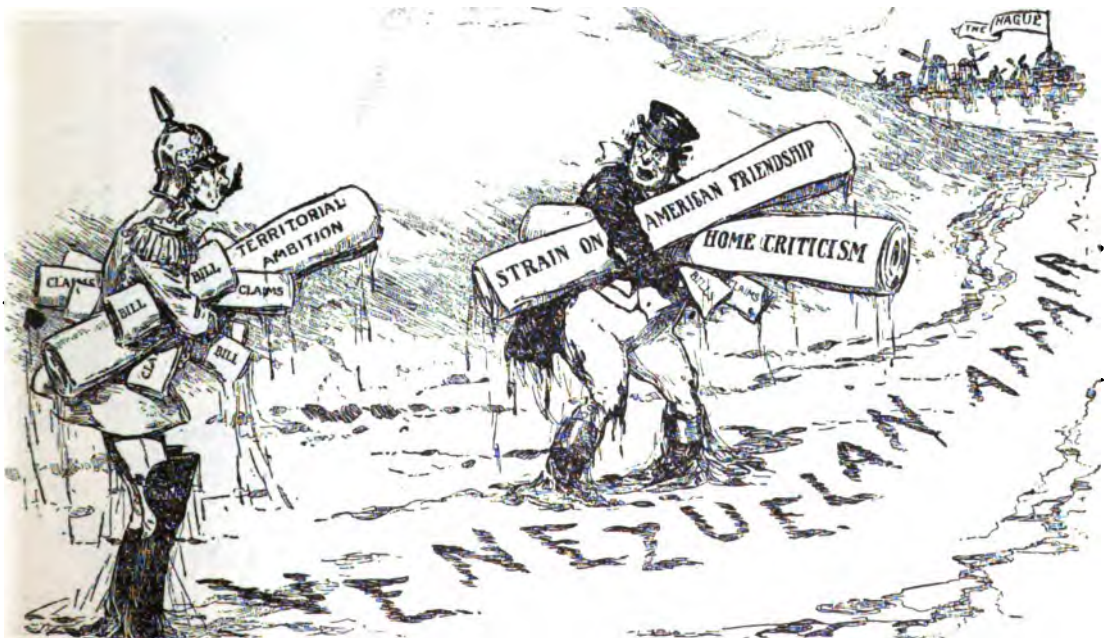
January 20.—Julian Ralph, newspaper correspondent and author, 50.



SOME
CURRENT
CARTOON
COMMENTS.



"COME ON, BOYS, HERE'S WHERE YOU GET A SQUARE DEAL."—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

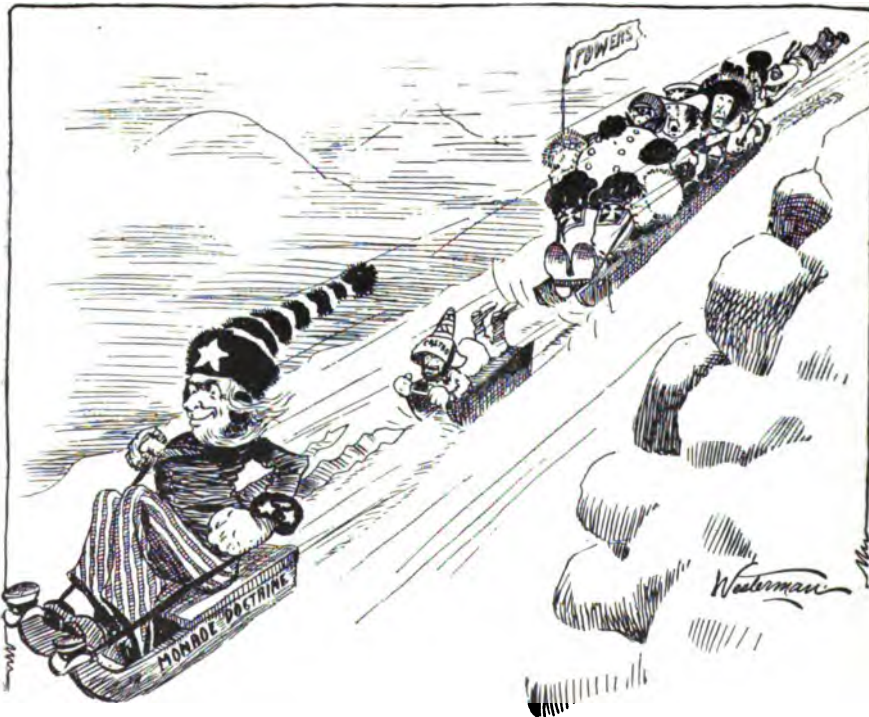


JOHN BULL: "A nice mess you've gotten me into!"—From the *Herald* (New York).



AFRAID OF THEIR OWN MEDICINE.

From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn).

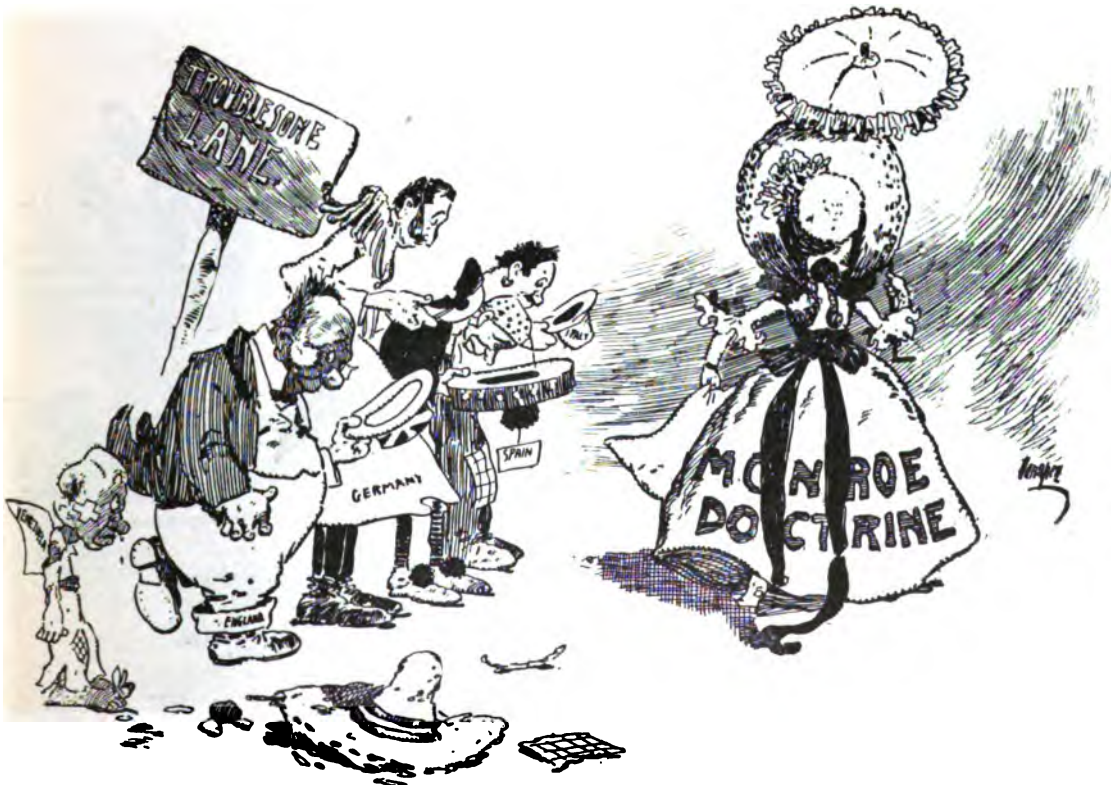


CAN THEY HIT CASTRO AND GET AROUND UNCLE SAMUEL?

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



JOHN BULL: "You would never have gotten me into this fix if I had known that Kipling was coming."
From the *Journal* (Detroit).



"E-V-E-R-Y-BODY TAKES HIS HAT OFF TO ME!"—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).



THE POWERS: "Would you mind caging yonder bird for me?"—From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



RAISING THE MORTGAGE.

If our Southern brother would use a little of his surplus energy in clearing his continent of debt, no one would find any fault.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



KIPLING THROWS ANOTHER ONE.

Last night ye knocked, and knocked us hard,
To-day ye fawn and smile,
And con us much and much and much—
Egad, it makes me bile.

Why, darn it, we uns just got through.
Our "burden stunt" was done;
And now to think we league anew
With the Goth and the shameless Hun.

—KIPLING.

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



KIPLING ASSAILS THE BRITISH ALLIANCE WITH GERMANY.

"When we stood forth, but they stood fast,
And prayed to see us drown."

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



MR. CHICAGO: "We'll show you whether you will shut us out."—From the *Journal* (Detroit).



"WE DON'T WANT ANY OF YOUR MEAT TO-DAY."

["Emperor William was greatly pleased when the Reichstag passed the new tariff law, which will result in shutting out American meat."—News item.]—From the *Press* (Cleveland).



CONGRESS AND THE TRUST PORCUPINE.—ABOUT TO HANDLE HIM WITHOUT GLOVES.

From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland).



SOMETHING DOING.

Hoar and Littlefield cut the switches for Schoolmaster Knox, while the bad, fat Trust boy awaits his punishment.
From the Journal (Minneapolis).



SENATOR HOAR'S ANTI-IMPERIALIST HORSE IS RESTING. WHILE HE RIDES HIS NEW HOBBY.

From the Tribune (Minneapolis).

ABRAM S. HEWITT, A GREAT CITIZEN.

BY EDWARD M. SHEPARD.

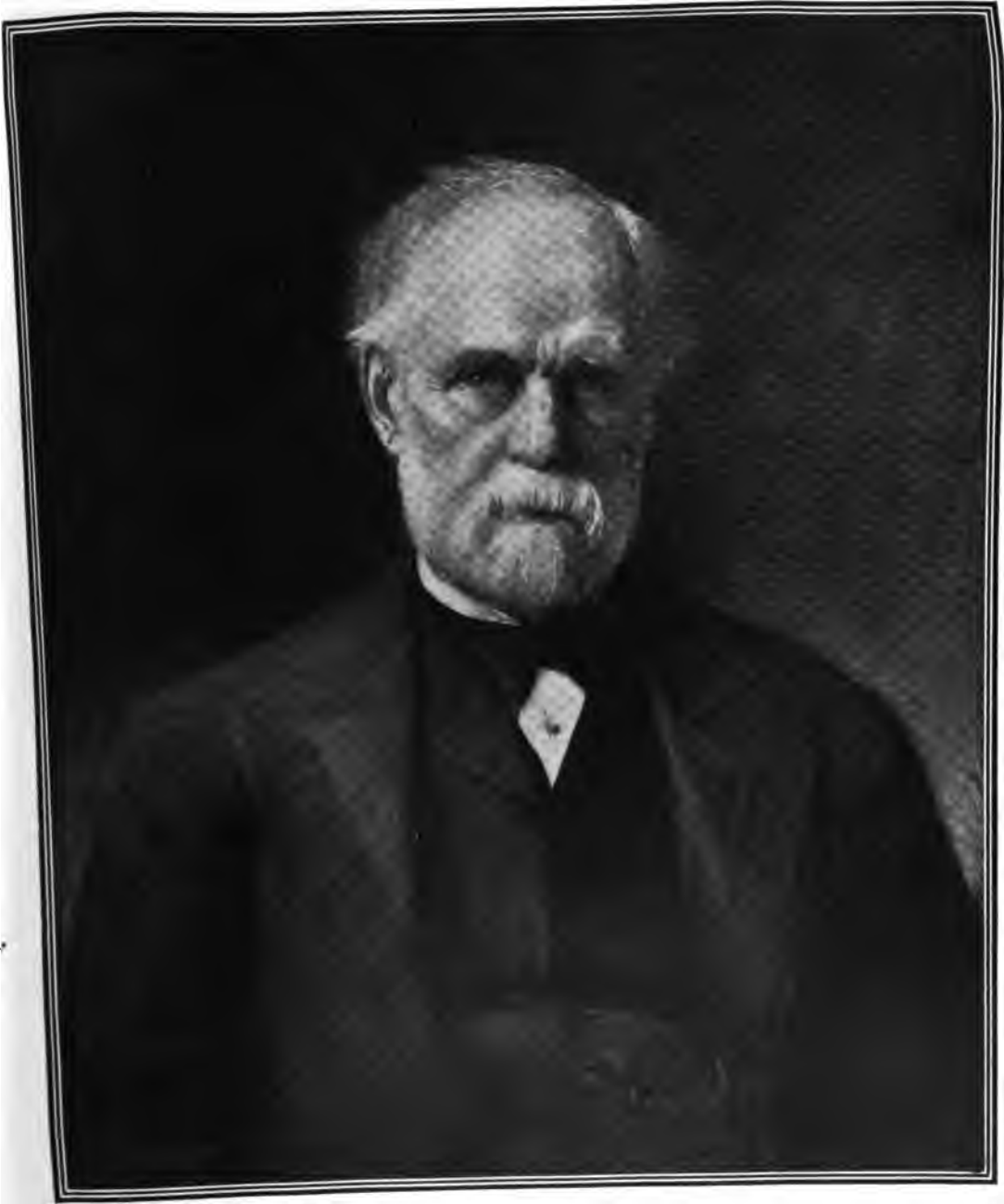
ABRAM S. HEWITT died on Sunday morning, January 18. It was a noble and useful life which, for us, then came to its close. For several years he had been a citizen of New Jersey; and in the midst of the wooded hills of that State, thirty miles from the City Hall of New York, he had for nearly a half-century maintained his interesting and delightfully hospitable summer home of Ringwood. But wherever his legal domicile might be, he had for many years been recognized by his countrymen, and in a perfectly true sense, as the first citizen of New York. In his achievements, his sympathies, his very idiosyncrasies, he belonged characteristically and for life to the American metropolis. Nothing affecting its welfare was foreign to him. None of its great causes or concerns was thought to be fully treated until he had spoken. He might be right or he might be wrong; his fellow-citizens might agree with him or differ from him; but they were not content to act upon serious municipal matters until they knew his view. His fame will always be part of the fame of New York.

Happily for himself and for others, no decay overtook Mr. Hewitt's career. After he was eighty years old, the fruitful energy of his intellect gave promise of continuance for many years to come. Within but a few months past, he took upon himself,—and with a perfectly fresh zeal,—new and important duties in the organization and administration of the Burke Foundation, a large charitable trust. If he talked, as he sometimes did, of the end of his work being near, he never meant to rust or decay in idle and sorrowful waiting for death. In the light of his gray eye, in his mobile and expressive face, in the emphasis of his speech, there was manifest until a few days before the last the unquenchable temper of further achievement,—of further service to men. A fine ending it was; or, as he thought and as I think, an ending of the first chapter, with infinitely the best yet to come.

The American iron and steel industry made rapid growth between 1850 and 1860; and in those years Mr. Hewitt, as he became one of our great ironmasters, became also one of the chief personal forces of our country. He was an able manufacturer and an able merchant, with extraordinary capacity for rapid work,—uniting

thoroughness and precision in detail with breadth of view and even genius in dealing with large undertakings. He had begun life as a student,—he was, perhaps, the most distinguished alumnus of Columbia College of our time; and throughout his life he remained a student, reaching honorable rank among the literary men of America. Not that he was facile in composition,—for he was not. What he wrote or said in public addresses was weighty in the best sense, always and plainly opening to others the well-ordered thought of an acute and richly stored intellect. He was absolutely free from the slovenly profuseness in public speech with which many worthy men in American public life afflict their country. Few writers of English have had a style so virile and lucid as his.

Mr. Hewitt rated very high the duty of citizenship; and he practised what he preached. Prior to 1857, he was one of a group of young men in New York, members of the Democratic party, but high-minded, and resolute, whether within or without their party, to make the government of New York honest. In that year he helped in the victory for honest administration represented in the election, by a union between Tammany and Reform forces, of Daniel F. Tiemann to the mayoralty of New York. A few years later, during the Civil War, he warmly and effectively supported the cause of the Union while he still remained zealously a Democrat in his party relations; and, although he widely differed from President Lincoln in some matters of policy, nevertheless he brought to the President's efforts to suppress the Rebellion an invaluable support. In 1867, he dedicated to the service of his country as United States Commissioner at the Paris Exposition his signal power of thorough analysis of economic, industrial, and financial facts. His report upon the steel industry of this country which was then made was a masterpiece. When the corruption of the administration of New York in 1871 by the practical alliance between Tammany Hall, then fallen from its better estate of twelve or twenty years before, and Republican politicians reached its height under William M. Tweed, he and his distinguished brother-in-law, Edward Cooper, another type of the best of American citizenship, joined with Samuel J. Tilden to clean the Augean stables. After the



HON. ABRAM S. HEWITT.

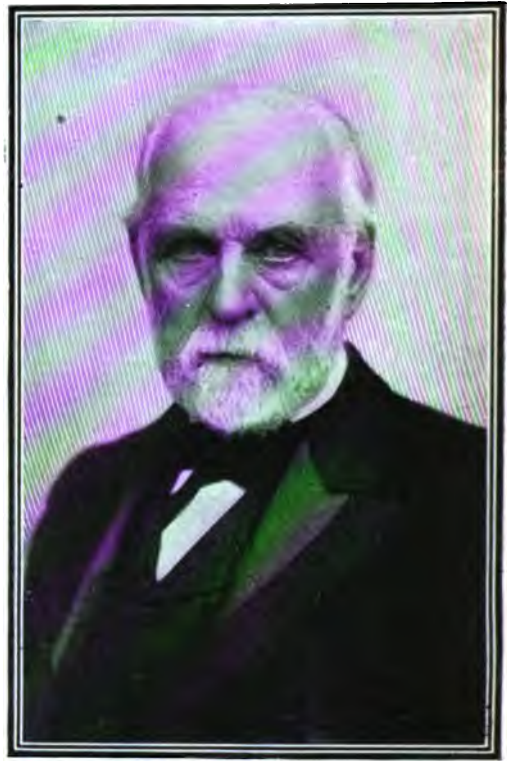
(From the well-known portrait by Bonnat.)

overthrow of Tweed, and in spite of his receipt of much well-meant advice to keep himself free from associations and details of political work, not pleasing to most men in his social and business position,—advice which he was apt to treat with rather biting scorn,—he devoted himself to the

purification of municipal politics and to the uplifting of the politics of his own party. In 1876, the Democratic State Convention of New York offered him the nomination for governor, which, to the very great misfortune of the State and of his party, he was compelled to decline because

of a legal disability arising from his having been technically a resident of New Jersey within five years before his nomination. In the Presidential campaign of the same year he was the chairman,—and a very able chairman,—of the Democratic National Committee. In the critical electoral difficulties between Tilden and Hayes which followed the campaign, he was no less resolute than patriotic. His own idea was that, if the case should be fairly and firmly made, the American people would not endure the gross perversion of their will by the audacious refusal to count the votes of three States as they were cast. He served in Congress for five terms,—in all, ten years. From the very first he was recognized as a leader. Although not then, and perhaps never, quite accepting the theory of free trade, he became a warm advocate of tariff reform; and he especially insisted that a wise and patriotic first step was the reduction of duties upon raw materials. His policy was like that of Sir Robert Peel, who had made the abolition of the corn laws politically practicable by an earlier reduction of duties upon materials useful to British manufacture. High as were Mr. Hewitt's ideals, he was eminently practical in his public relations. So long as the thing sought was in itself good, he did not hesitate to accept the cooperation of men, however different their ideals or principles or practices might be from his own.

In 1886, he was elected mayor of New York



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THE LATE ABRAM S. HEWITT.

(From his latest photograph.)



MR. HEWITT'S RESIDENCE ON LEXINGTON AVENUE, NEW YORK CITY.

upon the nomination of its two Democratic organizations. During his mayoralty, he devised and presented the substance of the plan for municipal construction of the rapid-transit railroad which is now being carried out to a triumphant success. His warm interest in that vast improvement continued until his death. A year ago, the Chamber of Commerce presented him a gold medal struck in honor of that great service of his to New York. It was a serious and an unnecessary misfortune to the Democratic party, and to good national politics and to the country at large, that after his party came into power in the election of 1884 no fit recognition was made of the inesti-

mable and exalted services of himself and his brother-in-law, Mr. Cooper, loyally rendered during many years when the party was out of power. Nevertheless, the warm interest of Mr. Hewitt in public affairs continued. In 1896 and 1900, he opposed the party; and at the last declared himself no longer a member of it. But he did not join another. In his opinion, the men of both the great parties yielded up far too much of their independence to gain power or to keep it when gained.

For a full half-century,—and never more than during the last ten years of his life,—Mr. Hewitt was a deep student of social science and an eloquent and practical preacher of the causes of education and of rational and effective charity. If any problem in this field were to be stated in our country, it became a matter of course for wise men to ask Mr. Hewitt to state it. His name must for all time hold a noble rank in citizenship, in statesmanship, and in all the services of far-seeing justice and well-ordered and useful mercy. To the administration of the Institute, wisely and splendidly founded by Peter Cooper for the higher education, chiefly in night classes, of those who were earning their living, he gave forty years and more of laborious and far-seeing service, besides his liberal gifts to its money resources.

Mr. Hewitt, as one met him personally, had many fascinations. He was witty; he had a trenchant and brilliant power of expression; he delighted and was often exuberant in high-minded society. He was not always cautious in utterance; sometimes he was impatient or im-

petuous or unrestrained in expression. No doubt, this often gave offense where, perhaps, offense was neither necessary nor useful; but it was due to a temper of impulsive candor that was a large element in the unique interest of the man. It was not uncommon for him to decide that something he had said was unjust or unfair and to make in his own way a generous reparation quite beyond the requirements of justice.

It would not be fit to conclude what I say of Mr. Hewitt without a reference, not only to his fine magnanimity, but to a tenderness about him which was real. I do not now recall an incident more characteristic of him than this: Twenty years or more ago, and at a time when he was overwhelmed with work, he became interested in the desolate grief of a poor cobbler in the upper part of the city whose son was under criminal prosecution. Mr. Hewitt asked me to help him on the technical side of an investigation; and then, on the other side, he gave for days and weeks his own time unreservedly, climbing long flights of stairs, meeting ignorant and importunate people, but determined that the father and his boy should get their rights to as full a measure as if they were his kinsfolk. The world will never know the thousand things like this in his career.

Abram S. Hewitt was a 'great American and a great man. Above and beyond all he was,—in his character, his ideals, and his practical life,—imbued with generous and noble faith in humankind and in the ultimate triumph of the goodness and mercy of God.

ALICE FREEMAN PALMER.

BY GEORGE PERRY MORRIS.

THE death at Paris, France, on December 6, 1902, of Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer brought sudden and stunning sorrow to a large circle of friends, and to an even larger circle of admirers. Not only had she been intimately associated with the undergraduates and the alumnae of Wellesley College while serving that institution for twenty-three years, first as professor, then as president, and subsequently as member of its board of trustees, but she had more to do than any other person with the federation of alumnae throughout the country, with the selection of deans and professors in women's colleges, and with the establishment of higher education

for women on a firm and enduring basis in this country. Innumerable speeches before women students and friends of their education, arguments before legislative committees and conferences of educators, letters of advice to educational officials and to struggling students, and ceaseless manifestation of what she said was the supreme test of life—"consecrated serviceableness"—had made her in some ways the most influential American woman of her time in the higher walks of life. For she not only had to do with educators and education,—she also was deeply interested in religion and philanthropy, and her words, her acts, her means, and her pray-

ers were enlisted in support of all noble causes. Hence it is that now she is dead it is possible for her associates in the profession of education to say of her such superlative words as these, by President Tucker, of Dartmouth College: "It seems to me that there has been no one of our generation, with the possible exception of Phillips Brooks, who has stood to such a degree for those qualities in which we must all believe with an unquenchable faith,—if we are to do anything in this world,—as Mrs. Palmer."

Mrs. Palmer's girlhood days were spent in Colesville, N. Y., a country town where her father was first a farmer of lands inherited from Scotch ancestors who early settled in interior New York, and later a physician. President Eliot, of Harvard, has suggested that in all probability the daughter's habit of self-sacrifice and of ministration to and for others was one that she learned from her father, for he belonged to a class of public servants—the country physicians—which President Eliot thinks is the most altruistic of all known to him. When Miss Alice E. Freeman left home, in 1872, to enter the University of Michigan, which she had selected rather than Vassar because of its higher standards and stricter discipline, she was in her seventeenth year. Plain living and high thinking had been the ideal of the home in which she was brought up. She was vigorous, vivacious, ambitious, resolute, and gave the impression of having a distinct personality even at that age. Hence, she at once attracted the attention of the president of the university, who happened that year to be responsible for examination of applicants for admission. Had this not been so, she might have been rejected, for her preparation had been inadequate, and she failed to meet the test of the entrance examinations. But President Angell asked that she be tried for six weeks as a favor to him, so confident was he of his clearness of vision in detecting latent power within her. The girl for whom he had become responsible made good his prophecy and justified his faith. In a short time the conditions were worked off; and from that time on her record as a student was a triumph of character and scholarship. She graduated with honor in 1876, taught for a while in schools in Wisconsin and Michigan, and in 1879, with President Angell's unqualified recommendation, she left the interior for the East, to accept the chair of history at Wellesley College, carrying with her much of the buoyancy of spirit, optimism, and spirit of enterprise of the section of the country from which she went, and which the section she was entering needed. A few weeks ago, President Angell, speaking in the chapel of Wel-

lesley College, after the death of Mrs. Palmer, said:

I received her into college when she came, a diffident girl, from her country school. I saw her through her college course, a radiant center of life and joy to her circle of friends. I saw her afterward in her schools, an inspiring and uplifting teacher. On my most urgent recommendation, Mr. Durant appointed her to a chair in this college. Soon promoted to the presidency, she wielded for years her extraordinary magnetic power in uplifting the hundreds of students under her care to the loftiest intellectual and spiritual ideals. Her influence still abides here. By her writings and her addresses, which for simple and pathetic eloquence I have rarely heard equaled, in what wide circles far beyond the confines of this college is her influence still felt! Among the women of our time, to what finer example could I point you of the power and leadership won and exercised in the spirit of the Master, seeking, in accordance with your college motto, "to minister rather than to be ministered unto."

Once at Wellesley, Miss Freeman found herself a factor in a most significant educational enterprise. Prior to the opening of the doors of Wellesley, in 1875, there had been many academies and seminaries in New England and other sections of the country where women had had excellent moral and spiritual environment and the sort of education which fitted them to make intelligent and excellent wives, and of administrators of such enterprises high honor must always be given to Mrs. Emma Willard, Miss Catherine Beecher, and Mary Lyon, founder of Mount Holyoke. But it had been left to Mr. and Mrs. Henry Durant to plan for and establish a college for women where women should be the teachers and administrators as well as the pupils, and in which the standards of scholarship and the breadth of the curriculum should be equal to those of the best colleges for men.

Like Leland Stanford, Junior, University, Wellesley College is the visible and abiding testimony of parents' love for an idolized son untimely removed from this to another stage of existence.

From 1875 to 1880, owing to deficiencies in the secondary schools, the college found it necessary to carry on a preparatory department, but when Miss Freeman arrived, in 1879, to teach history, enough had been done to show the public that there was hunger for the higher education felt by hundreds of women drawn from all parts of the country, and that it was possible to meet their longings for the higher education by instruction given by women.

With the death of Mr. Durant and the resignation of Miss A. L. Howard,—the first president of the college,—in 1881, a call came to the young professor of history to take up the task of presiding over the institution; and although

only twenty-six years old, and having about her on the faculty women older than herself, and although alien to New England by birth if not in spirit, Miss Freeman responded to what she believed to be a call of duty and entered formally upon the responsibilities, privileges, and honors of the place in September, 1882. From that time until she resigned in 1887 to become the wife of Prof. George Herbert Palmer, of Harvard University, she was the life and soul of the institution; and since her withdrawal as president she has been its guardian angel, serving it in a thousand ways other than formally as member of its board of trustees, always giving lavishly of time, thought, and of her means so far as she was able to.

She broadened the college's horizon, elevated its standards of scholarship, enlarged its religious and intellectual sky, and by her own spiritual power and her phenomenal capacity for entering sympathetically into the past history and future destiny of the pupils under her, she made the institution a source of inspiration as well as of information, and its ideal of education became that of Amiel: "making actual the potential."

And this she did in an atmosphere not overcharged with sympathy for the ideal she was trying to give a rich, full body. Lethargy suspicion, and open hostility toward the experiment in education which was being worked out at Wellesley were rife in some circles of New England. But, not daunted by this, Miss Freeman, with a courage and tenacity of purpose which has been revealed so many times later in her life, pressed on and triumphed. Of her, President Eliot, of Harvard, has recently said: "Mrs. Palmer was one of the bravest persons I ever saw in man or woman."

As an administrator, Miss Freeman saw to it that both teachers and pupils were held to higher standards of scholarship. She set about establishing direct and indirect relations with secondary schools, seeing to it that thus the college should have a perennial supply of girls fitted to enter it. She simplified and better coordinated



Photo by J. A. Lorens, Boston.

THE LATE MRS. ALICE FREEMAN PALMER.

the courses of study. She arranged that the faculty should have due recognition as the teaching body, and thus she ministered to the professors' self-respect. Being from her childhood deeply religious and evangelistic in spirit, she insisted that religion should have its due place in the life of the students. As the daughter of a physician, she knew the importance to women of health, and set about organizing the department of physical culture and providing for that side of Wellesley's life which made it peerless among women's colleges. Being wise as well as learned, and having that happy blending of ideality and practicality which is a characteristic American trait,—discerning European students of our civilization being witnesses,—she soon won the confidence of men of wealth and influence, and money for buildings, apparatus, and endowment began to flow in.

Last, but not least, being a winning and informing speaker, and having a persuasive power and an engaging personality, the new president, by her numerous addresses before assemblies of teachers, philanthropists, and men of affairs, attracted to Wellesley the friends and students it needed, and thus made its place secure. Life at the college took on a richer social quality, the institutional horizon widened, and all the time hundreds of young women were going forth to be mothers, teachers, missionaries, physicians, and authors, bearing with them the never-to-be forgotten influence of Miss Freeman's "effluent gladness," infectious idealism and optimism, and dauntless courage. Moreover, that spirit of helpfulness which, as Miss Hazard, now president of Wellesley, has pointed out, was instinctive with Miss Freeman, became the acquired spirit of the Wellesley alumnae.

When the life so fruitful in Wellesley College was transplanted and took root in venerable Cambridge and began to bear fruit there, it was the same sort of life in the main, only widened in its scope and area.

A model wife, an ideal hostess, an adviser and mother-confessor,—much as Henry Drummond in Scotland was father-confessor,—to scores and hundreds of individuals, men and women, who sought her aid and found shelter in her home and in her heart, Mrs. Palmer also was a splendid, patriotic citizen. Appointed by Governor Ames, in 1889, a member of the Massachusetts Board of Education, for thirteen years she utilized that opportunity to elevate the ideals and better the methods of education in her adopted State, pleading for more appreciation of the high schools, insisting on higher standards for the normal schools, standing firmly against what she believed to be unwise methods of teaching temperance while ardently believing in the principle involved; and in all things where the public was to be instructed or persuaded showing such remarkable gifts as a pleader,—especially before legislative committees,—that her colleagues on the board, as President Capen, of Tufts, has recently admitted, spontaneously turned to her for service as a "voice" more persuasive and potent, perhaps, than any other.

In 1892, Mrs. Palmer was appointed a member of Massachusetts' Board of Managers at the World's Fair, and in this place she showed her influence and taste. At the time of her death she was on the board of trustees of Wellesley, of Bradford Academy,—the oldest endowed New England academy for girls, in whose restoration to power she had recently become deeply interested,—and of the International Institute for Girls in Madrid, which, under the wise man-

agement of Mr. and Mrs. Gulick, is doing so much to leaven higher circles in Spain. The Palmers' home in Cambridge, with characteristic generosity, was thrown open and made the residence of Mrs. Alice Gordon Gulick and a group of Cuban matrons and teachers in the summer of 1899, when Harvard was nobly playing the part of friend and teacher to aspiring Cuba.

This is only a partial list of the institutions and societies which Mrs. Palmer served during the last, rich epoch of her life. Wherever she served, she showed practical wisdom, tact, prompt and intuitive sympathy. If President Bumsted, of Atlanta University, came North to seek counsel and sympathy, he found it in Mrs. Palmer. Presidents of colleges in foreign lands founded by American Christians turned instinctively to her for advice when they returned to this country in quest of teachers or funds. Donors to educational institutions for women in this country sought her opinion as to the form their gifts should take. Presidents of colleges for men often relied on her practical advice when facing administrative crises, and trusted her judgment in choosing candidates for executive and professorial positions.

Chicago University won Mrs. Palmer's assent to serve a part of each year from 1892 to 1895 as dean of the women's department of the university, and thus she laid the foundations and established the ideals of a department of an institution which is destined to have a profound influence on the future of the population of the vast valley of the Mississippi. One of Mrs. Palmer's last acts of public service was in collaboration with President Eliot, of Harvard, and other educational experts of Massachusetts, in drafting for the use of women enlisted either in women's clubs or in collegiate alumnae associations a thoroughly well-reasoned and sharply defined plan of action for women, to the end that they may better public-school conditions in Massachusetts; and as Massachusetts has been aptly called "the bellwether of innovations," this report, no doubt, will be influential elsewhere.

Often as she spoke to her fellow-countrymen on high themes, and much as she has done to shape the thought of her time, Mrs. Palmer leaves behind in published form comparatively little from which one who never saw or heard her can gain an adequate conception of her theory of life and her method of influencing her contemporaries. She seldom read from manuscript; more often she spoke freely, with due preparation when it was possible, but always out of a full mind and generous heart, and the charm and power of her eloquence was that of the sort that is indefinable and indescribable, but, at the



Photo by J. A. Lorenz, Boston.

MRS. ALICE FREEMAN PALMER IN ACADEMIC GOWN.

same time, very effective in inducing noble action.

She struck deep notes of feeling, again soared buoyantly, assumed the right would be done, took her hearers into her confidence; was brave when others were disheartened, plain-spoken when candor was necessary, was hospitable to new ideas, friendly to all good causes; had a social imagination, knew not what it meant to be other than democratic and sisterly, looked upon life as a joyful privilege of serving God and man, and hesitated not to speak and act constantly as if her mission in life was to elevate mankind. Her own experience when a child in the home and when a student had taught her that greater than the influence of books and facts is the influence of personalities and convictions, and she lived the remainder of her days as a radiant personality, fascinating men and women by her sincerity, her infectious yet

reasoned optimism, her almost supernatural insight into character, and her inclusive sympathy. More than most women of her day, she blended,—as President Faunce, of Brown University, has said,—the ideals of the old and of “the new woman,” the synthesis being a coalescence, and not a mere adhesion. Her service for others and her sacrifice of self were inevitable and natural, never conventional, and always individual.

Mrs. Palmer's most abiding claim to fame probably will be that she demonstrated conclusively that women must be admitted to a front rank in the leading profession of her time in this country, and that an American woman of culture and civic spirit can be useful to the state and to society at large while obedient to the highest domestic ideals, and this to a degree of perfection equal to anything seen in European aristocracy. She was not “rent asunder by a progressive culture and an arrested ethic.” Her culture was of the kind described by J. R. Green, the English historian: “Such a gradual entering into the spirit of the highest thought the world has ever produced as enables us rightly to know what the value of all work, and our work among it, really is.” Her aristocracy was what Theodore Parker called the “aristocracy of goodness, which is the democracy of man.” Her patent of rank in American nobility was based on her rich endowment with those virtues which President Eliot has defined as making an American aristocrat: “Fidelity to all forms of duty which demand courage, self-denial, and zeal, and loyal devotion to the democratic ideals of freedom, serviceableness, unity, toleration, public justice, and public joyfulness.”

In view of such a life-record, it is not surprising that educators and public-spirited citizens already have set on foot plans to gather from donors throughout the country an adequate supply of funds with which to create “an educating memorial” of Mrs. Palmer. And to this end a committee, with President Eliot as chairman, has sent forth an appeal for \$425,000, to be divided between Wellesley, Radcliffe, the University of Chicago, the International Institute for Girls at Madrid, and the academy and normal schools in which Mrs. Palmer was especially interested. Some of it will go to add to endowment, some to increase fellowship and scholarship funds, and to establish a professorship of social science at Wellesley, some to erect a building at Madrid, and some to provide portraits and busts of Mrs. Palmer at the many institutions which she served. Her influence has been more than sectional or national, even; and her friends are planning rightly to commemorate her service in an adequate way.

HENRY G. MARQUAND AS AN AMERICAN ART PATRON.

(Illustrated with examples from the Marquand collection, recently sold in New York.)

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.



HENRY G. MARQUAND.

By John S. Sargent. (Presented to the Metropolitan Museum of Art by a number of gentlemen. It now hangs in the Marquand room.)

FRENCH history tells us that when playthings were wanted for the young Dauphin, Colbert, the great minister of Louis XIV., seeing that other countries excelled in their manufacture, imported costly toys from foreign countries, and that such an insult to home trade aroused vehement protest from the French manufacturers of toys. And we can imagine that throughout the whole course of Colbert's administration the manufacturers and workmen grasped many an opportunity to condemn his policy of importing

foreign productions and foreign artisans. For, protectionist though he was, Colbert knew that to place France in the foremost rank of art-producing countries, her artisans must first attain a high standard of taste, and their taste he stimulated by importing from far and near specimens of the best products of the many branches of art industries. However the artisans of his own day may have abused him, the French art workers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries had only cause to thank Colbert for having raised the art manufactures of France to the highest level. The tapestry weavers of the Gobelins works, the potters of the Sèvres factory, wood-carvers, metal-workers, jewelers, printers, and bookbinders, soon found that French wares had the whole civilized world for a market, and to-day the French manufacturer of art products is still being benefited by Colbert's seventeenth-century educational policy.

America has never had her Colbert, but men of discernment can see in the proclivities of certain of our rich men to form art collections an incalculable benefit to the American artisans and art manufacturers of the future. For they see that art patrons like Mr. Walters, of Baltimore; Mr. Layton, of Milwaukee;

Mr. Corcoran, of Washington; Mr. Searles, in San Francisco; Messrs. Morgan and Vanderbilt, of New York, and hundreds of others who have donated small collections to art galleries like the Art Institute in Chicago, the art academies of Philadelphia and Cincinnati, and the art museums of New York and Boston, in their act of obtaining masterpieces of art of the past from Europe are performing the same salutary function of educating public taste that Colbert performed in his importing propaganda.



MARVELL'S LAST VISIT TO MILTON.

By George H. Boughton.

And the Congressmen who see in these art patrons only the enemy of the American producer, and seek to curtail their importations by a high tariff, simply prove themselves to be shortsighted politicians for whom the art workers of the next generation will have nothing but scorn. For every wood carving, every ivory, every bronze, and every painting that such pa-

trons are debarred from purchasing because of a prohibitory tariff is an incalculable loss to the generations of art workers to come.

It is, moreover, a laughable feature of the situation that the very men our Congressmen suppose they are "protecting" by this high tariff—the art workers—are the very ones who protest against such nonsense. Our artists are only too anxious to have the standard of art taste in America elevated by having the fine specimens of art brought into this country that men like Mr. Morgan and Mr. Walters are desirous of importing.

It will be seen, therefore, from this educational point of view, that although the Marquand sale (which took place in New York last month and occasions this brief paper) was simply the auctioning of the household effects of a private citizen, it had a national significance, for sooner or later every one of the two thousand articles disposed of may become an object-lesson for American art workers.

A word or two of comment and the bare mention of some of these treasures may give the reader a suggestive conception of what made up the contents of the house of a patron of the fine arts of whom Russell Sturgis said, in the catalogue introduction: "He bought like an Italian prince of the Renaissance. He collected for his own delight and for the enjoyment of his many friends.

A noble Van Dyck portrait appealed to him, and so did a Persian vase." . . . (In his house) "It was not really confusion; it was profusion. The splendor of one rich work of art need never do harm to the tranquil sweetness of another."

First and foremost, the English portraits call for mention. Typical examples of Reynolds, Raeburn, Romney, Hoppner, and Russell held



PEG WOFFINGTON (A PASTEL).

By John Russell.

their own though flanked by rich Renaissance tapestry, Persian tiles, and Roman glass.

It may be remarked that historical portraits of this kind may be viewed as ethnological data, for we thus have preserved for us national types; not as they might be in the wax effigies of museums of science, but caught in the very act, as it were, of every-day pose and expression.

Herr Conried, the theatrical manager, has recently said that "a national theater should be the linquiste supreme court; it should be the final appeal on questions of etiquette." Similarly does a gallery of portraits (as in the National Gallery in London) become a supreme court of bearing, not only indicating the deportment of our own time, but the carriage of bygone centuries. The Chesterfields that otherwise would simply exist in our imaginations as we pictured them while reading pages of history live on the artist's canvas vividly before us. So that a painting like Romney's "Portrait of Mrs. Wells," the eighteenth-century actress, has a documental value as well as an æsthetic value. The very charming pose of the figure, leaning forward and looking at us with an almost childlike frankness, is in its way as perfect an example of grace as are the Tanagra figurines.

We may consider this portrait as typifying the bearing of the refined woman *par excellence* of the eighteenth century.

But equally precious as human documents are the bust portraits of "Charles Lamb," by Raeburn, and of "Young Shelly," by Hoppner.

It was no slight matter to be able to gaze on



PORTRAIT OF THE COUNTESS OF NOTTINGHAM.
(By Sir Joshua Reynolds.)

the frank faces of these two great lights in English literature, to see them as they appeared in the freshness of their youth. The student of literature, apt to picture Lamb in the bent senility portrayed in the Maclise portrait (where he is seated before a table on which are two candlesticks) was glad to be introduced to this portrayal of the essayist at the early age of thirty.



"AMO TE, AMA ME."
(Painted by Alma-Tadema.)



PORTRAIT OF MRS. WELLS.

By George Romney.

Artistically considered, the portrait of the Countess of Nottingham by Sir Joshua Reynolds was perhaps the finest in the collection. Nothing could be more suave in outline than this profile, beautiful like a classic cameo.

"Dedham Vale," by John Constable, one of his greatest landscapes, is at first sight disappointing. The foreground is uninteresting, the cows poorly painted; but the middle distance is superb in its pearly grays, and it was far and away the landscape gem of the Marquand collection. But there were fair examples of "Old Crome," Rousseau, Corot, Decamps, and Troyon; several Turner water colors, very modern in their atmospheric effect; and a number of American landscapes by men of the older school, as Cole, Kensett, and R. Swain Gifford.

One of the very precious things in the collection was the "Madonna and Child," by Luca della Robbia, made from such common clay as bricks are made of and covered with no more precious enamel than covers our kitchen china plates, yet an altogether fascinating creation. The

figure of the child is as well-nigh perfect as a Raphael painting or a Michael Angelo marble, and the whole group is charming in sentiment. This, and the della Robbia "Medallion of a Young Man," and a baby's figure by the modern ceramist, Duquesnoy, indicated what possibilities there are in this much-neglected but now about to be revived branch of the arts.

It is not every day in the year that an American has the chance to see even the slightest example of Limoges enamels; and it is a red-letter day indeed when he can see an authenticated example of the master in enamels, Léonard Limousin, as he saw in the superb "Screen or Retable for an Altar"—twenty-one figures drawn with a Botticelli grace and rich in reticent blues, red, and gold, that Mr. Marquand in a happy hour had secured for this country.

George H. Boughton's art is not in itself of such a quality as to be on a par with the best in the Marquand collection. But his subjects always interest, and there is a rural charm about his "Golden Afternoon, Luccombe Chine, Isle of Wight" (which hung in the Metropolitan Museum for some years), and a human interest in his "Marvell's Last Visit to Milton," that cannot be gainsaid.

Although Mr. Marquand formed his collection of antiques entirely from foreign sources, as needs must be, America yielding little to speak of in that department (save a luminous window by John La Farge), in his collection of paintings he did not ignore American productions, for, out of sixty-five artists represented, eighteen were Americans. Still, it is to be regretted that among the oil paintings there were not examples of La Farge, William M. Hunt, George Inness, Winslow Homer, Dewing, and Thayer. Abbey was, however, well represented by his charming water color, "Mariana: Measure for Measure." The composition is not without flaws,—the Gothic cabinet is made too much of, the lute-player's figure is carelessly executed, and the pigments lack the quality of transparent aquarelle, but Mariana's pose is most happy, and the picturesqueness of the scene, and the details, knowingly wrought out, as in all of Abbey's work, make the picture a scholarly and a deservedly popular one.

There were painter-etchings by Whistler, Rem-

brandt, Zorn, Haden, and Herkomer, and reproductive etchings by Rajon, Waltner, and Macbeth, and engravings in stipple by Bartolozzi, Tompkins, Burke, and Caroline Watson.

Lack of space prevents detailed mention of the Hispāno-Moresque platters, the Japanese lacquers, bronzes, ivories, and pottery, examples of Chipendale furniture, exquisite Greek and Roman and Spanish glass, antique Dutch and English silver, perfect Wedgwood cups, and colorful Dresden and Delft china; Greek coins, ancient gold jewelry, cameos and intaglios, snuffboxes, watches, and other cabinet objects; Persian tiles, embroideries



LADY CATHERINE PELHAM CLINTON.

Painted by Reynolds. Engraved in mezzotint by J. R. Smith.

and textiles, Oriental rugs, and many other articles that go to make up that fascinating flotsam and jetsam of the art industries of the past ages that are the desideratum of the art connoisseur.

As Mr. Marquand was a charter member of the Grolier Club, it was not a surprise to find among his prints and books some precious examples of the graphic arts.

Among the mezzotints were John R. Smith's superb print of "Mrs. Carnac," after Sir Joshua Reynolds, which brought, as the catalogue tells

us, £1,218 at the Edgumbe sale—the highest price yet recorded for a mezzotint portrait.

A print of Lady Catherine Pelham Clinton and one of Mrs. Stanhope were both after Reynolds, as was the sparkling print of Lady Charles Spencer, engraved by W. Dickinson. Besides these and other examples of the "old masters" of mezzotint, MacArdell, C. Turner, James and Thomas Watson, and Cousin, there was an example of a modern master, Frank Short, "The Mouth of the Thames," after J. M. W. Turner.

Examples of paintings, engravings, tapestries, glass, ceramics, etc., when gathered together in the commodious exhibition rooms of the American Art Galleries, told the visitor very forcibly how attractive the houses of the rich may become if furnished by the treasures selected from the rich "finds" of antique art.

Even visitors who could not have comprehended one-tenth of the intrinsic value of the objects must have felt that the mellow canvases of the English school, the colorful Limoges enamels, the beautiful reliefs of the Renaissance, contained a charm akin to the language of Shakespeare or the melodies of Bach and Haydn.

But Mr. Marquand's beneficence upon the American art worker was by no means wholly the indirect one that accrues from the distribution throughout the country of his collection sold last month. His memory demands an inscription in the hall of fame of art patrons because of his interest in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, of which he was president from 1889 to the time of his death, 1902, and to which he presented the superb collection of old masters which hangs in Gallery No. 6, designated as "The Marquand Room." Here is Rembrandt's superfine "Portrait of a Man," Van Dyck's elegant figure of "James Stuart, Duke of Richmond and Lenox," vivid portraits by Frans Hals, Velasquez, and Terburg, and valuable examples of Van Eyck, Metsu, Cuyp, and Van der Meer of Delft. There are, besides, in the sculpture halls and in other galleries rare art objects donated by Mr. Marquand, that attest his concern for the welfare of the museum.

Henry Gurdon Marquand was born in New York, April 11, 1819, he was educated at Pittsfield, Mass., and was for twenty years manager of his brother's real-estate interests, and later, for ten years, a banker. He was president of the Iron Mountain Railroad. Besides his gifts to the Metropolitan Museum, he presented a chapel and (with Robert Bonner) a gymnasium to Princeton University; with his brother, he gave a pavilion to Bellevue Hospital.



MR. MARCONI WITH HIS INSTRUMENTS.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF CABLELESS MESSAGES.

BY A. FREDERICK COLLINS.

AT the present time, there are no less than nine companies prepared to build and install "cableless" telegraph apparatus; these are the British Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company (Limited), the Marconi International Marine Communication Company, the Canadian Marconi Company, the Marconi Company of the United States, the General Electric Company of Berlin, the Siemens & Halske Company, of Berlin; Queen & Co., of Philadelphia, and the De Forest Company, of New York City.

The various Marconi companies have equipped six stations in the United States, including the most powerful one in the world, at South Wellfleet, Mass.; their other stations throughout the world are at Table Head, Glace Bay, Nova Scotia; three stations are in course of construction in Alaska; five stations are in operation in Hawaii, while in Great Britain there are twenty stations, including the powerful one at Poldhu; in Germany, there is a Marconi equipment on Borkum Island, with its complementary apparatus on Borkum lightship; one in Belgium and another in France complete their list of land stations.

Of steamships carrying Marconi apparatus, there are eighteen vessels, represented by eight lines. The English Admiralty have land stations at Malta, Gibraltar, Tientsin, Hongkong, and Bermuda, and thirty-two men-of-war have Marconi installations; the Royal Italian Navy has five land stations and twenty ships equipped with the same system, bringing the total number of sets of instruments purchased by this company up to one hundred and seventeen.

In the course of 1902, over fifty stations and vessels were supplied with the Slaby-Arco system by the General Electric Company of Berlin, the countries supplied including Germany, Sweden, Norway, Portugal, and Chile for the Marine; in Russia, for the Postal Telegraph, and in Denmark for lightship purposes. The Braun-Siemens & Halske Company have over thirty installations in active service. The Fessenden interests have equipped several stations for the Weather Bureau, and the De Forest Company has land stations at Coney Island, Staten Island, Chesebrough Building, New York City, and Block Island and Point Judith, Rhode Island;

the United States navy has adopted their system, and equipments have been supplied to the United States Army and Signal Corps, Annapolis Academy, and the Washington Navy Yard, besides several vessels plying between the ports of New York City and Central America.

All these systems are capable of holding communication with vessels at sea to distances ranging from fifty to three hundred miles. Some encouraging long-distance wireless telegraphy over land has been done, and as to its ultimate value there is no doubt. At present, however, there is little to warrant belief in the elimination of the network of wires spreading over every civilized land.

In the field of telegraphing between ships, or between ship and shore, cableless telegraphy has, of course, an absolute monopoly. In telegraphing across intervening bodies of water, as the English Channel, cableless telegraphy is now a successful competitor of the cable system, not only in the initial cost of the apparatus, but also in the service rendered, and from this time onward cables will be entirely supplanted by the cableless method for distances up to three hundred miles.

The cost of submarine cables is approximately a thousand dollars per mile, including the sending and receiving apparatus; the cost of keeping cables in repair is enormous, while the only expense entailed for repairs in cableless stations is for an occasional mast damaged by storms. In transatlantic cableless telegraphy, the equipments cost very nearly half a million dollars per

station, against two million dollars for an Atlantic cable.

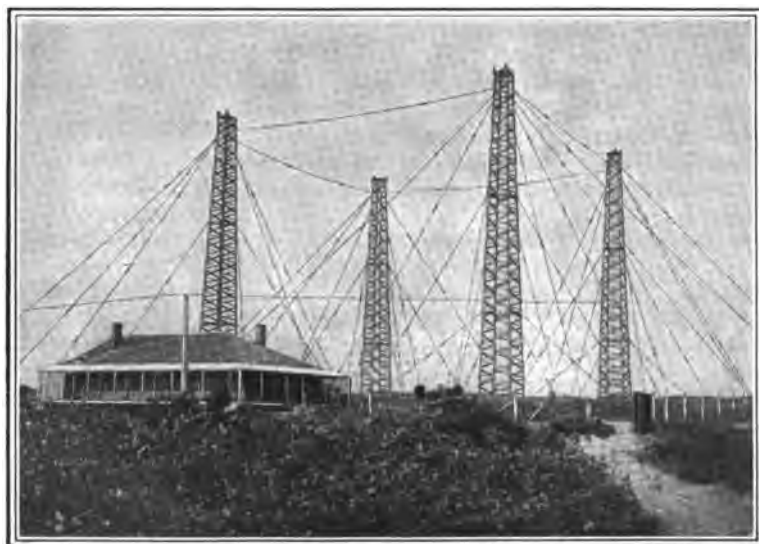
At present, transmission by cable is faster than by Marconi cableless, which is now thirty words per minute; but when it is considered that the cable system has been in existence for fifty years, and the cableless system scarcely more than as many days, it must be admitted that comparison on this score is premature.

The first cable systems were by no means commercially efficient; for example, when Queen Victoria sent her first message, consisting of ninety words, by cable, it required sixty-seven minutes to get it through, whereas the first complete message without cables, sent by Lord Minto, of Canada, to King Edward, contained thirty-two words, and was transmitted in sixty-four seconds. The cost of sending the first cable message across the Atlantic, in 1866, was five dollars per word, but in virtue of articles of agreement between the Marconi interests and the Canadian government, messages will be flashed to England at the rate of ten cents per word to the public and five cents per word to the press. The present rate for cable messages is twenty-five cents per word.

What does all this portend for the future? It is clear that every ship will be provided with means for communicating with every other ship or shore station, and thus the dangers of ocean travel will be minimized; every liner will be in constant touch with either shore the entire time it is traversing its route, and daily newspapers will become as common a part of a liner's necessities as her larders, and the writer believes that the cable will soon belong to the dead past and remain forever buried in its grave on the bottom of the ocean.

Attempts to send messages over great distances without cables have been occupying inventors ever since 1896, when the first tests were essayed. Attention has been given, too, to the development of a syntonic system,—the tuning of the instruments,—so that any one of a number of transmitters in the same zone or field of force could communicate with any selected receiver, to the exclusion of all others.

The transmission of a cableless message analyzed into its component parts in-



SOUTH WELFLEET STATION, MASSACHUSETTS.

(The first transatlantic cableless station to be erected in the United States.)

volves a source of electricity for operating an induction coil; this coil is employed to transform the low-pressure current into an alternating current having a very high pressure. This, in turn, charges the antenna, or wire, suspended from a mast and its complementary wire leading to the earth to a sufficient potential to cause the opposite charges of electricity to rush together, thus forming a spark or disruptive discharge through a small air-gap; and as a resultant, high-potential currents surge to and fro through the antenna and wire connected with the earth hundreds of thousands of times per second.

These high-frequency, high-potential electric oscillations lose their energy by radiation from the antenna in the form of electric waves, and the waves thus emitted are propagated exactly as are light waves, and having all the characteristics of light, the waves spread out in every direction; in fact, the whole process of transmitting and receiving cableless messages is not unlike the analogue presented in the emission of light and its reception by the retina of the eye.

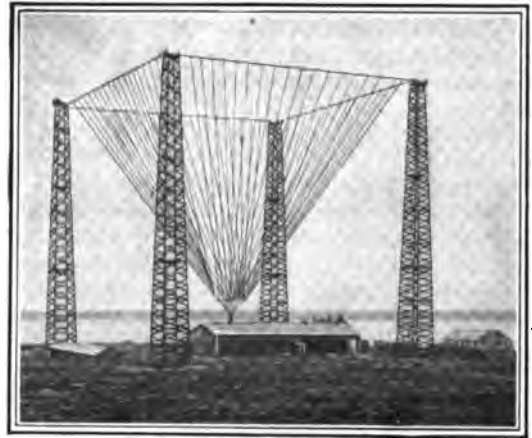
The reception of these waves is effected by means of a vertical wire or antenna similar to that used in transmitting, but the specific difference between the sending and receiving terminal lies in connecting the antenna and grounded wires with some metal filings inclosed in a small glass tube or coherer, instead of the spark-gap. When the electric waves impinge upon the antenna they are converted into electric oscillations, and these, acting on the filings, cause them to draw together, or cohere; lessening the resistance they nominally offer to current electricity derived from a battery, the latter flows through the filings and an auxiliary circuit and registers the impulses on a ribbon of paper in readable Morse dots and dashes.

The distance to which messages may be transmitted and received without wires depends upon a number of factors, the principal one being the initial amount of energy employed, the frequency of oscillation in the antenna or radiating system, the length of the electric waves emitted, the height of the antenna from the ground, the medium over and through which the electric waves are propagated, the sensitiveness of the coherer or other wave-detecting device at the receiving station, and the precision with which the instruments are adjusted.

Experiment has proven that long electric waves are radiated to greater distances than the shorter ones, on the principle that long sound waves emitted by a large bell travel farther than short waves propagated by a small bell; that long-distance cableless transmission is an accomplished fact is due in no small measure to

the employment of long electric waves. By long electric waves are meant those approximating a mile in length, and those waves measuring a foot in length—more or less—are assumed to be short ones. These are, of course, arbitrary terms, for waves a foot in length are exceedingly long when compared with waves of light; for example, red waves measure only 271 ten-millionths of an inch in length.

Electric waves may be produced of any desired length by decreasing the frequency with which the current surges through the antenna and ground wire, and this periodicity of oscillation,



GLACE BAY CABLELESS STATION, SIDNEY, NOVA SCOTIA.
(Showing arrangement of antenna.)

as it is called, depends entirely on the size or electrical dimensions of the antenna and grounded terminal.

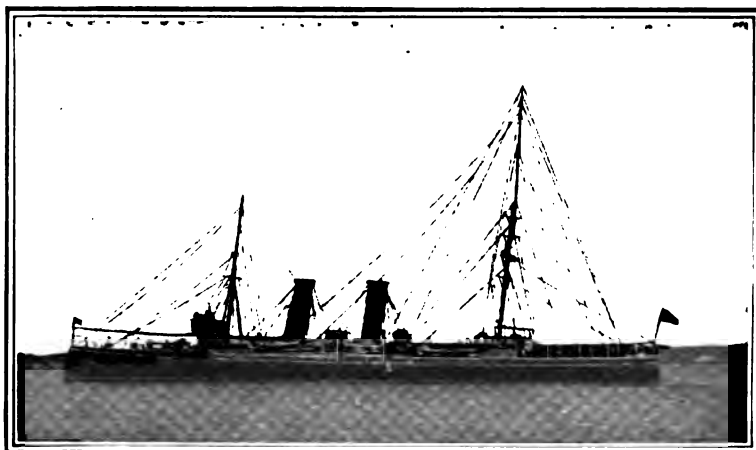
When the wire or wires forming the antenna are quite long, and are suspended from the top of a very high mast, and its complementary wire is connected to the earth, its electrical as well as its mechanical dimensions are very greatly increased, and a longer period of time or a "higher time constant" is required for the current to oscillate through it. The waves are therefore increased in length. By adding more wires to the antenna, the length of the waves is similarly increased. From this it will be observed that the higher the antenna and the greater the number of wires of which it is composed, the farther the effective distance obtained.

Marconi, in his first transatlantic test, it will be remembered, employed kites and balloons carrying the vertical wire, so that long electric waves could be obtained, and prior to that he evolved a law showing that with a given current, instruments of a specific size, and with a parity of all other factors, the distance to

which signals could be transmitted increased as the square of the length of the antenna; that is to say, if a vertical wire twenty feet in length would send and receive one mile, a wire forty feet in length would operate four miles, and one eighty feet in length a distance of sixteen miles, etc.

The construction of the multiplex antenna at Poldhu, Glace Bay, and the new Wellfleet station in Massachusetts, where further experiments in transatlantic cableless communication is now being made by Mr. Marconi, is arranged with the object of emitting powerful and penetrating long electric waves.

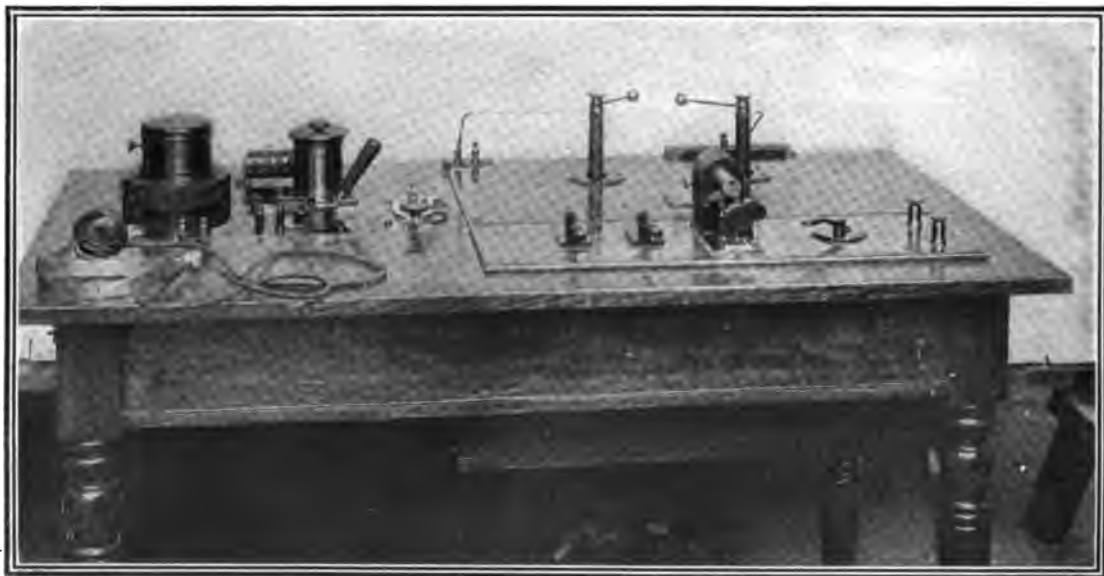
The medium over and through which the waves travel determines largely the distance to which transmission may be made effectual, the factors being taken as constant; for example, when the waves are propagated over the sea or other bodies of water, they are radiated nearly ten times the distance they are over land. This is largely attributed to the fact that the land offers many intervening obstacles which intercept, diminish, and in some instances annihilate the waves.



H. M. S. "THETIS," AT DELAGOA BAY, SHOWING MARCONI SPRIT.
(One of the thirty-two British men-of-war equipped with this system.)

Formerly, it was believed that the antenna of the transmitter and its complementary receiver should necessarily be in a direct visual line with each other, since electric waves, like those of light, are propagated in straight lines, and as a natural sequence it was also supposed that the curvature of the earth,—which may be graphically stated to be a mountain of water rising one hundred and ten miles in height between England and America,—would act as an absolute barrier to the transmission of messages.

These ideas have been proven erroneous time



FESSENDEN WIRELESS TELEGRAPH SYSTEM. STANDARD STATION SET.

(Messages are received by means of head telephones after being translated by the "barretter," a wave-detecting device.)

and again during the past year, and the message sent from Glace Bay to Poldhu demonstrated the practicability of transmission conclusively for distances of two thousand miles, and, it may be safely assumed, much farther, so new hypotheses were formulated to explain the phenomenon which to-day is as obscure and difficult of proof as ever; but while theorists are cudgeling the brains of science to solve the mystery, electric waves are traversing the omnipresent ether, linking two continents, with the rapidity of light, and messages are clicked off merrily on either shore, ignorance of the laws notwithstanding.

In this age of microscopic details as well as gigantic totalities, when it is possible to measure a wave of light of the order of ten-millionths of an inch or transmit a message across an ocean, it is not surprising that the sensitiveness of the devices for detecting electric waves has been brought to its maximum value, and that the precision of adjustment of other portions of the instruments is as fine as human ingenuity can make it.

Considering the factors of transmission collectively, it is self-evident that to send messages without wires over any distance, however great, the problem is now resolved into one for the elec-



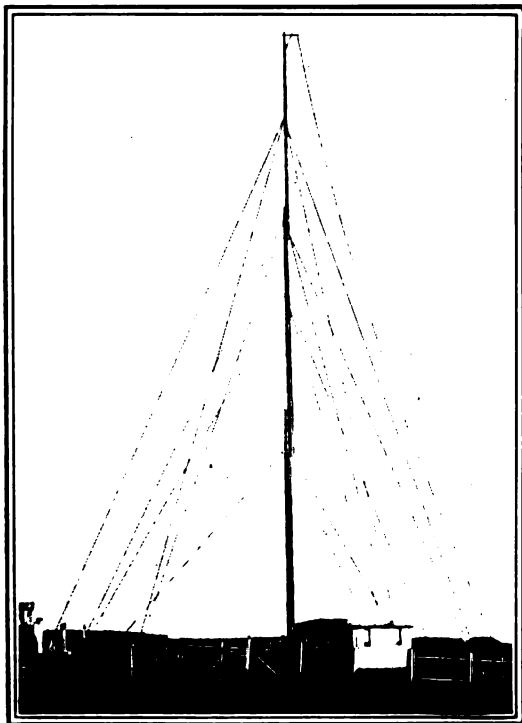
FESSENDEN PORTABLE WIRELESS TELEGRAPH APPARATUS FOR FIELD USE.

trical engineer rather than for the inventive genius, and consists of the most feasible method of transforming a large quantity of electricity at ordinary pressure into electric oscillations of enormous potential and high frequency, and the mechanical difficulties involving such a process.

For distances of eighty or one hundred miles, energy equivalent to one horse-power is sufficient for transmission. Marconi employed only twenty-five horse-power at the Poldhu station in sending his first signals across the Atlantic, a year ago; at the Glace Bay station, the generator is connected with a forty-horse-power engine, while at the Wellfleet, Mass., station, one hundred horse-power will be at the service of the inventor.

In these great stations, the engines are coupled with alternating-current dynamos generating electricity at a pressure of 2,000 volts, which is then converted, by commercial transformers, to a potential of 20,000 volts; a battery of oil condensers is constantly charged by this high-voltage current, and these discharge through a spark-gap formed by the terminals of the antenna and ground wire. With generators capable of transmitting intelligence over a distance of two thousand miles, it is evident that the question of the practicability of long-distance cableless telegraphy is closed. Having brought long-distance transmission within the pale of the known laws governing the action of electric currents, the problem now to be attacked, and an infinitely more difficult one of solution, is that presented in syntonization.

Lord Rayleigh, Dr. Trowbridge, Herr Lesher, M. Ferrie, Professor Siebt, and a host of other workers have taken up the purely scientific phase of selective signaling, or syntononic wireless telegraphy, and by their combined efforts—though each has investigated independently—not only the theoretical requirements but the



THE BRAUN SYSTEM OF WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.
(Exterior of station at Heligoland, Frisian Island, North Sea.)



DR. FERDINAND BRAUN AND HIS STATION AT HELIGOLAND, FRISIAN ISLAND, NORTH SEA.

(Dr. Braun in center.)

experimental physics of such a system has been shown possible, while Mr. Marconi, Professor Fleming, and Principal Lodge, of England, Dr. Slaby and Professor Braun, of Germany, and Professor Fessenden and Mr. Stone, of the United States, have all bended their energies toward the fulfillment of a practical tuned system, and the time is now at hand for its commercial appearance.

A selective system of space telegraphy such as these workers desire to produce may be likened to that of acoustic resonance as exemplified by the action of tuning-forks, organ-pipes, or other mechanically vibrating bodies. Thus, let two tuning-forks of the same size, tone, and pitch be arranged near each other; now, if one is made to give forth its note, the other will be affected through the medium of the air and will respond audibly, the operation being termed sympathetic resonance.

The principles involved in this case are simple; when the prongs of the first fork are made to vibrate, the mechanical energy imparted to it is damped out by transformation into sound waves set up in the air, and the waves, impinging on the prongs of the complementary fork, beat it into rhythmical vibration, when it re-

sponds to its greatest capacity and the original note is reproduced.

But let a tuning-fork of any other size than one in syntony with it be made to vibrate, whatever its proximity may be to the second fork, there will be no sound, for the radiator sending out the waves and the resonator receiving the waves must be absolutely in tune, or resonance will not be possible.

Now, the surging of high-potential currents in the antenna and ground wire forming the radiator system, and the reception of the emitted waves and their transformation into oscillations by the resonator system, as the receiving antenna and ground wire are termed, is an exact electrical analogue of the physical effect obtained with the tuning-forks.

The great difficulty in syntonizing or tuning cableless-telegraph apparatus lies in proportioning the radiator and resonator systems so that they will be of the same dimensions. In acoustics, it is easy to determine when resonance obtains by the sense of hearing, but in tuning electrical circuits there may be a subtle variance in their relations that will be revealed only by the most patient investigation and overcome by the most persistent experimentation.

As early as 1898, Sir Oliver Lodge exhibited a miniature tuned wireless-telegraph system at the Royal Society Conversazione; it worked with exceeding accuracy, which must be attributed, in the light of recent experiments, to the fact that no ground wires were employed. For long-distance transmission, it has been found necessary to utilize the earth as a factor, for the purpose of giving to the transmitter and receiver equal electrical proportions; that is to say, the earth is surcharged to a certain extent with electricity, the latter varying constantly under the influence of meteorological conditions, as well as by the conditions prevailing in the earth itself, rendering it extremely difficult, if not, indeed, impossible, to obtain resonance over any considerable distance.

Dr. Braun has evolved a syntonic system in which he eliminates the earth as a portion of the apparatus, but the effective distance is not great. Professor Slaby has developed a tuned system with which he received two messages simul-

taneously over the same wire, before the German Emperor; Mr. Stone has had some fifteen patents issued to him for a resonance system of telegraphy, and Professor Fessenden has attacked the problem afresh by combining electrical resonance with acoustic resonance; and, finally, Mr. Marconi has given his best thought and a large measure of his time to the riddle of syntonization. It is therefore safe to assert that within the year communications will be flashed cablelessly across, not only the Atlantic but the Pacific Ocean, connecting all our newly acquired possessions in the far East with a system of transmission that is at once indestructible by the elements of nature or by the design of man, for the connecting medium is as endurable as time itself, and with the perfected method there will be not the slightest fear of tapping a message, for secrecy is one of the characteristics of the ether, and messages will be transmitted between any two of a thousand stations without conflict or confusion.

THE CABLES ACROSS THE PACIFIC.

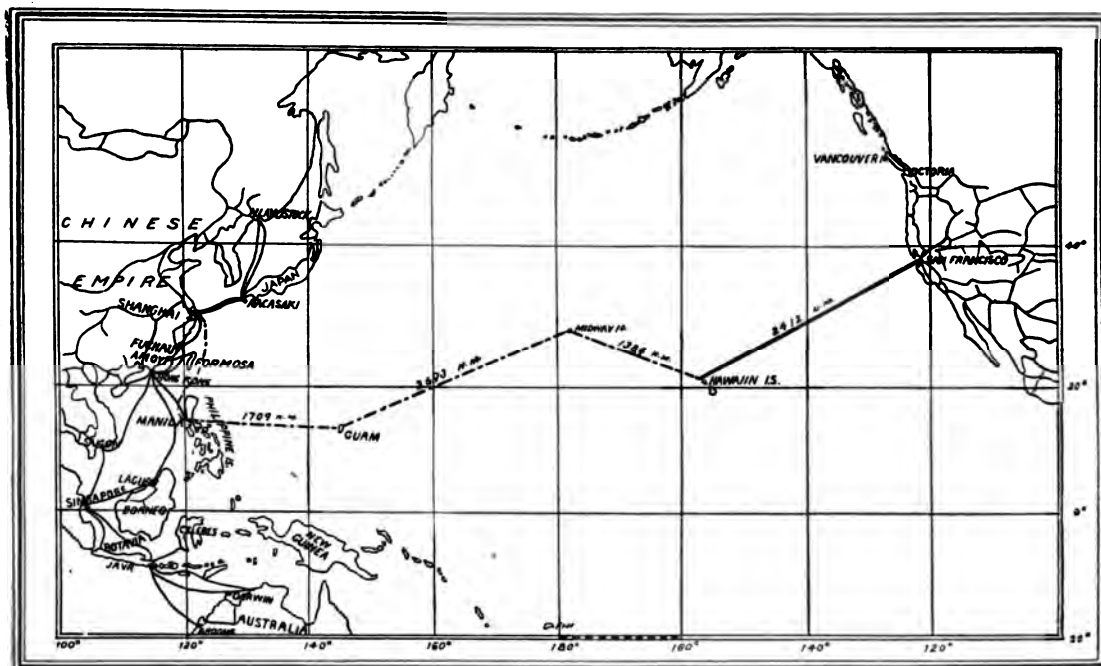
BY THOMAS COMMERFORD MARTIN.

WHEN the American Institute of Electrical Engineers gave its famous banquet to Marconi, last year, in New York, to celebrate his jumping the letter "S" across the Atlantic through the tenuous ether, one of the amusing incidents of that memorable night was the reading of a letter from Mr. George G. Ward, the well-known cable manager, who apologized gracefully for his involuntary absence because he was out in California planning for the work on the Mackay Pacific cable. This touched the sense of humor of the members quite keenly, for mankind always delights in antithesis. At such a moment, when all the world was ringing with the news of an achievement that should abolish cables, there was a striking dramatic effect in this reminder that the greatest cable enterprises ever known were nevertheless being pushed steadfastly to completion.

Some of the older readers of this REVIEW will remember that just as the transcontinental land lines of Collins westward across our Oregonian and Alaskan territories, and thence *via* Bering Straits through Siberia, were nearly finished, establishing telegraphic communication between Europe and America, the success of the Atlantic cable was finally attained. On the instant, the great Western Union scheme and invest-

ment fell in failure. Virtually all traces of the aerial line have now disappeared, save where a wandering Indian still gleams some of the abandoned wire for his snares of fish or wild beast. Even if there were not this historical parallel so full of grim significance, a doubt might naturally arise whether any ocean cables are longer necessary in the swift exchange of cosmic intelligence, for during the past year Mr. Marconi has gone further yet, and has sent and received streams of messages across more than two thousand miles of sea.

But, weighing all the technical and financial pros and cons, the men who are most deeply interested in cables have decided that there will be, for an indefinitely protracted period, a call for their service. I should not be surprised to see an addition to the number of cables in the Atlantic to Europe; and meantime an American-made cable six hundred miles in length has recently been laid in the Gulf of Mexico. All this would imply a belief that however great Mr. Marconi's triumphs may become, room in abundance will still be left for the submarine cable. If that be true of the narrower seas, then it has vastly more pertinence in regard to the magnificent distances of the Pacific Ocean, now the scene of the greatest international movements,



THE ALL-AMERICAN PACIFIC CABLE.

(The distances are given in nautical miles; total length of cable from San Francisco to Manila, 8,196 miles.)

and the arena where Americans and Englishmen are again in generous but accentuated rivalry over cable matters.

It is more than fifty years since the first submarine cable for commercial use was laid in the Straits of Dover; but all the work since 1851 in reticulating the ocean beds with 200,000 miles of cable has been a training for the severer problems of the Pacific, a deeper body of water, with longer spans than any previously encountered. All the other 1,750 cables, little and big, have afforded lessons of value for this, the holdest undertaking of the kind. As usually happens, the Pacific no sooner has one cable stretching from Asian to North American shores than it becomes possessed of two. Apparently, nature abhors a monopoly no less

than it does a vacuum. While the \$275,000,000 invested in submarine cables pays very well on the whole, it may be doubted whether at first the two Asian-American cables can earn much profit. That, however, is not directly the question. When Dewey cut the cable in Manila Bay, he decided for the United States the point that at least one Pacific cable must land on our shores.

The British Pacific cable is already laid and



THE ROUTE OF THE ALL-BRITISH CABLE AROUND THE WORLD.

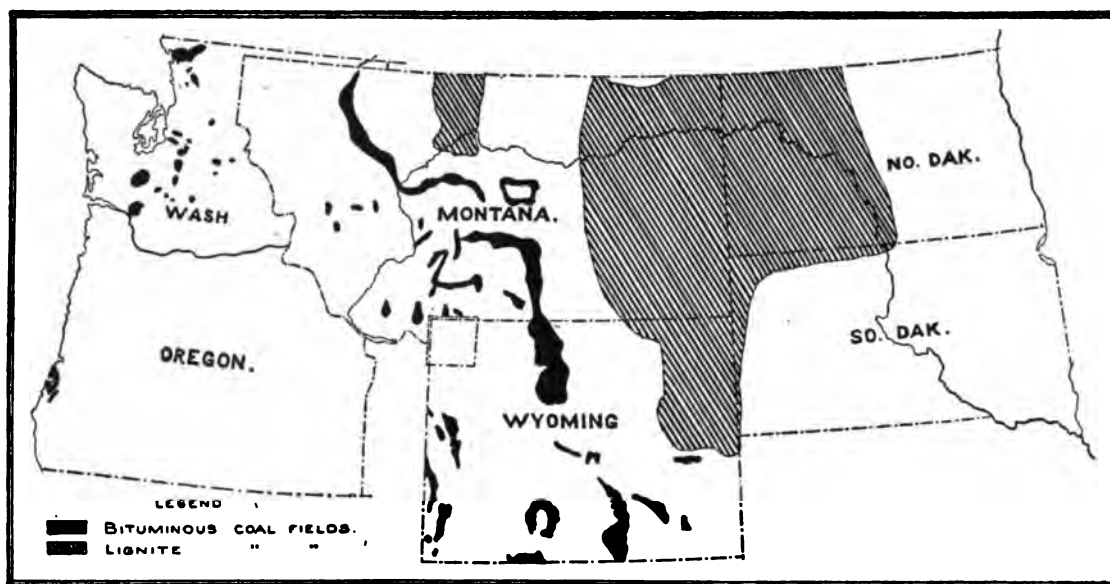
virtually in operation. Its terminals all lie within the dominions of King Edward, so that now England's cables encircle the earth, and can, without hindrance or knowledge of Slav, Goth, or Hun, advise John Bull that his drums are still beating beyond the Roman pale. Of old it was said of the traveler that he dragged at each remove a lengthening chain; but nowadays the Englishman has to add, as his empire grows, but a link or two in his cables. What if the distances are immense! Engineering feats lose their difficulty in times when projects three miles up in the ambient air compete with enterprises three miles down in globigerina ooze of ocean floor. From Vancouver to Fanning Island is 3,240 nautical miles; Fanning Island to Fiji, 2,093 miles; Fiji to Norfolk Island, 961 miles; Norfolk Island to Brisbane, Queensland, 834 miles; and to New Zealand, 537 miles. And there you are; for Australia, reaching out to China, India, South Africa, Egypt, and England, has already her lines of deep-sea communication set up. In reality, England has alternative routes all the way around now; and when our cable is in operation she will have one more, just so long as blessed peace shall exist between the two great kindred civilizing countries. For the construction of the deep section from the coast of British Columbia, a specially heavy cable has been necessary, the copper conductor being not less than 600 pounds to the knot, giving an electrical "resistance" of about two ohms to the nautical mile. The copper alone in that skipping-rope for mermaids attains a weight of about one thousand short tons,—no slight mass to sling across 4,000 statute miles in 2,700 fathoms of surging wave. Some pieces at the shore end run to a weight of 21 tons to the mile, and at least twelve different types of cable are strung along the whole route. It is worthy of note, by way of technique, also, that the copper core is one large central wire overlaid by four flat strips applied spirally, yielding better results than the conventional stranded, cylindrical form. Another point not to be overlooked when England is discussing with her colonies a share of burdens is that in this case British North America assumes 39 per cent. of the total cost in settling the bills, Australasia 33 per cent., and Great Britain 28 per cent.

While, thus aided and subsidized from public funds, the British Pacific line is now a "cable in being," the Commercial Pacific Cable, thanks to the courage and stout purse of the late John W. Mackay, is wholly self-supporting. This is something so thoroughly Yankee in essence and spirit that every true American ought to feel proud of it, despite the excellent reasons advanced

for a cable to be owned and operated by government or a cable heavily subsidized, like a callow infant industry. At the present moment, Clarence Mackay and his associate, George Gray Ward, are committed to the enormous task of laying 10,000 nautical miles of cable, and have already finished up brilliantly the first span from San Francisco to Honolulu, 2,412 nautical miles, at a cost not far short of \$2,500,000. Next come the sections to Manila from Honolulu, 5,800 miles, touching at Guam and Midway Island, the latter point being actually erected into a brand-new little American colony, where the marooned staff can only mitigate their exile by a daily chat over the wire. From Manila, the Commercial Cable will then strike northward to Shanghai, giving us direct access to all the far East. Mr. Ward, who ought to know, promises that when this system, more than three times as long as any Atlantic cable, is ready he will discount Puck's forty-minute prophecy by putting a message around this old globe of ours in ten minutes by the clock.

In its contract, signed with President Roosevelt, the Commercial Pacific Cable asks and receives no favors, no exclusive franchise or concession; promises to employ only Americans; will operate independently of foreign companies; and is entirely at the service of the country in time of war. As on the Atlantic Mr. Mackay's competition brought low rates and higher efficiency, so in the Pacific the rate from the Golden Gate to China will be cut down to one dollar a word. To Honolulu it is only fifty cents, and will be but thirty-five cents two years hence. A speed of transmission to Luzon is guaranteed of twenty-five words per minute. There is only one thing to regret, and that is the purchase of the cable abroad. Although the United States now manufactures \$25,000,000 worth of insulated wires and cables annually, or perhaps as much as all Europe in the same classes of material, that amount does not include very much deep-sea cable. But we shall surely change that some day by the superior cheapness and quality of the American product.

When Morse had painfully finished his first telegraph line, young Miss Ellsworth sent over it that beautiful initial message, "What hath God wrought!" At San Francisco, last Christmastide, little Miss Gage, the governor's daughter, in sight of all the school children of the city, christened the land splice of the new cable which means so much to the peoples facing across the western waters. Thus John W. Mackay completes nobly, for coming generations along the Pacific, the grand task begun by that other typically great American, Cyrus W. Field.



MAP ILLUSTRATING THE KNOWN DISTRIBUTION OF COAL IN THE NORTHWEST.

(The bituminous areas in Montana and Wyoming may be greatly extended by further discoveries.)

THE COAL DEPOSITS OF THE NORTHWEST.

BY FRANK A. WILDER.

(Director of State Geological Survey of North Dakota.)

"THERE is more coal in Montana and Wyoming than in Pennsylvania." This statement, made some time ago by a geologist whose opinion is highly respected and whose knowledge of the field of which he spoke intimate, seems hardly credible. If well founded, the assertion should command wide attention. Recent research and development have partially opened the Western coal fields, and something of their worth is positively known. Our conception of the fuel wealth of the Northwest is increasing in the same ratio as its population, and there is a natural connection between the two. In the words of the twenty-second annual report of the United States Geological Survey (page 427), "the history of the development of the various coal fields of the Rocky Mountains is essentially the history of the general development of the region, which has no parallel elsewhere in the United States."

The census returns for the States in question are instructive :

	The Dakotas.	Mon- tana.	Wy- oming.	Wash- ington.	Oregon.
1860.....	4,887	11,594	52,465
1870.....	14,184	20,505	9,118	23,955	90,923
1880.....	137,177	39,159	20,789	75,116	174,768
1890.....	511,527	132,159	60,705	340,390	813,767
1900.....	720,716	243,829	92,531	518,108	413,536

The development of mines and smelters created the first great, imperative demand for an abundant supply of coal. The price of coke delivered in Montana from the Eastern fields was high. Investigation presently revealed, near at hand, a good coking coal,—in the Cinnabar field, near the northern boundary of Yellowstone National Park ; in the Belt field, which extends across the northern part of Montana for 125 miles and furnishes coal for the Belt coke ovens; and elsewhere. The railroads followed with a vigorous demand for high-grade fuel, and the large mines of the Great Northern were opened at Sand Coulee, Mont. ; those at Red Lodge by the Northern Pacific ; while the Union Pacific took 190,000 tons from its mines at Carbon, in Wyoming, in the single year of 1900. Great as the progress of the past ten years has been, the best-informed person has as yet but a partial knowledge of the amount of coal in the Northwest. The studies of the United States Geological Survey (twenty-second annual report, Part III.), and the State surveys of North Dakota (second biennial report) and Washington (1901), have greatly extended our knowledge, but it must remain incomplete till a numerous population and vigorous industrial life justify thorough prospecting over the six hundred thousand square miles embraced within their boundaries.

All of the Western coal fields are much younger than those in the Eastern and central States. The great earth-folds which erosion has cut into the ragged peaks of the Rockies and the Coast Range lifted up part of an extensive area covered with Cretaceous strata, till to-day they are high on the mountain-sides. Toward the east, the effect of the folding grew less, and the Cretaceous beds of North Dakota were left undisturbed. Though some coal is found lower in the geologic series, most of the beds in the Rockies and on the plains are confined to the Laramie, a late stage of the Cretaceous. The coal on the Pacific coast belongs to the Eocene stage of the following Tertiary period. The effect of the uplift on the quality of the coal was noteworthy. Subjected to tremendous pressure during the process of mountain-making, and exposed here and there by deep gashes cut in the mountain-slopes by torrents, opportunity was offered for the formation and escape of the gases which form by a process of dry distillation in buried wood when protected from atmospheric decay, and as a consequence, the percentage of fixed carbon became higher than in the coal fields of the plains. Coal that is lignite in North Dakota passes into the semi-bituminous and often into true bituminous coal in the mountains.

It is known that coal-bearing strata are present

over 92,030 square miles, distributed as follows among the States :

State.	Bituminous and semi-bituminous.	Lignite.
North Dakota.....	31,500
South Dakota	120	4,500
Montana.....	13,000	25,000
Wyoming.....	7,500	9,000
Washington.....	1,000
Oregon.....	850
Idaho.....	50

This area is ten times that of the coal fields of Pennsylvania. It is probable that it will not prove universally productive, but the proportion that will some time justify mining is probably as high as that in any Eastern State.

QUALITY OF THE COAL.

Typical anthracite does not exist, so far as known, in the States of the Northwest, though, on the south, Colorado possesses an anthracite area of eight or ten square miles. The bituminous and semi-bituminous series cover 21,000 square miles in Montana and Wyoming, and 1,500 miles in Washington and Oregon. Montana's lignite area includes 25,000 square miles, while of coal of this grade Wyoming has 9,000 square miles ; South Dakota, 4,500 square miles, and North Dakota, 31,500 square miles.

Careful tests have been made which compare these coals with the standard coal from the Youghiogheny region of Pennsylvania.

PRACTICAL TESTS OF THE COALS OF THE NORTHWEST.

District.	Character of coal.	Stationary boiler tests.			Mogul locomotive tests.		
		Actual evaporation at working temperature and pressure.	Evaporation from and at 212°.	Relative efficiency.	Actual evaporation at working temperature and pressure.	Evaporation from and at 212°.	Relative efficiency.
		Pounds.	Pounds.	Per cent.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Per cent.
Youghiogheny, Pa.....	Bituminous.	6.88	8.17	100	6.90	8.26	100
Livingston-Boseman, Mont.	Bituminous.	5.30	6.24	84.6	5.15	6.27	78
Rocky Fork, Mont.....	Semi-bituminous.	5.82	6.97	94.6	4.97	6.06	74
Clark's Fork, Mont.....	Lignite.	4.88	5.79	78.3	4.70	5.78	72
Miles City, Mont.....	Lignitic of plains.	3.60	4.32	60.5			

Similar tests of coal from a number of other localities show that those cited above represent fairly the quality of the three varieties of coal as they commonly exist throughout the Northwest. The bituminous coals are but little inferior to the best coal of the same sort in Pennsylvania. Gas coals are found among them, and a large percentage of the coals exhibit admirable coking characteristics. The semi-bituminous and lignite coal from the mountains equals the best Illinois and Iowa product, while

the lignite of the plains, when burned in the same condition in which it comes from the mine, has a fuel value equal to 80 per cent. of that of the coals of the middle West.

The output of the Western States for 1901 was as follows :

Wyoming	4,485,374
Washington	2,578,217
Montana	1,393,061
North Dakota.....	193,601
Oregon	69,011



A MINE IN THE NORTH DAKOTA LIGNITE AREA, NEAR BISMARCK, PRODUCING 800 TONS OF COAL A DAY.

THICKNESS AND NUMBER OF BEDS.

In the Ham's Fork field, Montana, which supplies coal for the mines and smelters at Butte and Anaconda, two productive horizons have been recognized,—the lower, in the Dakota or Benton formations, containing bituminous coal, and the upper, in the Laramie, with high-grade lignite. The lower horizon has five beds of workable thickness, varying from 5 to 18 feet. The upper has at least five beds, ranging in thickness from 4 to 22 feet, and one which attains a thickness of 86 feet. This is exceptional, but beds from 10 to 20 feet thick are common in the mountains.

The lignite beds on the plains of North Dakota and Montana, perhaps, reach their maximum thickness at 40 feet. A bed of this thickness, outcropping on the surface near the Little Missouri River, was carefully measured during the past summer. Beds 15 feet thick are not uncommon. Wells at Dickinson and Medora which reach a depth of 900 feet passed through 60 feet of lignite, the thickest seam being 22 feet. A bed of solid coal 25 feet thick outcrops on the side of Sentinel Butte. The gaudily colored clay bluffs which rise 200 feet above the Little Missouri are broken by four and five black bands of workable lignite.

THE FUTURE OF THE COAL DEPOSITS.

The production of metals in the Northwest is intimately connected with its production of coal. Both are cause and both are effect. The

demand of the smelters for coke is imperative, and the dependence of the mining industry on local smelters is complete. The production of ores in the Northwest has only begun. In ten years, Montana will be a great iron-producing center. Hardly more than ten years will be needed to develop the iron ores of Washington. Unlike gold, or even copper, the distance that raw iron can be economically shipped by railroad is limited. Near the places where it is produced, it must be wrought into rails, car wheels, and cutlery. The recent movement toward developing the iron ores of the Northwest means more for the development of the country than the rapid growth of its mines of precious metals. It means diversified manufacturing, and here again the abundance of cheap fuel plays an important part. All that Pennsylvania is, it is safe to predict for Montana; and all that New York stands for in the way of fruit, manufacturing, and commerce, one may prophesy for Washington. With the Northwest an iron-producing center, yards at Puget Sound to rival those of the East in constructing ships for the still embryonic Oriental trade are a natural consequence.

The vigorous efforts to develop the trans-continental trade over the northern roads will be another factor in stimulating the coal-mining industry of the Northwest. The opening of the isthmian canal will doubtless be a disturbing factor for a time, and goods destined for the East

will reach New York by water. The middle West, however, no longer finds that an Eastern customs mark aids the selling of goods, and Chicago houses are importing directly from Japan. The growth of the inland trade will ultimately make amends for the loss of through Eastern traffic.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE LIGNITE OF THE PLAINS.

Ten years ago, the lignite deposits that underlie 31,500 square miles in North Dakota, 25,000 square miles in Montana, and smaller though extensive areas in Wyoming and South Dakota, were considered almost worthless. To-day, one can hear from both merchant and farmer, everywhere over these plains, that "the lignite is the salvation of this region."

Lignite is the *Braunkohlen* of the Germans, and that of the Northwest has a higher fuel value than the European varieties. The percentage of fixed carbon ranges from 40 to 60, with an average, as shown by eighty analyses, of 51, or 10 per cent. higher than the German lignite, and fully as high as the bituminous coal of Iowa and Missouri. Its content of moisture is 32 per cent., and out of this fact arise the difficulties connected with its use. On drying, the lignite "slacks" or crumbles, but loses nothing of its fuel value in consequence if proper appliances for burning fine coal are used. Slacking does not take place rapidly; and in summer, lignite that has been exposed in heaps to ordinary atmospheric conditions for eight or ten weeks may be burned on ordinary grates with little loss. During the winter months, the "green" coal shows no tendency to crumble. If the lignite is dried before burning, the energy required to volatilize the contained moisture is saved. Devices are already in use which burn the fine lignite successfully. In Germany, where great quantities of lignite are used, it is dried and briquetted. By this process, the percentage of fixed carbon is raised and the fuel value of the lignite materially increased. Pressed into firm blocks of convenient size, and free from dust, the lignite briquette is a popular fuel. On account of the cost of labor in the Northwest, no refinements have been attempted in the lignite trade.

During the winter of 1902-03, four hundred thousand tons of "green" lignite, as the coal directly from the mine is styled, will be sold at an average price of \$1.30 at the mine. Throughout the greater part of North Dakota, the users of lignite save from one-third to one-half of the cost of Eastern coal. The field that the lignite reaches includes all of North and South Dakota, and Minnesota as far east as St. Paul. Had the

capacity of the mines been doubled during the present winter, all of the output could have been sold without reduction of price. Mine equipment that is now nearly complete indicates for next year an output that will be valued at nearly a million dollars. This means that within a very few years North Dakota will supply her own fuel and that of the neighboring States on the east.

Throughout the country north and west of the Missouri River in North Dakota and Montana, the settler need go but a few miles from his ranch to a lignite bank. At hundreds of points he strips off the dirt with plow and scraper, helps himself to tons of fuel, and pays no one. Very often the lignite outcrops on his own land, and at times in his own door-yard. This cheap and abundant fuel has been one of the main stimuli that have led to the recent rapid settling of western North Dakota. The broad strip of Northern Pacific Railway lands have been nearly disposed of during the last two years to settlers who come from Illinois, Iowa, and Minnesota. Each new-comer is given a free homestead and buys two or three hundred acres of railroad land. The great free grazing lands are nearly gone, but the cattle industry in the same territory is increasing. With better care, the range for a steer, which was once estimated at twenty-five acres, has been reduced to ten, and will be brought lower.

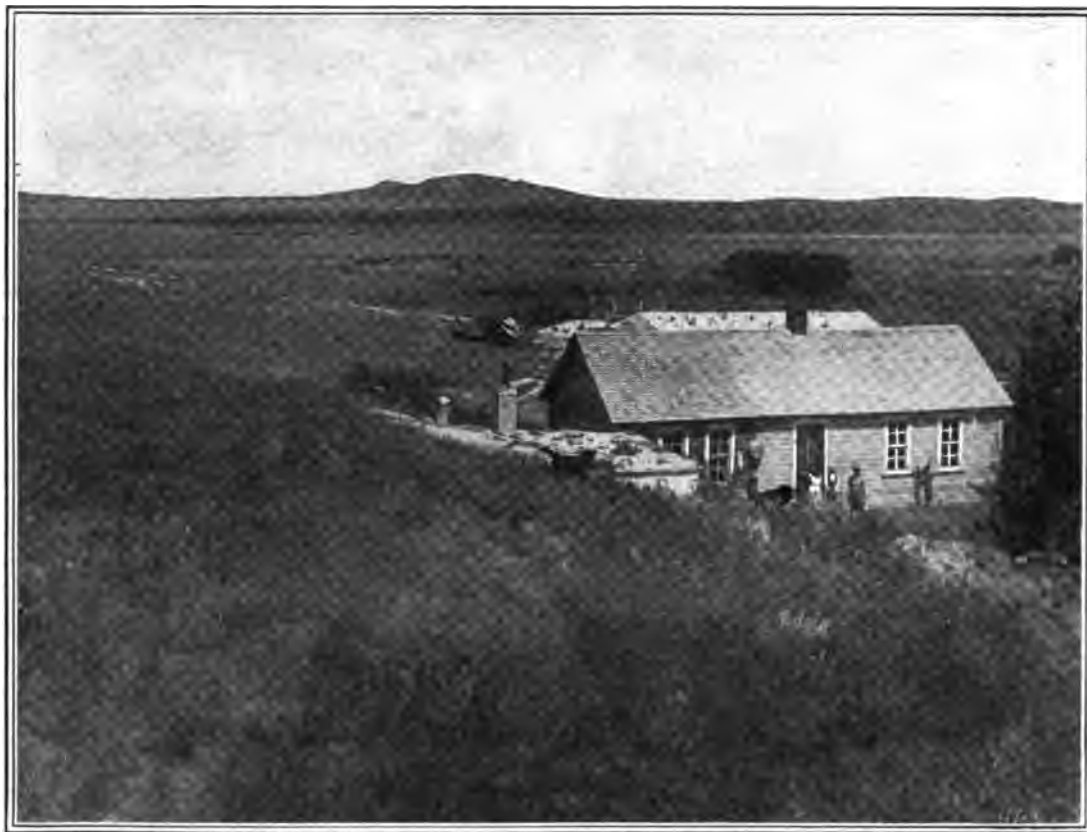
The real worth of western Dakota and eastern Montana will be brought out only by irrigation; and irrigation in this area is mainly dependent on the coal that it contains. With an average rainfall of seventeen inches, irregularly distributed from year to year, the natural precipitation cannot be depended on to insure annual crops. Certain years are abundantly productive, but the element of uncertainty must be eliminated before extensive farming will be justified. On account of the low gradients of the streams, lateral irrigating trenches are seldom practical, while large reservoir sites are rare. The country is abundantly supplied with streams, however, which are filled with water when irrigation is most needed; while good wells may be secured everywhere with little effort. With cheap lignite, it is possible to pump the water from streams and wells in quantities sufficient to irrigate large tracts. An ordinary farm engine, and a centrifugal pump which costs two hundred dollars, are sufficient equipment to irrigate one hundred and sixty acres, when the lift is only twenty-five feet. In California, where pumping in connection with irrigation is popular, and crude oil is a common fuel, the economy of the method has been fully demonstrated.

There will doubtless be disappointments and setbacks in connection with this territory. Assured by land agents and by abundant crops that they have themselves seen in favored years, the new-comers are attempting "straight" farming, believing that previous failures were due to a lack of proper cultivation. Ultimately, however, a prosperous region, where diversified farming, with stock-raising and dairying, are carried on, will be evolved from this portion of the great range country east of the Rockies.

Conditions like these in the States continue to the north for two hundred miles, into Manitoba

and Assiniboia. South of the region under consideration lies Colorado, with coal estimated at 33,897,000,000 tons, an estimate regarded as conservative by those best informed.

The West cannot duplicate Pennsylvania's wonderful deposit of anthracite. Aside from this, however, there is no Eastern State richer in coal than Montana or Wyoming. A wise national policy is building up great forest reserves in these States. Agricultural prospects are promising. Their greatest need is of homes and laborers, and these deficiencies each year is making haste to supply.



A VIEW ILLUSTRATING THE PREVAILING TOPOGRAPHY OF THE LIGNITE AREA IN WESTERN NORTH DAKOTA.

(The house in the foreground belongs to a Russian-German who came to this country ten years ago, owning nothing, and with his family took homestead lands amounting to 600 acres. A fifteen-foot coal bed outcrops back of the house, and he is now worth \$10,000.)





MAP OF IRELAND, SHOWING THE CONGESTED DISTRICTS IN BLACK.

IRELAND'S EMANCIPATION.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

TWO of the greatest events in the history of the British nation are now near at hand, and yet they have attracted so little attention from press and public that only a small number of people are aware of their imminence. These two events, taken together, will amount to a solution of the problem of Ireland. The Irish question has run so long unsolved, has given rise to so much bitterness and contention, has

stirred such fierce and apparently implacable animosities, that most observers have settled down to a state of mind concerning it which may fairly be described as utter and chronic hopelessness. The news that a settlement is now within sight,—that finally an end is to be put to the centuries-old story of repression, struggle, agitation, conspiracy, crime, coercion, suffering,—does seem almost too good to be true. But I

have most excellent reasons for believing that it is not only good news, but news wholly warranted by the conditions and the probabilities. I have but recently returned from an investigation of this subject in England and Ireland, undertaken for the *Chicago Record-Herald* newspaper. The only instructions given me by the editor of that paper were to learn the truth and print it. I undertook my task with a feeling that I was to inquire into and write upon a controversy almost as old as the green hills of Ireland, which would be a burning question in the politics of the British Empire long after the present inhabitants of those hills had been gathered to their fathers. To my surprise and pleasure, I found, instead, that a settlement is fast approaching; that the foundations are already laid; that the superstructure of the great edifice of reform is even now being carefully put together by practical statesmen, and that within a few weeks all the world will be taken into confidence as to the first part of the work, the second part to be ready within a year or two after the first shall have been disposed of.

In other words, British statesmanship is now preparing to give Ireland these two great boons:

1. Land reform, to consist of the complete abolition of landlordism throughout the island and the turning of the soil over to the individual ownership of the men who live upon it, till it, love it, and who, through the centuries since they were dispossessed of it, have clung to the tradition that it is rightfully theirs.

2. Political reform, to consist of some form of home rule within the empire, an arrangement by which purely Irish legislation will be placed wholly in the hands of the elected representatives of the Irish people, and which will, in a measure, at least, satisfy the aspirations of the Irish people to a national entity.

TO MAKE A NEW IRELAND.

The first, and in some respects the greatest, of these revolutionary changes is not far distant. In fact, during the month of February, this year, the Balfour ministry has promised to introduce in Parliament a bill dealing with the land question in Ireland. There is little doubt that this bill will provide for a complete, a final, settlement of the question of the land. It will be a great measure in every sense. Its economic, social, and political effects will be momentous. In the opinion of every competent observer and student, it will make a new Ireland. It is, in effect, a great measure of government paternalism, or of state socialism; for it is the intervention of the state, with the power and funds of the state, to work a wholesale change of

ownership of the agricultural lands throughout an island as large as the State of Indiana, and having a population somewhat greater than that of the State of Ohio. The credit of the state is to be employed to the extent of about £100,000,000 in effecting the transfer, and the state will undertake to pay a bonus amounting to probably £800,000 or £900,000 a year for half a century in harmonizing the differences which exist between the landlords who are to sell and the tenants who are to buy. Thus, the state is to be much more than "the honest broker" in the transaction; it is to arrange and finance the deal, but, instead of taking out its commission or profit, is to incur a nominal cost to its treasury of \$4,000,000 or more a year for the sake of putting the bargain through satisfactorily to both the great parties at interest. That this is a tremendous undertaking, any one can see at a glance; to fully realize the scope of the project, one must bear in mind that it is to extinguish the fee-simple of virtually all the landlords in Ireland and enable their 400,000 tenants to become owners of the soil for which they and their ancestors have paid rentals throughout the centuries. That this measure is to become law during the present year, there is little reason to doubt; and as soon as it is out of the way the Balfour ministry proposes to take up the question of home rule and dispose of it in a way which will be satisfactory to a majority of the Irish people.

"THE UNITY OF THE EMPIRE."

It is well to understand at the outset that the statesmen who have this project in hand are actuated very little by any sentimental desire to make reparation for the injustices committed by their predecessors many generations ago. They are not proceeding upon sentiment at all, and ethical or altruistic considerations have small weight in their calculations. What they do wish, above all things, is to strengthen the British Empire. Recent events have taught them that the empire needs strengthening. The weakest link in the imperial chain to-day is Ireland. Nominally a member of the union, Ireland is in essence and spirit alien. It is not loyal to the empire, is not even friendly; and practical English statesmen no longer delude themselves with the fiction that it is, or that the attitude of Ireland may prudently be regarded as a negligible quantity. For a hundred years, British leaders have refused even to consider the advisability of giving Ireland home rule, upon the ground that they would not take the risk of having "the unity of the empire" destroyed. At last they are awakening to a realization of the fact that there is no unity, and that there never can

be unity under present conditions. Ireland is a conquered country which refuses to be conquered, and which can never be conquered. The people have been in a state of "suppressed revolution" for three or four hundred years, and will be in such a state, in all probability, for three or four hundred years longer if their wrongs are not sooner righted. It has taken the leaders of British public opinion a long time to discover that there is just one way in which the unity of the empire can be secured, and that is by removing the cause of the discontent,—by undoing the wretched work of the conquest.

THE SUBLIME FAITH OF A PEOPLE.

To go back to the conquest looks like an excursion into ancient history, but one must glance rapidly at the Ireland of the past in order to understand the Ireland of the present. We must remember that the conquerors found in Ireland one land system, and that they set up another. The one they found was tribal ownership, in which individual rights were recognized. The one they set up was a system of great plantations or estates. Virtually all of the lands in the country were confiscated and parceled out among favorites,—generals, soldiers, adventurers. To this system the people of Ireland have never been reconciled. At its door they lay all the blame for their failure to participate in the prosperity which has come to other members of the British union. They have never ceased to cherish the tradition which has come down to them through the centuries from the days of tanistry, or tribal ownership, that the land belongs to the people. Through all the changes of time,—the plots and insurrections, the struggles and the repression, the famine and the great migration,—the peasantry of Ireland have held fast to this faith. To my mind there is nothing finer in the history of peoples than the patient persistence with which the Irish have clung to this principle,—the one principle in all the long chapter of agitation that was founded in moral truth, and which deserved to live and triumph.

When the practical statesmen of to-day take up the problem of Ireland and seek its solution, they are compelled to give consideration to the historical view. They find that the land system which the conquerors imposed upon Ireland has been a failure, and they are forced to inquire why it has been a failure, that they may apply an efficacious remedy. It has been a failure because it was an unsound, a false system. Irish landowners, favorites of the conquerors, or heirs or assigns of favorites, have never been landlords in the proper sense of the word. That is

to say, they were never, except in rare instances, the conservators of their estates. It was a tremendous misfortune for all concerned that the system which the English imposed upon the country did not require the landowners to nurture, improve, and develop their lands. They simply let tracts to tillers, and the occupiers made all the improvements—built or repaired the huts or houses, dug the drains, reclaimed the bogs, constructed the fences. All that was done upon or for the land they did. The owner had no improvements to make. He had no responsibility for the land beyond the collection of his rents and the payment of his taxes. He was not required to put anything back upon the land. His only aim was to get as much as possible from it, and do nothing for it in return. Unlike landlords in England, Scotland, and Wales, they were mere rent-chargers, not landlords, or lords and managers of the estates which fortune had placed in their keeping.

THE BLIGHT OF AN ENDLESS TRIBUTE.

Fundamentally bad as this system was, the Irish landlords habitually and generally made it as much worse as they could. For centuries they were a sporting, drinking, gambling lot. Energies which should have been employed in practical management of their estates were thrown into the seeking of pleasure. Many naturally lived beyond their incomes, and were frequently forced to two methods of replenishing their purses,—one was by recourse to the money-lenders at high rates of interest; the other was by putting up the rents. The first expedient led inevitably to employment of the second. About one-half of all the Irish landowners lived in England, and a considerable proportion of the remainder did not reside upon their estates, but elsewhere in Ireland. The bulk of all the money wrung from the agricultural land of the country was spent abroad. It was not spent upon the land, and very little of it near the land, which had produced it. Thus the conquest of Ireland became that most terrible of all forms of conquest,—a perpetual tribute. If the conquerors had levied upon Ireland an indemnity, even an excessive indemnity, it would have been merciful in contrast with that which they actually did. An indemnity could have been paid off. One, two, ten generations might have been required. But in the end the debt would have been lifted. Under the system which was adopted the debt was always to be paid, and was never extinguished. The tribute was perennial. Each generation paid for the land, but acquired not an acre; and every succeeding generation had to pay for it again with-

out any more hope of relief from the burden. No more cruel and destructive system was ever devised.

For centuries, landlordism drained agricultural Ireland of its produce. Every year 15,000,000 acres of productive land, tilled by five or six millions of people, had to pay a tribute averaging \$50,000,000 a year, most of which was sent out of the country. Ireland was impoverished. The people could acquire no surplus, because what would otherwise have been a margin of accumulation or savings went to the tribute-collectors. The prosperity of any purely agricultural country must be a matter of slow growth. In any one year, in any one decade, even under the natural and sound system of individual ownership, the margin of surplus must be small indeed. A little is gained one year, or by one generation, and this is laid by as a foundation for future years and future generations to build upon. In the fullness of time these accumulations amount to solidity, resourcefulness, genuine prosperity. In America,—say in Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Nebraska, or the Dakotas,—we have seen how in one generation, under favorable conditions and the sound principle of individual ownership, the naked prairie may be converted into a fertile, highly tilled, richly productive, well-improved, and fully stocked farm. It takes time, even in America.

SKIMMED OF THE LAST DROP OF CREAM.

In Ireland, there has been time enough, Heaven knows, as the period has been measured by centuries, not by generations. But Ireland has never had a chance to profit normally by this natural law of development. One generation has acquired little or nothing from that which preceded it. There have been no small yearly margins to merge at last into family accumulations which spell independence and comfort. The tillers of the soil have drawn from it barely enough to keep body and soul together, and the remainder has gone to the landlord, and through the landlord to England or to the Continent,—to the wine-grower, the distiller, the race-track, the gaming-table, the purveyor of luxuries, the vampires of vice, the money-lenders. For three hundred years the system has annually skimmed Irish agriculture of the last drop of cream; and yet there are superior persons who wonder why "the lazy Irish" are only skimmed milk.

Let us suppose that two hundred years ago there had been a British conscience and British statesmanship such as there are to-day, and that at the beginning of the eighteenth instead of at the beginning of the twentieth century the govern-

ment had righted the wrong of the conquest and confiscation by giving the tenantry an opportunity to purchase their holdings. Before the century was half gone the land would have been paid for and would have become the property of those who tilled it; the yearly outflow of tribute money would have stopped; the earnings of the land would have remained upon or near the land; every year fifty million dollars would have been devoted to betterments,—to houses, farm buildings, clothing, tools, horses, cattle, sheep, education, superior food, and a reserve of savings. If fifty years' earnings had been devoted to paying off the legal (or historic) equity of the landowners, one hundred years' earnings would have been left to accrue to the people.

Is there one wise enough to estimate what would have been the social and economic effect of this diversion of seven and a half billions of dollars from the channel of tribute to the accumulation of the people in one form or another during that century and a half? It is not difficult to believe that if the Irish people had had the sound system of individual ownership for one hundred and fifty years after buying off the descendants of the conquerors and confiscators, and had enjoyed the just reward of their labor and economy, they would to-day be as prosperous as the peasantry of France, fully as conservative in all their relations to government and society, and vastly more intelligent.

WHEN THE LANDLORDS WERE MASTERS.

Ireland is a country virtually without coal and without timber, and of course manufactures could not greatly thrive. Tillage of the soil was the chief occupation of the people. As the population increased, the area of productive land was insufficient to support the people who lived upon it. If they had had no tribute to pay,—if they had owned their lands outright,—their lot would still have been sad enough. But they had to pay the tribute. Worse still, the landlords forced them to pay every penny which could possibly be wrung from them. The land was the only avenue to employment, and the owners of the land took advantage of the necessities of the people,—of the land-hunger which inevitably followed. Rents already high were put higher. With some landlords, it was simply greed; with others, it was dire necessity,—the necessity which had been created by the improvidence of themselves or their forebears. They were in the hands of the usurers; their fixed charges and family expenses were enormously high. They had everything in their own hands. They controlled the only means of subsistence and employment. All the civil

power was in their grasp. They were the magistrates; they made the grand juries which managed the affairs of the counties; at their beck and call were the constabulary and redcoats. They were the representatives of the country in Parliament. They made the laws and enforced them. The English garrison in Ireland held all the reins of power, and for centuries their chief activity was in collecting the tribute, in evicting those who failed to pay, and in punishing those who kicked against the pricks. They squeezed the orange dry, and then wondered why there was no juice in it, and tried to put the blame upon the thriftless nature of their victims.

THE TRIBUTE AND THE FAMINE.

Sixty years ago, the process of choking out the natural development of the country had reached its climax. The condition of Ireland was fearful. More than 8,000,000 of people were crowded upon 20,000,000 acres of land, of which only 15,000,000 acres were productive. Two acres per inhabitant, and much of that poor land! For all the arable parts of the country, a population of 320 persons per square mile. With similar density of population, the agricultural State of Iowa would have 17,000,000 inhabitants, instead of 2,500,000. In Ireland, at that time, four-fifths of the people lived directly by agriculture. There were so many people and so little land that the average holding was but a few acres per family. The great mass lived in a mud hut of one or two rooms, with or without windows, and sustained life almost exclusively with the potato. They lived literally from hand to mouth. They had no reserve or surplus,—nothing to fall back upon in evil days. The system had drained the country; the annual tribute, paid for centuries, had left no margin against the hour of dire want. Then came the failure of the potato crop, the famine years, starvation, famine-fever. A million human beings perished. Since then, five millions have emigrated. In every subsequent year, the population has dwindled.

Landlord rapacity had done its work. No one now denies that the famine was due to the inability of the people to acquire a reserve with which to meet an emergency. Almost any country in the world subjected to the system under which Ireland so long suffered would be liable to a similar disaster. If the years of crop failures in Nebraska had been preceded by centuries of tribute-paying, there would have been famine in the Platte country.

When England repealed the corn laws and sought cheap bread for the factory operatives of her cities, agriculture in all parts of the United

Kingdom was hit a heavy blow. In England, the landlords found it necessary to reduce rents. The reductions averaged about 40 per cent. Inducements were offered the farm laborers to remain upon the land and not run away to the cities. But in Ireland the landlords, some through greed and others through need,—for the false system had developed both in an acute form,—actually endeavored to continue their old method of raising the rents. Then ensued eras of agitation and an increase of the ancient bitterness. Agrarian crimes were alarmingly prevalent, and coercion was rigidly applied by the rulers of the country in London and the garrison of administrators and tribute-collectors in Ireland. It must ever remain a reproach to England that a third of a century elapsed after the famine had shown the dire necessity of a rehabilitation of the Irish land system before English statesmanship roused itself to action.

GLADSTONE LAYS THE FOUNDATIONS.

Then came the Gladstone land act of 1881. It was opposed by the Irish representatives of that day, because they thought it only a makeshift. They wanted to go to the roots of the difficulty, and predicted that this lopping of the tops of the poisonous plant would do little good. They were both right and wrong. Gladstone's act did not solve the problem, but it laid the foundations of the solution which is now imminent. What Gladstone did was to provide that the tribute-collectors should no longer be permitted to fix their rents, but that the courts should fix them. This was the first great blow at the power of the hereditary landlord class. Three hundred and thirty-five thousand tenants out of a total of 500,000 in Ireland took their landlords into court and secured a reduction of their rents of an average of 21 per cent. That was the first term of fifteen years. For the second term, 70,000 tenants have had their rents still further reduced 22 per cent. By private agreement most of the remaining rents have been adjusted out of court in accordance with the judgment of the land tribunal. The net result is that in the last twenty years the total agricultural rents of Ireland have been reduced from about £9,000,000 a year to about £5,000,000. Here is the declaration of the fair judicial tribunals that as long as the landlords had everything in their own hands they were squeezing 40 per cent. too much out of their tenants. It was bad enough for the poor people of Ireland to be compelled to pay this eternal tribute at all; it was far worse to be compelled to pay an excessive tribute. It is almost painful to let the mind dwell upon the inquiry how much that

40 per cent. of unjust rent,—that two-fifths of excessive tribute wrung for many generations from a people needy and helpless,—might have done, through accumulation and the natural law of increase and development, toward averting the famine-tragedy and the widespread destitution and suffering which have scarred Irish life through the centuries.

THE IRISH PEASANTRY THRIFTY AND CONSERVATIVE
BY NATURE.

But at last the thin edge of the wedge of reform had been pushed in. The landlords were no longer absolute masters. They could not do as they liked with their own. They could not demand excessive tribute. They could not push up the rent on Pat's little patch because he had, through incredible toil, reclaimed a bit of bog and grown a little larger crop. Soon the wedge was pushed a bit further. Universal suffrage nearly destroyed the political power of the landlord class. True representatives of the Irish people, and not mere creatures of prerogative and privilege, appeared at Westminster. Other land acts were passed, and 72,000 tenants enabled to purchase their holdings through state aid to the extent of £23,000,000. Wherever these purchases have been made, thrift and prosperity have followed, and the purchasers have so punctually paid their installments that the state is not losing a penny by the transaction. One could not ask more complete refutation of the favorite argument of the supporters of the let-alone policy that the Irish peasantry are so shiftless and thriftless that it is not worth while trying to do anything for them. Experience under limited land-purchase shows conclusively that the Irish peasantry respond to all efforts to uplift them, just as they have responded to the cruel system which bore them down. Among the leaders of English activities, there is a latent fear of the radical or socialistic tendencies of the great masses of workmen in the large cities. It is a curious and most interesting fact that the British statesmen of our day who are trying to settle the land and political questions in Ireland firmly believe that with such settlement the Irish peasantry will become perhaps the most thrifty, most conservative, and most intelligent peasantry in Europe,—to the British Empire, in a measure, what the peasantry of France are to the republic.

THE EXISTING SYSTEM INTOLERABLE.

When Prime Minister Balfour and his associates of the present government survey the Irish scene, they quickly discern that the existing order of things cannot continue. Something must be done. Government has gone so far,

and it is bound to go farther. Gladstone virtually established as a legal fact the right of the tenant to his holding at a fair judicially fixed rent, thus fixing in statute the ancient and beloved tradition of the Irish people. "Tenant's right is landlord's wrong," Lord Palmerston sneered in the House of Commons, and benches filled with landlords and the creatures of landlords cheered him to the echo. Great changes have come since then. Gladstone's law made tenant's right a living reality. He prepared the way for the revolution which is now impending. For he set up a system as false, though not as cruel, as the one which he pushed aside, and it must in turn give way to a system that is sound and wholesome. He established dual ownership of the land,—the landlord with his fee on one side, the tenant with his tenant-right on the other. Between them stands the state, fixing the rent. When the landlord was shorn of his power to fix the rents according to his need or greed, the whole system was doomed. The landlord is a landlord only in name. He is now nothing more than a rent-charger, nothing but a mortgagee with an historic or legal equity upon which he collects the interest, as fixed by the courts. It is a false system, because neither owner nor occupier is master. Owner has no interest in the land beyond collection of his rent; occupier has no incentive to the making of improvements or the developing of productive capacity, lest the land courts imitate the policy of the landlord himself in his palmy days and refuse to reduce the rent for the next term. Under the old system, there was a sure and harsh tax upon thrift. Under the present system, there is an absence of that natural reward for it which alone can produce a healthy condition.

THE LANDLORD DETHRONED.

Bad as the systems, old and new, have been for the tenant and for the people of Ireland, it is the landlord who is the under-dog now. He has fallen from his high place. He is no longer absolute master of the country, or even of his own estate. The courts will not let him rack the rents, but creditors demand that he settle with them. His income has been cut down, but his fixed charges and family expenses continue. Bankruptcy stares him in the face. He cannot sell his lands, eager as many are to buy, great as is the land-hunger in the country. This curious anomaly is easily understood when the facts are stated. The government has already helped one-seventh of the Irish agricultural tenants to buy up their holdings, to lift the mortgage, and it is "in the air" that sooner or later it is going to help the remaining six-sevenths to do the

same thing. The people of Ireland are determined that government shall do so, and that the men who profit by it and secure possession of the land shall be the men who live upon it,—the descendants of those who were robbed of it centuries ago. "The land for the people" is a principle to which both the government and the landlords must in the end subscribe, and those who like to look for the dramatic element in history will find it here. The men who hunger for land in Ireland are the tenants or the traders in the towns. But there is a public opinion which declares the former shall have it, not the latter, nor yet any outsiders. Tenants will not buy at private sale, because they firmly believe that they shall get better terms when the government moves. Outsiders dare not invest amid the prevailing uncertainties. Few traders care to purchase and thus bring public opinion down upon them. This public opinion manifests itself in a peculiar way. Debarred from finding expression as it should in a self-governed country, it is forced to have resort to agitation, to organization. William O'Brien's United Irish League, with its branches everywhere in the island, is the present medium. The league has contrived a skillful, insidious, but effective means of visiting the displeasure of public opinion upon all who violate the code of ethics as to the land. There is no agrarian crime, no criminal agitation or practices, no shooting at landlords from behind the hedge, no maiming of animals, no thumping of bailiffs. The day of such things has passed. Even the boycott is no longer employed in a harsh and clumsy way. The tradesman who buys up holdings from which tenants have been evicted finds that by common impulse all the people stay away from his shop. The outsider who comes in to purchase and manage an Irish farm soon learns that no one will herd his cattle or harvest his crops.

TRIUMPHANT DEMOCRACY.

Hence, there is a deadlock as to the land situation, and the tenants have all the best of it. Accustomed always to live upon little, they can afford to wait. Many of them are poor, and not a few are destitute. But they are patient and long-suffering. There are few mud or stone huts in Ireland wherein the group that gathers about the peat fire does not discuss hopefully the coming revolution in the land system. They know little or nothing of the project which the government has in hand; they know only that their leaders tell them the day is not far distant when they are to come into their own. So they bide their time. They and their people have waited for centuries for this righting of the

ancient wrong; they can wait a few years more. For the landlords, it is not so easy. Many of them are harassed by their creditors; many are on the verge of bankruptcy; many are eager to sell. So general is the desire of the landlords to close out that the government is endeavoring to take advantage of the situation and bring landlord and tenant together in a purchase scheme which shall be satisfactory to all sides, and which will provoke little, if any, opposition when pressed in Parliament. Landlords who have resided upon their estates, and who have in fair measure performed their duty by their tenants and their property (for there are a few such), are not in such sore straits. This is especially true of landlords who are themselves Irishmen and whose people are of their Church. But landlords who have been on bad terms with their tenants, and who are out of touch and sympathy with their neighbors, now find their situation well-nigh intolerable from all points of view. They are still the magistrates, it is true, but the magistrates no longer choose the grand juries which administer the affairs of the counties. The old administrative grand-jury system, which placed all local power directly in the hands of the landlords, was swept away by the act of 1898, framed by Gerald Balfour, brother of the prime minister, and a county council, elected by a broad franchise, was installed in its stead. These county councils have worked well, on the whole, a sure indication of the capacity of the Irish people for self-government.

NEW ERA UNDER THE BALFOUR RÉGIME.

The new era in Ireland, now foreshadowed by coming events, began with Gladstone. He laid the foundations; and then there was a pause. For twenty years, little has been done toward a solution of the land problem, except some additions to the purchase acts. With the rise of the Balfours as influential factors in the English Government, the work of regeneration may be said to have taken a fresh start. From 1887 to 1891, Arthur Balfour was chief secretary for Ireland. He studied the Irish problem with great care, and his studies are now bearing fruit. Accompanied by the brilliant young man who was then his private secretary, but who is now chief secretary for Ireland, with a seat in the cabinet, George Wyndham, Mr. Balfour visited all parts of the island on tours of investigation. He went into the poorest parts of the country, the unhappy West, where a new problem has presented itself during the last quarter-century. After the famine and the repeal of the corn laws, landlords began to look about for more profitable use of their lands than the precarious

rentals afforded. English farmers took up the importation of foreign corn and the fattening of store cattle, and Irish landowners resolved to supply English feeders with stores. So thousands of tenants were cleared out from their little holdings and the lands they had tilled turned into pasture. In fifty years, the area devoted to cereals has diminished one-half; that devoted to root crops has diminished one-quarter. Meadow and pasture have increased 65 per cent. It is an extraordinary fact that to-day, of 15,000,000 acres of productive land in Ireland, only 2,400,000 are under plow. As there are about five hundred thousand so-called farmers, the average of crops is only five acres per farm. And as many thousands of farmers in Ulster and other more prosperous sections have from ten to fifty acres each, it follows that others must be reduced to one or two acres.

GOOD LAND FOR THE CATTLE, POOR LAND FOR
THE PEOPLE.

In the poor West, where the people have been driven off the good lands to make room for the cattle, the situation is a most painful one. "Where the lands are, there are no people; where the people are, there is no land," is William O'Brien's vivid generalization. It is too true. I rode parts of several days through rolling, fertile tracts, green in December, dotted with bullocks and sheep, and no houses except here and there the dwellings of the graziers. But down in the bogs,—in the black, grimy swamps,—the people were found swarming in their miserable huts, many of them with their few cattle, pigs, and poultry housed under the same roof with the family, trying to eke out a living from two to half a dozen acres of mud-hole, land which an American farmer would never think of trying to till, but would turn over to his pigs for a wallow. Take Westport Union for an example. Fifteen thousand acres are devoted to raising food for the people; 151,000 acres are monopolized by the herds of a dozen graziers. In the union are 5,322 occupiers of agricultural land, and 3,041 of them pay less than twenty dollars a year rental for their holdings. They pay all the holdings are worth, one may be sure; and the annual value of the produce which a family can gather from a farm worth twenty dollars a year is the measure of these people's standard of comfort. More than one thousand other tenants are able to pay less than forty dollars a year for their holdings. Nearly all of the land held by these poor tenants is reclaimed bog or mountain heather, upon which crops are produced only by dint of incredible toil.

WHERE THE POOR FEED THE DESTITUTE.

The conditions in this union are typical of those which exist in a considerable area of the western part of Ireland,—in Mayo, Donegal, Galway, and Clare. In County Mayo, for instance, of a total of 1,327,000 acres of land, 93,000 acres are in crops, 645,000 acres in pasture; and from these 93,000 acres, chiefly very poor land, 217,000 inhabitants must extract the means of subsistence. These people cannot live upon the land, and every year many thousands of them go as harvest laborers to England or Scotland, earning small wages, sleeping in barns, exercising the most heroic self-denial, that they may bring meager savings of forty or fifty dollars each home to their families. But for these additions to their incomes, and the steady inflow of remittances from loyal kin in America, starvation would ever stalk through the region. As it is, the great majority live from hand to mouth, the poor help the destitute, one out of seven of the population are supported from the poor rates, and half the remainder are constantly upon the verge of actual want.

In all, throughout what is known as the congested districts,—the agricultural slums of Ireland clearly created by the harshness of the system and not by natural causes,—more than one hundred thousand families are living amid conditions so wretched that they are a disgrace to the British Empire. Arthur Balfour visited this region in 1888, and was so impressed by what he saw that he shortly afterward created the Congested Districts Board, a government body fairly supplied with funds, and with power to buy and redistribute estates, enlarge and sell out holdings, and help the people to lift themselves up. This board has done good work. On a small scale, this experiment has practically demonstrated how the work of rehabilitation may be performed. It is a satisfaction to know that in the land-settlement scheme now in hand the ministry proposes to create a vastly larger congested districts board to deal with this problem on an adequate scale.

A TRUE IRISHMAN IN DUBLIN CASTLE.

When Prime Minister Balfour and Irish Secretary Wyndham decided that the greatest work to be done for the unification and strengthening of the empire was to make Ireland loyal, that Ireland could not be made loyal without contentment, that contentment could not be had without prosperity, and that prosperity could not be secured without the abolition of landlordism and the introduction of the sound principle of individual ownership, they cast about for

men and means with which to carry out the new policy. Chief Secretary Wyndham has the work directly in hand, but as he must remain most of the time in London, he needed a man—the right man—to represent him in Ireland. While in India as viceroy, Lord Lansdowne had known of the work of Sir Antony MacDonnell. In the northwest provinces of India, MacDonnell had solved—scientifically and satisfactorily—a land problem similar to that in Ireland. On Lansdowne's recommendation,—and this is a state secret,—he was sent for. Lord Lansdowne took him to King Edward, who feels the keenest interest in the project to make a new and loyal Ireland. "I am willing to undertake the work," said Sir Antony to the King, "but you must bear in mind that I am not only an Irishman and a Roman Catholic, but a Nationalist and a Home Ruler." "That makes no difference," replied the King; "you are the man we want." So Balfour and Wyndham sent MacDonnell to Dublin as under-secretary. He has been there only two months; but in this short time he has thrown old traditions and prejudices to the winds; he has consulted not only the landlords, but the true representatives of the Irish people,—the Nationalist members of Parliament and T. W. Russell, the Scotch Presbyterian, who has brought Ulster in line for land reform and for the first time enabled the Irish people to present a united front, Catholic and Protestant, Nationalist and Unionist, Leinster, Munster, and Connaught along with Ulster,—for settlement of the land problem upon the sound principle of individual ownership in place of dual ownership and landlordism. As a practical administrator, dealing frankly with the landlords on one side and the Nationalists on the other, he had, up to the time I left Ireland, in December, secured a general agreement upon the details of the project which the government will present to Parliament in a few weeks. More than 80 per cent. of the landowners whose rentals exceed five hundred pounds a year had given their consent, and most of the remainder were expected to join. If a remnant stand out, the project will go ahead just the same, and something akin to compulsion or the law of eminent domain will be applied to them, for the government is determined this time to make a complete and final job of it, to leave no sore spots or centers of discontent. The Nationalist leaders—William O'Brien, John Redmond, T. P. O'Connor, John Dillon, Michael Davitt, and others—will support the government measure in Parliament. Mr. Bryce and other leaders of the Liberal party tell me that if the bill is a good one,—and, of course, English political and journalistic methods are

such that they do not yet know what the measure is to be,—there will be no opposition.

HOW THE LAND IS TO BE RESTORED TO THE PEOPLE.

Land settlement, then, may be regarded as fairly well assured. There is always danger of accident or delay, but the men who have the work in hand are confident of success. Already their plans are well-nigh perfected; subject to slight variations of details, which will not affect the general principle involved, the project is substantially as follows: Landlords are to have twenty-three years' purchase of their second-term rents, or £23,000 for an estate renting at £1,000 a year, one-half in cash, to enable them to clear off their debts, and one-half in land stock bearing about 4 per cent. interest. This will assure the landlords their present net income, with the advantage of prime security in place of the existing uncertainty. Tenant purchasers are to pay eighteen years' rent in terms of fifty or sixty years, making their annual payment considerably less than their present rent, and with ownership instead of endless tribute at the end of the period. Most landlords are glad to sell, all tenants willing to buy, on these terms. The difference of five years' purchase, and the difference between the 3 per cent. the government will have to pay for about £100,000,000 of capital or credit and the $2\frac{1}{2}$ or $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. it will get from the purchasing tenants, is the bonus which the state must pay for contentment and prosperity, and in the end for loyalty, in Ireland. It is computed that the annual cost of carrying and amortization of this bonus will be under a million pounds sterling,—the best investment for the unity and strength of the empire England ever made, even if every penny of it must come out of the treasury. But the treasury will not have to bear it. With the land question settled, members of the cabinet tell me the cost of Irish administration can easily be reduced £1,000,000 a year. For instance, the royal constabulary, a standing army of 13,000 men, maintained almost entirely because the landlords think they need it, costs £1,350,000 a year. With landlordism abolished, this standing army may be largely dispensed with,—be reduced to one-quarter or one-third its present numbers and cost.

With the land question settled, most of the objections to home rule will disappear; and that home rule—in some form—will logically and naturally follow disposal of the land question, is the belief of English and Irish public men of all parties. This most interesting and important topic of home rule for Ireland I propose to deal with in a future number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*.

LABOR UNIONS AND THE LAW.

THE RECENT TAFF VALE DECISION IN ENGLAND, MAKING UNIONS LIABLE FOR DAMAGES.

BY A. MAURICE LOW.

THE verdict rendered by a special jury in the Court of King's Bench in the closing days of last December, in favor of the Taff Vale Railway Company against the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants and their officers, is one of the most important verdicts ever rendered by a British court of justice in a question affecting labor, and it marks an epoch in the history of labor in the United Kingdom. It ranks in importance second only to the passage by Parliament of the trade-union acts and the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act; there has been no judicial decision of such vital consequence to labor since the judgment of the House of Lords in the celebrated case of *Allen versus Flood*, which, in the words of the lord high chancellor, "overruled the precedents of 200 years," and, as expressed by Lord Morris, "overturned the overwhelming judicial opinion of England."

The history of the Taff Vale Railway case is simple. The railway company had a difference with some of its employees, which led, in August, 1900, to a strike without the men giving proper notice to terminate their agreements. The men, accompanied by two officers of their union, Holmes and Bell, tried to effect a settlement with the company, but while the company professed itself ready to discuss any matters in dispute with its own employees, it refused to confer with outsiders. The strike lasted for about a fortnight, and was settled through the intervention of the Board of Trade.

While the strike was in progress, the railway company applied for an injunction against Bell and Holmes to restrain them from watching and besetting the Cardiff railway station and adjacent property, on the ground that their action was in violation of the seventh section of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, which made it illegal for men to "watch or beset." The Amalgamated Society vigorously opposed the granting of the writ of injunction, on the ground that as the society was not a corporation or an individual, it could not be sued in a quasi-corporate or any other capacity, and that an action in tort would not lie. Mr. Justice Farwell refused to entertain this plea, and while

he conceded that a trade-union "is neither a corporation, nor an individual, nor a partnership between a number of individuals," he held that a trade-union was a corporate body, and as such qualified to sue and to be sued, and that the funds in its possession could be attached in payment of damages for illegal acts committed by its officials.

If this dictum were sound, it was one of the most crushing blows ever delivered against trade-unionism. Trade-unionism, instead of being an element of strength to the workingman, would be the means of his undoing, because the logical deduction from Mr. Justice Farwell's decision was that trade-unions were responsible for the acts of their members and were liable in damages for any injury done by any member. It must be remembered that British courts had frequently, prior to this injunction, awarded employers damages for the unlawful acts of individual employees; but the employers had gained nothing by these verdicts, because the individual British workman has no money with which to satisfy a verdict, while on the other hand, by making the union responsible, the position of affairs was entirely changed, as many of the unions,—the Amalgamated Society, for instance,—have large sums standing to their credit.

The Amalgamated Society, therefore, with the material and financial support of trade-unions throughout Great Britain, determined to carry the case to the court above, and it came on for hearing in the Court of Appeals before the master of the rolls and Lord Justices Collins and Sterling, in November, 1900. The unanimous decision of the court, delivered by the master of the rolls, based on the decisions in *Flood versus Allen* and the other leading cases, was that a union cannot be sued as such. The court pointed out that in the trade-union acts there was no provision empowering a trade-union to sue or to be sued, except in defense of its own property; and hence it was argued in much detail that it was purposely the intent of the legislature, in omitting this provision, to differentiate between a trade-union and a joint-stock company, or any other corporation, and the injunction was ordered dissolved. This was a substantial victory for the union, especially as they were granted

costs. Permission was given to the plaintiffs to appeal to the House of Lords, the highest judicial tribunal of the British Empire.

The appeal was accordingly taken, and in July last a decision was rendered, the House of Lords overruling the Court of Appeal and sustaining Mr. Justice Farwell in his conclusion that a trade-union was a legal entity, capable of suing and being sued. In moving the bench that the appeal be allowed, the lord chancellor said :

In this case, I am content to adopt the judgment of Mr. Justice Farwell, with which I entirely agree, and I cannot find any satisfactory answer to that judgment in the judgment of the Court of Appeal which overruled it. If the legislature has created a thing which can own property, which can employ servants, and which can inflict injury, it must be taken, I think, to have impliedly given power to make it suable in the courts of law for injuries purposely done by its authority and procuration.

The House of Lords having decided that a labor union, like any other corporation or individual, might be sued for damages, the Taff Vale Railway Company began suit against the Amalgamated Society for £28,000 damages. This suit was decided on December 20 last, and resulted in a verdict for the plaintiffs, the exact amount of damages to be passed upon later. In summing up, Mr. Justice Wills, before whom the case was heard, said there were three questions to be left to the jury, namely :

Whether the defendants had conspired to unlawfully molest and injure the plaintiffs ; whether the defendants had unlawfully persuaded the men to break their contracts ; and whether the defendants had authorized and assisted in carrying on the strike by unlawful means.

It was pointed out by Mr. Justice Wills in his charge to the jury that strikes were lawful under the act of 1875, if the persons who carried them out confined themselves to lawful means. Conspiracy consisted in the concerted action rather than the concert to act by two or more persons to produce a common end, and it might be unlawful in two ways,—to compass a lawful end by unlawful means, or to compass an unlawful end. In the language of Lord Justice Lindlay, every man was permitted to earn his own living in his own way, and to carry on his business in his own way, provided that he did not violate some special law and did not infringe the rights of other people. Justice Wills maintained that it was clear that there was concerted action between the officials of the society and its members, for the purpose of carrying on the strike or interfering with the business of the plaintiffs, and to induce their workmen to break contracts.

Under the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act of 1875, the statute referred to by Mr. Justice Wills, strikes are made legal within certain limits and provided certain things are done and certain other things left undone. Prior to the passage of that act, men had been convicted of conspiracy because they had in concert left their employment. The act of 1875 provided that a combination by two or more persons done in furtherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen should not be regarded as a conspiracy if the act, committed by one person, would not be punishable as a crime. That is to say, any act legal for one person to do or perform is legal when done in conjunction with other persons. But under the seventh section of that same act, any person who uses violence or intimidation toward another person, who "watches or besets his house or the place where he works, or follows him with two or more persons in a disorderly manner," is subject to fine or imprisonment, but "attending" near the house or place where a person resides or works in order merely to obtain or communicate information is not watching or besetting, within the meaning of the act.

In other words, workmen might legally maintain a pacific blockade, but might not legally enforce a belligerent blockade. They might legally use moral suasion to induce a fellow-workman not to work or to seek employment, but if they in any way use coercion to effect the same purpose they immediately render themselves liable to the penalties of the law.

The point at issue, of course, in this case was whether the Amalgamated Society, through its agents, had acted within their legal rights when, as the evidence showed, 1,200 men were ordered to picket the Taff Vale Railway Company's property and premises, and whether, in inducing men to leave their employment, the society had not overstepped the bounds. The verdict of the jury answers both questions in the affirmative. But it goes even one step further. A strike has been the great weapon in the hands of labor to correct grievances. Under the decision of the Court of King's Bench, in accordance with the dictum of the House of Lords, labor in Great Britain has been substantially told that "you may strike whenever and so often as you please, but your strike will be ineffective unless you resort to illegal methods, and the moment you commit an illegal act you render yourself civilly and criminally responsible." The strike, therefore, instead of becoming a weapon of strength, is a weapon of weakness turned against the striker and his union.

SOME TAXATION PROBLEMS AND REFORMS.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

(Secretary, Taxation Department, National Civic Federation.)

TO the State of Indiana belongs the credit of striking out on certain lines of taxation which mark the progress of tax reform during the past ten years. The legislation of 1891 in that State developed both new machinery and new principles of taxation which, being sustained by the Supreme Court of the United States, have served as guides for other States. Both by what Indiana accomplished and by what she showed cannot be accomplished, has the progress of reform in State and local taxation been advanced.

IMPROVEMENTS ON THE LOCAL ASSESSMENT SYSTEM.

The new machinery of taxation introduced in 1891 was the State Board of Tax Commissioners and the county assessors. The glaring evil which that machinery corrected was the unchecked authority of township and ward assessors. The local assessor is elected by his fellow-citizens. His valuation of their property determines the share which each shall pay toward local taxes, and the share which all shall pay toward county and State taxes. He is paid \$2 a day, and works two months of the busiest season of the year, when other callings are most attractive. Both by their local patriotism in protecting their constituents from county and State taxes, and by their incapacity for earning anything more than the wages of farm hands in the spring time, the 1,300 local assessors of Indiana, like the similar thousands in other States, had shaved down the valuations, or failed to note the existence, of millions of dollars' worth of local property. The American jealousy of centralization was augmented by a pecuniary motive, which made the local assessor especially dear to the immemorial precepts of local self-government. Indiana went as far toward the invasion of these precepts as the state of public mind and an intolerable situation of tax evasion would then permit, but not as far as other States which have followed her lead. She created first the appointive office of county assessor. This official supervises the town assessors, and even takes the assessment out of their hands whenever he is convinced of their incapacity or inequity. His power, however, is guarded, since his action is of the nature of an appeal to the county board of review which appoints him. This board decides between him and the local

assessor. The taxpayer, also, as heretofore, has an appeal to the board.

THE INDIANA COMMISSION AND ITS POWERS.

The State Tax Commission is the regulator of the entire machinery of assessment. It is ingeniously constructed so as to subserve economy of salaries and balance of interests. Two appointed members on modest salaries give their entire time to the work, and three *ex-officio* members, the governor, secretary of state, and auditor of state, meet with them for four or five weeks at the close of the assessment season. The secretary of the commission is the deputy auditor of state. No assessment is complete or valid in any part of the State until approved by this high administrative court, which entertains appeals made by taxpayers, by assessors, or by county boards of review. The commission raises or lowers the assessments of individuals, or of entire towns, cities, or counties. It finally approves the grand duplicate of the State, which then is ready to be spread upon the books of the tax collectors.

CONFERENCES OF COUNTY AND LOCAL ASSESSORS.

The appointive members of this commission visit every county in the State and examine the work of assessment. They deal directly with the county assessors. Every year, just before the annual assessment, the State Board assembles all of the county assessors at Indianapolis for a conference. Here they agree upon uniform rules of valuation for every item of property throughout the State, from chickens to banks. Although these rules are not binding in law, they serve as guides to the several assessors, and have undoubtedly tended toward uniformity. After the State conference, the county assessors return to their separate fields and hold similar conferences with the local assessors. In this way a continuous equalization is in progress, and the State commissioners keep their hands on the entire taxation machinery of the State.

THE "UNIT RULE" AS APPLIED TO CORPORATIONS.

It is in the assessment of railroads and interstate carriers that the Indiana system has made the distinctive advance of the past ten years in the principles of taxation. These properties had never been assessed at their full value, owing to conflicts with interstate commerce, and owing to

the separate assessment by 1,300 local assessors. The law of 1891 gave the State Commission original jurisdiction in the assessment of these properties, except for real estate. It gave the commission power to determine the value of an entire railway system running through several States, and then to apportion to Indiana and to the several towns and cities such proportion of this aggregate value as the local mileage bears to the aggregate mileage. Most important of all, the law did not prescribe any rules of valuation, but left this to the good judgment of the board, and the Supreme Court of the United States has sustained the board in its great powers and the finality of its appraisals. Out of these decisions, and others on the same line, the Supreme Court has developed the so-called "unit rule" of assessment, by which interstate corporations may be valued as a unit, on the ground that "whatever property is worth for income or sale it is worth for taxation." Without specifying the taxation of franchises, this unit rule, which relies mainly on the device of adding together the market value of the stocks and bonds, or of capitalizing the net income, plainly taxes the franchise and good-will as well as the tangible property of the corporation. In the first year of its organization the Indiana board raised the assessed valuation of the railroads within the State from \$69,000,000 to \$160,000,000. In 1893, the Legislature extended the original jurisdiction of the State Board to express companies and telegraph and telephone companies, and in 1901 to fast freight and sleeping-car companies, and to pipe lines traversing more than one county.

THE MICHIGAN SYSTEM — ENLARGED POWERS OF THE STATE COMMISSION.

The State of Michigan, in 1899, improved upon the Indiana system in some particulars, but fell short in others. Thinking that Indiana had raised up a superfluous officer in the county assessor, the Michigan Legislature omitted this important wheel in the machine, but gave the State Commission much greater powers. The omission of the county assessor was probably a mistake, since it compels the State Commission to deal directly with 1,400 local assessors instead of 80 county assessors. But the State Commission has powers so much greater than those of the Indiana Commission that there is a certain compensation. It has power to change any assessment within the State upon its own motion, and without waiting for an appeal. It can summon any individual or corporation to a special review, or it can summon an entire township or city to a general review, to show cause why his or its assessment should not be raised.

The newspaper announcements of these reviews, citing by name hundreds of taxpayers to appear at the city hall, the court house, or the hotel, have become a common feature of the stirring methods of this commission. Valuations throughout the State have been literally "jerked up,"—to use the only term that fitly describes the ensuing state of mind. True, these hoistings have not increased the tax burden as a whole, except for the use of the fortunate State University, which enjoys a fixed "mill rate." With this exception, the commission has merely redistributed the burden, and a lower tax rate has followed the higher valuation. The copper mines, for example, were raised from \$28,000,000 to \$108,000,000, whereas the average rise of all property was only some 40 or 50 per cent.

RAILROAD TAXES COLLECTED BY THE STATE GOVERNMENT.

The Michigan Commission differs from that of Indiana in its *personnel*. It is composed solely of appointive members,—at first three, then increased to five, and these are kept busy going to and fro in the State. In this respect the Indiana system is superior, since the presence of elective members, including the highest officers of the State, gives dignity and responsibility, while the appointive members furnish technical and expert qualities. This balance of the two methods of selection, like the bimetallic theory of money, maintains a more stable immunity from that corporate or political pressure which is certain at times to influence one or both the other methods of selection, but is unlikely to affect both methods at the same time. The Michigan Commission, unlike the Indiana Commission, has a large staff of clerks, and, more essential than clerks, a civil engineer and accountant for the valuation of corporate properties. Here again the Indiana model is followed, in that railroads and other carriers are assessed directly by the State Board by the unit rule. But, differently from Indiana, the taxes are computed at the average tax rate of the State, and are collected as a unit by the state treasurer, instead of being apportioned to the counties according to mileage, and collected by the ninety county treasurers. The revenues thus secured are distributed to the school districts according to school attendance.

The Michigan Commission has recently made its first assessment of railroads, and has placed their assessed value at \$208,212,500. The tax on this amount, at the average rate of 1.3689 per cent. for the State, will amount to \$2,850,231, a sum almost double the taxes paid in 1901, under the gross revenue system of taxation.

The gain to the school fund may be realized when it is known that already there are some localities in the State where it has been found unnecessary to raise any local taxes for school purposes, owing to the funds already received from the State railroad tax

OHIO'S ATTEMPTS TO TAX PUBLIC SERVICE CORPORATIONS.

Indiana and Michigan are furnishing lessons to other States. In Ohio the investigations of Prof. E. W. Bemis showed that railroads were assessed at one-third to one-half of the assessed value per mile of the same roads in the two adjoining States. Under the Ohio decisions, however, neither railroads nor municipal public service corporations can be assessed upon their franchise values, but the assessment is restricted to the value of tangible property. Growing out of the interest aroused in this situation, the Legislature, in 1902, enacted two laws, the "Willis Law," imposing an "excise tax" of one-tenth of one per cent. on the capital stock of domestic and foreign corporations employed within the State, and the "Cole Law," imposing an "excise tax" of 1 per cent. on the gross revenues of public service corporations. Under the Willis law the tax is paid to the secretary of state "for the privilege of exercising its franchises in Ohio." Under the Cole law the tax is computed by an *ex officio* board of appraisers, including the state auditor, state treasurer, attorney-general, and secretary of state. Both taxes are paid to the State treasury. The tangible property of railroads continues to be assessed by the county auditors of the counties through which the roads run.

EFFORTS AT TAX REFORM IN WISCONSIN AND MINNESOTA.

The Indiana and Michigan systems have been investigated by official commissions from Wisconsin and Minnesota, and certain features have been recommended and adopted in those States. Wisconsin has a tax commission of three members, appointed for ten years, for the express purpose of investigation and recommendation, and has adopted the Indiana idea of county assessors. A Minnesota commission recommended a tax code modeled closely after that of Indiana, but the Legislature, in special session, refused to adopt it, not because it was defective as a piece of machinery, but because it promised to be too effective in exposing omitted intangible property.

DIFFICULTIES IN ASSESSING BANK DEPOSITS.

This brings me to the objects which recent tax reforms show cannot be accomplished. One of

the first things which the Indiana Commission set itself to do was the discovery of intangible property, and it began with bank deposits. Deposits in Indiana are treated as cash, and, unlike other credits, cannot be offset by debts. Bank reports showed more than one hundred millions on deposit, and scarcely a million had ever been assessed. Here was a rich field in which to vindicate the new law. Encouraged by its unprecedented powers, extending even to imprisonment for contempt, the commission summoned bankers to open their books, and, on their refusal, condemned them to jail. Habeas corpus proceedings immediately brought the matter to court. The lawyers of the State were unprepared, for no important tax litigation had come to them for years. Judges were equally novitiate, and listened with inquisitive patience. Finally, on appeal, the Supreme Court of the State declared that penalties and imprisonment were judicial prerogatives, and the Legislature had exceeded its powers in bestowing such grants upon an administrative branch. At the next assessment, on April 1, the bankers claimed that many millions of deposits were withdrawn from the banks, and many of them transferred to banks of other States, and, with this argument, finally, in 1901, they secured a substitute to this section of the law greatly restricting the inquisitorial powers of local assessors.

This chapter from the Indiana experiment marks off at least one road which tax reform cannot follow. Indeed, it shows that the more perfect the machinery of the assessment, the more vicious the effect of bad laws. A bank panic on April 1 every year might well indicate that the law which provoked it was not merely dangerous to tax-dodgers, but also unsound in economics. If banks are taxed on the full value of their capital, and the banking business is not monopolized, their depositors are thereby taxed in the low rate or no rate of interest on deposits which the banks can afford to pay.

THE QUESTION OF TAXING MORTGAGES.

Another lesson in tax reform is on the taxation of mortgages. Here Michigan and Wisconsin have been more spectacular, but not more instructive, than Indiana. Indiana approached the subject gradually and gave the tax-dodgers notice. Michigan and Wisconsin came down suddenly and hard, and the adjustment is not yet complete. The Michigan State Commission secures from every recorder of deeds in the State a list of all unsatisfied mortgages held by residents of the State, with the address of the mortgagee. These are classified at headquarters and sent out to every assessor.

In Indiana and Wisconsin the county assessors exchange their lists directly. In one year in Michigan the total assessment of mortgages was raised from some \$5,000,000 to \$55,000,000. Wisconsin in four years raised the assessment of intangible property from about \$16,000,000 to \$72,000,000, nearly all of the increase being in mortgages. Other classes of credits escape because they are not of public record. In both States the results are interesting. Mortgages are renewed or new ones made at an advance of 1 per cent. or $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in the rate of interest. This has aroused the farmers to a lively interest in the economics of tax laws, following their earlier interest in the reform of tax administration. But the adjustment is taking place, and in Indiana it is already made, with interest on average mortgage security at 5 per cent., against $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and 7 per cent. in the other States.

HOW LENDERS DODGE THE MORTGAGE TAX.

The devices for adjustment are diverse and ingenious. The inquirer hears of a new one nearly every day. A college professor naively relates that he sends his money to his sister in New York, who sends it back for him to lend on mortgage at 5 per cent. Others less conscientious create fictitious friends or relatives in other States, whose money they loan. Mortgages are made out to "trustees" and assigned without record. A presiding elder lends his money and assigns the mortgage to an invisible entity. All of these private lenders are at a disadvantage. State banks and trust companies, being assessed on their capital, are not assessed directly on their mortgages. And when they have reached their limit of investments in long-time loans, many of them accommodate their customers by assigning to them mortgages held in their own name. Most of all, foreign insurance companies and other lenders come into the State, and it is these lenders in Indiana that have established the rate at 5 per cent. They probably will do the same in the other States.

Here again is a road which tax reform cannot take. Improved machinery of assessment throws the mortgage tax on the borrower, or else gives a bonus to untaxed holders and outside holders, and this forces the unprivileged holder to prevaricate. Yet, naturally enough, the prevaricator does not consider himself morally perverse, for he is only obeying a higher law which is above the human law laid down by the Legislature. He instinctively feels that he is really paying his tax in the low rate of interest which competition forces him to accept. A tax of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to 3 per cent. on a mortgage at 5 per

cent. he holds to be not taxation, but robbery, and he has the common-law right of self-protection against robbers.

INDIANA'S EXEMPTION LAW.

The experience of these States has led to legislation on mortgage taxation. The legislatures of Michigan and Wisconsin both adopted bills in 1901 taxing mortgages as real estate, but allowing the mortgagor a deduction from the assessed value of his land to the amount of the mortgage. Both bills were vetoed by the governors on minor points, and will again be pressed for enactment. Indiana, in 1899, enacted a remarkable law, exempting mortgaged property to an amount not exceeding \$700, or one-half the mortgage if that is less than \$1,400. Under this law the mortgage "deductions" for the State foot up \$40,000,000, and, since the mortgages are held mainly by non-residents, the State loses nearly that whole amount from the tax rolls. The law was sustained by a bare majority of the State court, but is now before the Supreme Court of the United States.

INNOVATIONS IN CHICAGO.

Even more revolutionary than the legislation of these three States have been the tax reforms in Chicago and the counties of Illinois. Under the Illinois constitution the law necessarily affects all counties alike, but it was drawn especially for Chicago, which now elects nearly one-half of the State Legislature. The tax situation in Chicago, six years ago, had become notoriously corrupt, and the popular impression throughout the country continues to give that city a black name, although it has now one of the most efficient and upright systems of municipal assessment to be found in the United States. There still remain evils and heritages of fiscal iniquity, but these are confined mainly to the collection of taxes, and to that part of local assessment which remains under the original jurisdiction of the State Board of Equalization. As far as the local assessment is concerned, the Chicago of to-day bears no resemblance to the Chicago of six years ago. A single corporation, which formerly paid \$120 in taxes and \$5,000 to the assessor, now pays \$9,000 in taxes and nothing to the assessor. The office of assessor, which, in the business districts, was formerly worth half a million dollars to the assessor and the party, is abolished altogether.

NEW MACHINERY FOR ASSESSING CITY PROPERTY.

The foundations of this reform are centralization and publicity. The city corporation had spread over the original town governments, which

continued to elect the assessors. Consequently, where the ordinary town assessor protects his constituents against only county and State taxes, the Chicago assessors were called upon to protect them also against municipal and park taxes. In the course of thirty years this perverse emulation had brought down the assessed values of property to from 5 to 15 per cent. of true value, and the rate of taxation up to from 8 to 13 per cent., according to the district. With such a rate, the incentive to undervaluation was still further augmented, since a reduction of \$100 in a man's assessment saved him from \$8 to \$13 in his taxes. The law of 1895 abolished the town assessors and substituted a county board of five assessors, elected at large for terms of six years. It also created a board of review of three members elected at large, one member at each election, for a term of six years.

When the assessors have made their valuations, a printed slip is made out for each ward, containing the description of each piece of real estate and its assessment. This is sent to every taxpayer in the ward or district. In this way every person knows the assessments of his neighbors, and can make appeal, if he wishes, to the Board of Review.

"PERSONAL" VALUATION QUADRUPLD.

Similar lists are sent to the owners of personal property. But in this case the lists are made out for each line of business, and are sent to all the taxpayers appearing on the list. In addition, the Board of Review selects a committee of citizens from each "line," and submits the list to them for revision. This committee, being familiar with all the business houses, rates them all according to the amount of business and regardless of the itemized schedules returned by each. At the present time there are more than 200 of these separate committees of citizens cooperating in the assessment machinery. The Board of Review accepts their ratings, but at the last assessment added 10 per cent. all around, in order to relieve real estate that much. This method of citizen assessment has resulted in raising the valuation of personal property in Chicago from \$21,000,000 to \$88,000,000, but with the interesting outcome that the personal property tax has been transformed into something like a gross revenue tax; for the board disregards the itemized schedules returned by business houses and accepts the proportionate ratings returned by the committees, based upon their judgment of the amount of business done by each house. Naturally, in each line, the stock of goods is proportionate to the amount of business, but it is assessed as a unit and no

longer by items. The law is indeed conformed to by publishing the items as returned in the schedules, but the additions made by the board are entered under the item "all other property," and this item is now two-thirds of the personal property assessment. One notable feature of this practice is the entire elimination of mortgages from the lists, and the almost complete elimination of credits. While other parts of the State and other States pay attention to these items, the Chicago assessors lump them all together under their "unit rule" of assessment.

ST. PAUL'S PLAN OF BLOCK VALUATION.

In the taxation of real estate, publicity has been carried to its highest perfection in St. Paul. In 1896, the deputy assessor, Mr. W. A. Somers, invited the Chamber of Commerce and other bodies to select committees from the different sections of the city, who should place a front-foot value on the middle lots of each block in the city. With these values before him, he constructed percentage tables showing the variations to be allowed for different depths and for corner lots. He then plotted convenient sections of the city on large charts, which were hung up at a public meeting-place, to which he invited on successive evenings the citizens and residents interested in the particular sections announced for review. Criticisms were made, and the corrected valuations were then transferred to the assessment rolls. This practice applied only to ground values, and not to improvements. Buildings were assessed separately, under the supervision of a committee of architects and builders. This committee drew up a blank schedule for the description of buildings, and these schedules were filled out by clerks who inspected the properties. The schedules provided for a minute description of each building, showing the material of which it is constructed, the dimensions, projections, roof, outside finish, inside finish, method of heating, water-supply, drainage, number and character of rooms, sidewalk, etc. Following is one of the seventeen items taken from this schedule, showing the particularity with which the description is made. The clerk, in using the schedule, checks off by means of a circle the appropriate word descriptive of this feature of the building:

Outside finish:

Siding, shingles, brick, common, pressed; stone, cut, rough.

Trimming:

Plain, ornamental, stone, metal, wood.

The schedules, when filled out, were returned to the committee of experts, who placed a value

per square foot on each building according to its description in the schedule. From this the clerks computed the total value of the building for taxation. This system of publicity and expert valuation has given complete satisfaction to the citizens of St. Paul, and has raised the problem of real-estate assessment from an amateurish guess to a scientific demonstration. The cost is no greater than that of the former guessing method. The system was recently adopted in Cleveland, and revealed some startling inequalities in preceding assessments.

In Cleveland, the reassessment on the basis of the Somers system was conducted on an elaborate scale, and with great attention to detail, under the direction of the assessor, Peter Witt. A large number of charts were drafted, and the ground values of basing points in each block were determined at public hearings. These were then published and distributed to taxpayers, with other charts showing cash values and the appraised values of the preceding assessment.

APPRAISAL OF BUILDING PROPERTY IN CITIES.

The valuation of buildings was also centralized and systematized. Clerks were detailed with blanks for the description of each building, and these blanks, filled out, were put in the hands of an architect and builder, who went over the ground, taking the description with him. As he passed each building he set down his estimate of its value. The blanks were made out in such minute detail that this single assessor was able, with their help and his own practised eye, to assess all of the buildings in the city. The advantage of this centralized method lies in the fact that there are no conflicts of judgment between assessors, and every building in the city is rated proportionately and equitably with every other building. These valuations, like the valuations of the land, were also submitted to the taxpayers.

FULL VALUATION IN NEW YORK CITY.

A notable instance of what may be done through centralization of assessment has just occurred in New York. In that city, the tax commissioners are appointed and removed by the mayor, and naturally they take instructions from him. In New York, as in all other cities and local governments which have not been reached by recent movements of tax reform, the valuation of property for assessment was considerably below the true value. This undervaluation had been brought about by the desire to escape as much as possible of the taxes for State purposes. But this motive has now been practically eliminated through the policy of the

governor and the Legislature in recent years, directed to the segregation of sources of revenue for State purposes. With the direct State tax out of the way, the demand for assessment at full value gained strength through two considerations: (1) Equality and justice in taxation, and (2) a proposed increase of the bond-issuing capacity.

The mayor pointed out that the old assessments ranged from $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to 130 per cent. of full value, and that equalization could not be effective on any other standard than that of full value, as required by law. The comptroller, in one of his addresses on the subject, said:

The small property has generally been assessed higher than the larger property; the small home at a higher rate than the business property, the hotel, office building, or apartment house; the improved property higher than the vacant; the outlying boroughs higher than Manhattan; the upper part of Manhattan higher than the lower; though gross inequalities may be found even in a single borough, for there are sections of Brooklyn varying 80 per cent. from others.

A sub-committee of the Citizens' Union, which had nominated Mr. Low for mayor, and which contained an active element of so-called "single-taxers," was especially persistent in pressing the argument of equality both before the public and before the mayor. This element was concerned mainly about the raising of assessments on vacant lots, which they expected would come through full assessment. That their objects have been in a measure realized seems to be borne out by the president of the Central Realty Bond and Trust Company, who stated in an interview: "The raising of tax bills will redound to the benefit of the professional operators. It will tend to force holders of valuable unimproved or partially improved properties to let them go to those who can put them to good use."

The enormous debt of the city had nearly reached the limit of 10 per cent. of assessed value of real estate, established by the State constitution, and the city found itself unable to build schoolhouses, hospitals, police stations, fire-engine houses, and to make dock improvements, required for its rapidly growing population. Raising the assessed valuation would add to the city's borrowing capacity.

With these two arguments, the mayor directed the tax commissioners, in 1902, to assess all property at full value. The books were opened on January 12, 1903, and showed an increased valuation of real estate in Greater New York of \$1,425,452,387, the figures for 1902 being \$3,330,647,579, and for 1903 being \$4,756,099,966. The normal increase of the preceding years had been \$296,985,925. The increase varies widely for different boroughs. While the average is

40 per cent., the increase for Brooklyn is only 27 per cent., and that for Manhattan is 48 per cent. Brooklyn's former assessments had been more nearly true value than those of Manhattan.

Of course, increased assessment does not of itself increase the taxes, since the rate is thereby reduced. The rate in Manhattan, in 1902, was 2.273 per cent., and in 1903 it is estimated at 1.6 per cent. But increased assessment redistributes the taxes, since certain properties are increased in much greater proportion than others. Striking examples might be given. The Equitable Life Building was raised from \$6,350,000 to \$10,500,000; the Stock Exchange from \$2,100,000 to \$4,600,000; Richard Croker's residence from \$50,000 to \$100,000; Mayor Low's residence from \$70,000 to \$135,000; W. H. Vanderbilt's residence from \$700,000 to \$1,500,000. Vacant lots, in some instances, were raised more than threefold.

It is not to be supposed that property is even yet assessed at full value, or that the finer shades of inequality are removed. The daily papers have contained comparisons showing that larger properties are now assessed at 75 per cent. to 90 per cent. of true value. The reasons for this can readily be understood when the *personnel* and procedure of the deputy assessors are considered.

As stated by one of the daily papers:

A deputy commissioner is assigned to a certain district or territory. He goes out with a book in which is written the tax valuation of last year of each piece of real estate in his district.

He is supposed to walk around, look over the lots and buildings, and in another column enter in pencil his estimate of the value for this year of each piece. He may ask all the questions he wants to, but no owner or agent of a lot is compelled to tell him anything. Most of them, it is assumed, would tell him nothing if he announced his business. He may search the register's office for records of transfers and mortgages, and there alone can he obtain anything that can be classed as official information about the value of real estate in his district.

For years, this system of assessment has been in this city generally regarded as one of pure guesswork on the part of the deputy, and one open to flagrant favoritism. The Mazet Committee brought out a mass of testimony intended to show that there had been favoritism in fixing valuations. A large number of the present deputy tax commissioners are Tammany hold-overs, and all, or nearly all, have been appointed from civil-service lists.

From this description, it can be seen how greatly superior is the Somers system, above de-

scribed, wherein the ground is assessed separately from buildings and improvements and the citizens in each locality are called together in public hearing to decide upon true front-foot values, while an architect or builder is employed to appraise all the buildings on a uniform basis of comparison.

The assessment of personal property in New York was also increased from \$3,482,475,802 in 1902 to \$4,420,326,945 in 1903, an increase of 27 per cent. But this increase has as yet but little significance, since under the liberal laws of New York in the matter of debt deductions the amount will be reduced to an unknown residuum. In Manhattan, last year, in the course of this "swearing-off" process, the personal property assessment of \$3,004,869,916 was reduced to \$412,388,258, a reduction of 87 per cent.

A FEW GENERALIZATIONS.

Many suggestive details might further be cited showing the progress of tax methods and principles in these and other States and localities. If one were to draw conclusions from both the attained and attempted reforms, up to the present time, he would have something as follows:

Town assessors are tyros under the influence of constituents and supporters. County and city boards have greater experience and greater freedom. If town assessors are retained, they require the close supervision of a State board of experts.

Interstate carriers and other large corporations can be fairly assessed only by a State board.

The State board should be balanced by a union of appointive and *ex-officio* members, and should command the services of an engineer and accountant.

Organized publicity, through the coöperation of citizen experts, abolishes corruption and secures equitable apportionment between members of a class.

The listing of personal property by the assessor is inquisitive, crude, and ineffective, whereas the valuation of a business as a unit is the method naturally adopted by business men.

The fairest method of assessment of real estate is assessment at full value, but this cannot be expected until State revenues are secured in some other way than by a direct tax on real estate, and until land values are assessed separately and by different methods from improvements.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

CAPTAIN PEARY TELLS HOW THE POLE WILL BE REACHED.

CAPTAIN PEARY'S own account of the last chapter in his strenuous life as an explorer is given in *McClure's* for February. The famous Arctic explorer himself sums up the chief results of this last expedition, and expresses his firm faith that the Pole will be reached, outlining the lines of least resistance which will make it possible.

THE NET RESULTS OF THE LAST VOYAGE.

"In this journey, I had determined conclusively the northern limit of the Greenland Archipelago or land group, and had practically connected the coast southeastward to Independence Bay, leaving only that comparatively short portion of the periphery of Greenland lying between Independence Bay and Cape Bismarck indeterminate. The non-existence of land for a very considerable distance to the northward and northeastward was also settled, with every indication pointing to the belief that the coast along which we traveled formed the shore of an uninterrupted central polar sea, extending to the Pole, and beyond to the Spitzbergen and Franz Josef Land groups of the opposite hemisphere.

"The origin of the floebergs and paleocrystic ice was definitely determined. Further than this, the result of the journey was to eliminate this route as a desirable or practical one by which to reach the Pole. The broken character of the ice, the large amount of open water, and the comparatively rapid motion of the ice as it swung round the northern coast into the southerly setting east Greenland current were very unfavorable features

NOT THE WAY TO THE POLE.

"The complete change of character of the coast from Cape Jesup eastward is an interesting fact to be borne in mind. Another interesting item is the comparative abundance of game observed and secured along a coast which the experience of two previous expeditions had indicated as being practically barren of animal life. Two musk-oxen were killed by me in the Cape Bryant region in the upward march, and five by my supporting party on their return. One bear, as already noted, was killed east of Cape Washington, and east of Cape Jesup forty-two musk-oxen were seen, of which ten were secured. One hare was killed in this region, a

wolf seen, and traces of lemming, ermine, and ptarmigan observed. Numbers of hare were killed in the neighborhood of Repulse Harbor.

1902—ANOTHER WAY TO THE POLE TRIED.

"With the Greenland route eliminated, there yet remained the Cape Hecla route, and this I attempted in the spring of 1902. It is not necessary here to go into the details of this attempt further than to note that, as a result of added experience, perfected equipment, better acquaintance with the region traversed, and in spite of the supposed handicap of its being my fourth consecutive year of Arctic work and life, the arduous journey from Cape Sabine to Conger was accomplished in twelve marches, the equally arduous but shorter journey from Conger to Hecla in eight more. I now found myself, after nearly four hundred miles of travel in the severest part of the Arctic year, just at the beginning of my real work, the conquest of the polar pack.

"After fighting my way northward for fifteen days over a pack of extremely rugged character, the latter portion of the journey being over ice in motion (not motion sufficient, as has been erroneously understood, to carry me far out of my course; but sufficient, by the wheeling of the floes, to open up continually new leads, and form new pressure ridges across my route), I was driven to the conclusion that further advance for my party was impracticable. *Personnel*, equipment, and methods were satisfactory and effective, as evidenced by our speedy and safe return, not only to Hecla, but also to Cape Sabine.

"When I say that I regarded further advance as impracticable, I mean that a rate of advance capable of producing the objects I had in view—namely, the Pole itself, or, if not that, a pronounced highest north—was not practicable under existing conditions, with a party of the size I had with me.

HOW TO GO TO THE POLE.

"So far am I from considering the general proposition of advance over the polar pack impracticable that I have no hesitation in saying I believe that the man who, with the proper party, the proper equipment, and proper experience, can secure a base on the northern shore of Grinnell Land, and can begin his work with the earliest returning light in February, will hold the Pole in his grasp.

"As bearing upon the soundness of my conclusion, it is, I think, fair to note that I have already made four sledge journeys in these regions, of such length that the average air-line distance between the starting-point and the terminus of the four is equal to the distance from the northern shore of Grinnell Land to the Pole. If it be contended that the character of the traveling is so different as to make the comparison hardly a fair one, it may be said that increased experience, improved methods, and a large party will, I believe, fully counterbalance this.

THE POLE CAN AND WILL BE REACHED.

"The proper method for an effective attack upon the Pole may be summed up in a paragraph—viz. :

"A strongly built ship of maximum power ; a minimum party, utilizing the Eskimos exclusively for the rank and file ; the establishment of a permanent station or sub-base at Sabine ; the formation of a chain of caches from Sabine to Hecla ; the establishment of a main base somewhere on the North Grinnell Land coast ; forcing the ship to winter quarters there ; the redistribution of the entire tribe of Whale Sound Eskimos, taking the picked men of the tribe on the ship, and distributing the others in a series of settlements along the Grinnell Land coast, with the rear on the perennial walrus grounds at Sonntag Bay and the head of certain summer navigation at Sabine, and the van at Hecla ; and, finally, an advance, in the earliest returning light of February, from Hecla northward over the polar pack, with a small, light, pioneer party, followed by a large, heavy, main party, from which at intervals two or three sledges would drop out and return, until on the last stage there would be but two or three sledges left."

THE TARIFF ON IRON AND STEEL.

TARIFF reformers find in the prosperous condition of the American iron and steel trade a plausible argument for a lowering of the tariff walls. Protectionists, on the other hand, point to the low wages in that industry paid to British and German workingmen, and contend that the tariff is still needed to offset the bonus paid to American labor. At least a part of that difference is made up to the American manufacturer by the superiority of his labor over that employed by his European rivals. That is admitted ; the question is, just how far can the American producer go in raising wages without requiring the aid of a tariff ? Mr. Archer Brown, writing in the *North American Review* for January, attempts to answer this query.

In the first place, how large is the factor of wages in the cost of iron and steel products ? Mr. Brown makes the proportion very large,—larger than a superficial scanning of the statistics would warrant. He justifies his conclusions, however, by the following analysis of the cost of a ton of pig iron :

"At first glance, the items of cost divide somewhat as follows, assuming the total cost to be \$14 at Pittsburg : Ore, \$7 ; coke, \$4 ; limestone and other materials, \$1 ; labor, \$1.25 ; repairs, taxes, and incidentals, 75 cents. Labor appears to be about 11 per cent. of the whole. But push the analysis further. How much of the cost of the ore profits omitted is labor ? All except the royalty of, say, 25 cents per ton. How much of the cost of the coke is labor ? All except the royalty of 10 cents per ton on coal in the ground. The limestone and supplies similarly dissolve into ninety parts of labor to ten of other items. Even the transportation which enters into the delivered price of raw materials is 60 to 70 per cent. labor. So, if the inquiry be pushed to the limit, it will be found that of the actual cost of a ton of iron (eliminating all profits) everything is resolved into labor except taxes, interest, royalties, and insurance. These items aggregate barely 5 per cent. in some districts and seldom reach 10 per cent. anywhere. A complete analysis of the cost of a ton of steel rails or structural material shows practically the same result. When the scale of wages begins ascending, the advance which the foundryman or mill man pays his own men is but an insignificant fraction. But the rate of coal-mining goes up perhaps from 40 to 60 cents a ton, with a corresponding increase of wages of coke-makers. The first cost of fuel is then up 50 per cent. The ore miners and handlers get a like increase ; lake transportation is higher ; railroad rates are higher ; the smaller supplies are affected by the same causes, until presently the whole foundation structure of raw materials is up one-half, and prices must be advanced accordingly to the ultimate consumer. This is precisely what we have witnessed in the iron trade in the past twelve months."

BRITISH AND AMERICAN WAGES COMPARED.

In his comparison of foreign with American wage scales, Mr. Brown states that throughout Great Britain puddlers in rolling mills earn, on an average, 9 shillings (\$2.16) a day. Rough-steel rollers make from \$2.40 to \$3.60 a day. Iron rollers earn about \$7.20 a day, out of which a helper is paid. Puddling and rolling is piece-work, as in this country.

Wages in the United States are not uniform

and not easily reducible to uniform day-earnings. The boss roller in Western mills makes from \$12 to \$20 a day, out of which he pays his helper. Other figures given by Mr. Brown are as follows:

"Puddlers make, on the Amalgamated scale, at Pittsburg from \$6 to \$7 per day. In the East, the rate being less, the average wage is about \$5. Molders in foundries seldom make less than \$2.75 per day; and a good workman, unrestricted by shop rules, can make \$4 per day of eight hours. Machinists get from \$2.50 to \$6 per day, average about \$3.75. Blast-furnace men (not counted skilled labor) earn from \$1.50 to \$2.25 per day, according to grade of work. Common labor rules about the same, whether at the blast furnace, or rolling mill, or foundry. It is seldom paid less than \$1.50, nor more than \$1.75, per day. In ore-mining, wages differ widely in the several districts, but as four-fifths of the mining is done in the Lake Superior district, the rates there may be said to govern. A good miner seldom makes less than \$50 per month, according to the president of one of the largest ore companies; the average is fully \$60 per month.

"By comparison of above figures, it will be seen that American miners and iron and steel workers receive from two and one-half to three times as much wages as corresponding workmen in Continental countries, and fully double those paid in Great Britain. And it can be added that there is scarcely a mine or shop in the United States in which the question of further wage advances is not up to-day in some form or other; while in Europe, according to latest consular and other reports, the tendency is distinctly downward, owing to general business depression. How much of this tremendous disparity can be made up by the admitted superiority of American labor? A considerable percentage, no doubt; but it would be a rash enthusiast who would put it as high as 50 per cent. If it be said that our superior plant, with its marvels of improved machinery and labor-saving devices, compensates for the great difference still against us, it must be answered that Germany and Great Britain have gone to school to us to some purpose in the past eighteen or twenty-four months, and they too are bringing their plants to the modern standard. They can build blast furnaces and steel works in Great Britain or in Germany to-day at less than half the cost of like works in America. The former prejudice against adopting new methods and new machinery, after American models, has given place to an eager desire to rival us by copying what is best in our engineering. Already there is an advance in furnace and mill practice that affords a marked

contrast to what American visitors observed three, and even two, years ago. If we are honest with ourselves, therefore, we must admit that the greater efficiency of American labor does not, even when reinforced by our larger natural resources and our more modern plant, make up the disparity in wages."

THE CRY OF MONOPOLY.

The consolidation of great interests in the steel and iron industry does not seem to Mr. Brown to be a serious argument for tariff reduction. He says:

"There is no semblance of monopoly in any important branch of the trade. Competition is as free and unrestricted as it was before the era of consolidations. The United States Steel Corporation controls vast quantities of raw materials which are of great and increasing value, but it has no monopoly of these. Its rivals, in proportion to their size, are nearly as well provided, and there is an abundance of good coking coal and Bessemer ores left for new enterprises which may yet be formed. The influence of the Steel Corporation, as every one knows, has been exerted, not to force prices up, but rather to hold them down. This has been a steadying factor in a market in which demand has been largely in excess of supply. It may prove, when the lean years come again, that the great consolidations will be better fortified than the smaller companies, and overwhelm them. But there are two sides to that question. It may also prove that the minor companies, managed by their owners, well supplied with raw materials, with small capitalization and light fixed charges, and with modern well-equipped plants, will weather storms as well as the huge craft. At any rate, competition is and will remain as free in iron as in groceries or grain."

GRADUAL REDUCTION OF THE SCHEDULES.

Nevertheless, Mr. Brown favors a lowering of the tariff wall. What American iron and steel makers want, he says, is a broad, stable market.

"A world market, including the home market, is better than the home market alone. Moderate prices are necessary to secure and hold export trade. Moderate prices tend to increase domestic consumption. Extreme fluctuations tend to restrict it. Moderate prices depend on low cost of manufacture. In iron and steel, wages are over 90 per cent. of the cost. We are now paying nearly three times the wages of our largest and most vigorous rival, and about double the wages of our next strongest competitor. Further wage advances are asked and expected. Our labor is better, our natural advantage greater,

but neither is invincible. We have already lost our foreign trade in the leading forms of iron manufacture. We cannot long retain the other forms under present conditions. Our largest export manufacturers are already planning to build plants abroad to secure cheaper labor and materials wherewith to hold their trade. American labor is entitled to and will always get the best pay in the world. But there are limits. These limits are properly set, not by a tariff wall, but by the greater productive energy of our labor and the greater abundance of our raw materials. While the tariff has been necessary to develop those resources, high schedules are no longer needed by the manufacturer. They tend to create booms and prolong depressions. American labor will fare better if wages do not rise so high nor descend so low. Tariff agitation disturbs business. Business is now at high tide. The iron and steel schedules should be cut in two, but by a graduated scale, to avoid shock. Otherwise, history will repeat itself. The structure will be overloaded and break."

THE MOSELEY COMMISSION ON AMERICAN INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS.

SINCE the return to England of Mr. Alfred Moseley and the commission organized by him for the purpose of investigating industrial and social conditions in the United States, the facts revealed to the commission have been widely reported and commented on by the correspondents who accompanied Mr. Moseley's twenty-three commissioners on their extended tour through this country. Mr. W. T. Stead, of the *London Review of Reviews*, states that, while there is by no means complete agreement in regard to details, still, the broad outlines of the factors which constitute American superiority are not disputed. In his opinion, these reports of what the commission saw in America confirm much of the criticism of the British industrial system which has been focused during the past in Mr. Stead's own publications,—notably in his monthly broadside entitled "Wake up! John Bull."

A BRITISH CIVIC FEDERATION.

One of the first results of the tour is likely to be the organization in England of a body similar in object to the National Civic Federation of America. The delegates investigated thoroughly the work of this body, and as the result of their investigations they passed unanimously, on November 30, a resolution declaring that it would be a benefit both to employers and employed if a similar organization were to be established in Great Britain. Such an organiza-

tion would not in any way interfere with the bodies which already exist for mediation and conciliation in the Board of Trade, the Chamber



MR. ALFRED MOSELEY.

of Commerce, or the trade conciliation boards. But it would fulfill the same functions as the American Civic Federation, making it its duty to get information of the first signs of impending trouble and in the early stages of a dispute to step in for the purpose of bringing the parties to-

gether at a round-table conference before any breach had taken place. It is plain that if a British civic federation is established, the Moseley commission will have fulfilled its purpose even if it should fail in its efforts to lead, by means of disseminating information, the British manufacturer and the worker to the high level attained by their cousins in the United States.

THE AMERICAN INDUSTRIAL SYSTEM SUPERIOR.

The superiority of the American industrial system seems to have been established beyond doubt. "Mr. Moseley," we are told in the summary published in the *London Times* of December 22, "was emphatic in his opinion as to the superiority of the American workmen over British workmen. They worked harder, and were better trained and educated." Of this all-round superior efficiency, a high wages standard seems to be both cause and effect. The hours of labor in America are on the whole considerably higher than those in Great Britain, but the productiveness of the workmen and the wages they earn are higher beyond all proportion. The New York bricklayer is paid \$4.25 a day, but he lays about three times as many bricks as the English bricklayer. In the Fall River district there are weavers who earn \$20 a week, but they look after twenty automatic looms. The piecework system, which is more common in America than in England, results in higher wages and greater output. A boot-welter will earn as much as \$5 a day; and in many factories even boy employees, who are engaged in sweeping the floors, are never paid less than \$6 a week.

UP-TO-DATE MACHINERY.

As the American manufacturer works his men harder and pays them more liberally, so he is merciless with his machinery, and renews it

whenever the slightest increase in efficiency can be gained by doing so. So rapid is the change in appliances that one manufacturer explained his willingness to show the delegates the secrets of his machines by saying that before we had time to copy them he would have discarded them in favor of new machinery. A London *Daily Chronicle* correspondent who traveled for a fortnight with the delegates gives similar evidence. In one works, he says, they were erecting a piece of machinery at a cost of \$250,000, when one of the engineers engaged on the job had an inspiration which led him to invent a still better machine, which would do 30 per cent. more work at the same cost. The new machinery was instantly sacrificed, and in three months the later invention took its place. The American workman takes to these changes naturally. The *Times* correspondent mentions that one American workman will mind two, three, four, or even eight machine tools. A British manufacturer who bought one of the latest American machine tools, on being asked by the maker how it worked, replied: "I can't tell you; the union has not allowed me to use the machine for an hour."

THE TEMPERATE AMERICAN.

In general, Mr. Moseley's delegates seem to have collected overwhelming evidence to establish the superior education, social condition, and material well-being of the American workman. His sobriety is in his favor. He drinks coffee, not intoxicants, with his midday meal; and, indeed, some manufacturers forbid drinking altogether during the day. It is mentioned incidentally that employers find that beer in particular has a bad effect upon the working capacity of their hands. Statistics show that the American workman consumes less than half the pure alcohol consumed by the British workman. It is, however, in the organization of industry that the Americans seem to triumph most of all.

The American manufacturer gives his work constant personal supervision, and selects his partners not because they happen to be his relatives, but because he knows they have mastered the details of the industry concerned. The son of a wealthy man is expected to enter his father's office as a clerk, and work his way up, studying both the business and the ways of the employees. Great attention is paid to studying the individual employee. The *Times* special correspondent mentions one factory which was visited in which a debtor and creditor account is kept for every man engaged, both his good and bad qualities being put on record, while in others there is a special labor department which in the case

of a dismissal acts as a court of revision, and uses the record of the workman's past in order to enable it to finally decide his case. The American workman is therefore rewarded according to his merits, and, this being so, the intelligent and inventive have a better chance of rising in the social scale.

SYSTEM IN LABOR.

Order and system are the American manufacturer's first law. The division of labor is carried to extremes, and every operation is simplified and subdivided as much as possible. Work is never interrupted through lack of material or through earlier operations not being finished in time; and skilled workmen are never allowed to waste their time in running about to fetch material or tools when such labor can be performed by boys. In Cleveland, organization has been carried so far that the cost of unloading iron ore from ship to quay was reduced in a few years from 28 cents a ton to 7 cents a ton.

Employer and workman are in closer relations than in England; the employer is always accessible, and an employee's zeal and intelligence are always made profitable both to himself and to his master. In one big department store in Chicago visited by Mr. Moseley's commission, where there are over seven thousand employees, a small reward in money is given to any one who makes a reasonable criticism, who suggests some practical rearrangement, or points out some mistake in any advertisement issued by the firm. The reward is paid whether the proposed arrangement is acted upon or not. Finally, the American employer looks after his workmen, and regards it as his first duty to see that they are well fed and well clothed. The general conclusion seems to be that in the United States the essential community of the interests of both parties is better recognized than in England.

It must not be supposed, however, that everything in America is better than in England. The bad effect of the universal system of "hustling" is commented on by more than one observer. The *Daily Chronicle* correspondent, already quoted, thinks the Americans are going at a pace which must, sooner or later, be stayed. He observes a superiority in British physique. It is very rare to see middle-aged Americans engaged in industry, except out-of-doors. "Cannery," also, is not unknown in American industry; and, according to the *Times* correspondent, it is increasing, the form which it takes being the refusal of the workman to work his machine up to its full capacity. In piecework, the American unions sometimes fix a maximum output, which must not be exceeded by the in-

dividual member under penalty of fine and expulsion. But on the whole there seems to be no doubt as to the better quality both of the American manufactures and the American workman.

THE CHILD WORKERS OF THE COAL MINES.

MR. RAY STANNARD BAKER'S story of the non-union, or, rather, the non-striking, miners, and their experiences, published in a recent number of *McClure's*, is followed in the February issue by an account of the children working in the coal mines by Mr. Francis H. Nichols, who, like Mr. Baker, has just come from a thorough investigation of the conditions in the Pennsylvania coal regions.

The chief work assigned to children in the mining of anthracite coal is at the "breaker." After the heavy machinery in the top of the breaker has ground the lumps of coal, the broken coal flows down a series of chutes to the ground floor, where it is loaded on flat-cars waiting to receive it. The chutes zigzag through the building about three feet apart. Between them, in tiers, are a series of planks, serving as seats for the slate-pickers. The slate-picker has to watch for pieces of slate rock as the procession of broken coal passes him and throw this refuse into another chute. A few of the slate-pickers are very old men, superannuated or crippled miners, who are glad to get a dollar a day in the breaker. But an overwhelming majority of the workers in the breaker are boys.

THE CHILDREN AT WORK.

"The coal so closely resembles slate that it can be detected only by the closest scrutiny, and the childish faces are compelled to bend so low over the chutes that prematurely round shoulders and narrow chests are the inevitable result. In front of the chutes is an open space reserved for the 'breaker boss,' who watches the boys as intently as they watch the coal.

"The boss is armed with a stick, with which he occasionally raps on the head and shoulders a boy who betrays lack of zeal. The breakers are supposed to be heated in winter, and a steam pipe winds up the wall; but in cold weather every pound of steam is needed in the mines, so that the amount of heat that radiates from the steam pipe is not sufficient to be taken seriously by any of the breakers' toilers. From November until May, a breaker boy always wears a cap and tippet, and overcoat if he possesses one, but because he has to rely largely upon the sense of touch, he cannot cover his finger-tips with mittens or gloves; from the chafing of the coal, his fingers sometimes bleed, and his nails

are worn down to the quick. The hours of toil for slate-pickers are supposed to be from seven in the morning until noon, and from one to six in the afternoon; but when the colliery is running on 'full capacity orders,' the noon recess is reduced to half an hour, and the good-night whistle does not blow until half-past six. For his eleven hours' work, the breaker boy gets no more pay than for ten.

AGE CERTIFICATES AND WHAT THEY AMOUNT TO.

"According to the mining laws of Pennsylvania, 'no boy under the age of fourteen shall be employed in a mine, nor shall a boy under the age of twelve be employed in or about the outside structures or workings of a colliery' (i.e., in a breaker). Yet no one who stands by the side of a breaker boss and looks up at the tiers of benches that rise from the floor to the coal-begrimed roof can believe for a minute that the law has been complied with in the case of one in ten of the tiny figures in blue jumpers and overalls bending over the chutes. The mine inspector and the breaker boss will explain that 'these boys look younger than their ages is,' and that a sworn certificate setting forth the age of every boy is on file in the office.

"Children's age certificates are a criminal institution. When a father wishes to place his son in a breaker, he obtains an 'age blank' from a mine inspector, and in its spaces he has inserted some age at which it is legal for a boy to work. He carries the certificate to a notary public or justice of the peace, who, in consideration of a fee of twenty-five cents, administers oath to the parent and affixes a notarial seal to the certificate.

JUSTIFIABLE AND UNJUSTIFIABLE PERJURY.

"According to the ethics of the coal fields, it is not wrong for a miner or his family to lie or to practise any form of deceit in dealing with coal-mine operators or owners. A parent is justified in perjuring himself as to his son's age on a certificate that will be filed with the mine superintendent, but any statement made to a representative of the union must be absolutely truthful. For this reason, my inquiries of mine boys as to their work and ages were always conducted under the sacred auspices of the union.

THE WAGES OF BREAKER BOYS.

"The wages of breaker boys are about the same all over the coal regions. When he begins to work at slate-picking, a boy receives forty cents a day, and as he becomes more expert the amount is increased until at the end of, say, his fourth year in the breaker his daily wage may

have reached ninety cents. This is the maximum for an especially industrious and skillful boy. The average is about seventy cents a day. From the ranks of the older breaker boys are chosen door-boys and runners, who work in the mines below ground."

Mr. Nichols estimates that 90 per cent. of the slate-pickers, 30 per cent. of the drivers and runners, and all of the door-boys and helpers are boys. In all, he counts 24,023 children at work in the anthracite-coal mines, nearly one-sixth of all of the employees.

THE HARD FUTURE OF THE CHILD MINERS.

Mr. Nichols draws a very dark picture of life as it confronts one of these youngsters toiling in the breaker and his little sister who is working in one of the mills that are pretty certain to be in a coal-mining community, drawn by the advantage of a large supply of cheap labor. "The children of the Coal Shadow have no child life. The little tots are sullen, the older children fight; they rarely play, and almost their only amusement is, as we have seen, the union and the strike that is the logical result of the conditions of their existence. They have no friends. Their parents, driven by what they think is necessity, forswear them into bondage. Their employers, compelled by what they regard as economic forces, grind them to hatred. The state, ruled by influences, either refrains from amalgamating laws or corrective enforcement. The rest of the world doesn't care. So the shadow of the coal heap lies dark upon these 'unionized' little ones as they grow up to be men and women. Within a few years, the breaker boy will be a miner. It is the only trade with which he is familiar, and his lack of education will make a commercial or professional career for him almost impossible. He will have to live in Anthracite, because it is the only country where a hard-coal miner can follow his trade. The mill girl will marry early in life; her husband will be a miner. They will both be American citizens. They will remain in the Coal Shadow."

THE NON-UNION MAN AND THE "SCAB."

IN most of the discussion resulting from President Eliot's recent avowal of his belief that the modern "scab" is "a very good type of a hero," it has been assumed that the non-union man everywhere is practically identical with the despised "scab." In *Guntton's Magazine* for January, however, it is contended that the two terms are by no means synonymous. The distinction is this:

"The non-union man is one who simply does

not join the union. This is not always, nor even generally, because he is hostile to the union. He stands aloof for a multitude of reasons,—sometimes because he is reluctant to pay the dues and assume the responsibilities of membership; sometimes because he has a personal dislike for some of the officers; but much the larger number stay outside the unions from a general indifference. Theoretically, they believe in the unions; they are in general spirit and action in accord with them, but lack that interest which materializes in active service."

REAL CHARACTER OF THE "SCAB."

The "scab," on the other hand, is the man who, when a strike is on, takes the place of the striker. *Guntton's* regards the "scab" as neither a hero nor a martyr.

"If President Eliot and those like him really knew more of the character of the 'scab,' knew more about the actual kind of laborers that become 'scabs,' they would hesitate about calling the modern 'scab' a very good type of a hero. As a matter of fact, in probably 90 per cent. of the cases he is really a loose, irregular, disreputable, quasi-tramp laborer. He is the kind that seldom works regularly, and is almost never a good workman. 'Scabs' are essentially camp-followers of labor disturbances. President Eliot is probably not aware that in case of strikes the chief object of the employer is to demonstrate to the strikers and to the public that there are plenty of men who are willing to work on the terms offered. In order to demonstrate this, they send out into the highways and hedges and offer exceptional inducements for men to come to work, simply to make a showing. The writer knows of several instances of the kind where the wages offered have been 50 per cent. more than the strikers were asking. In addition to this, they often furnish board and lodging. They seldom expect to keep these workmen permanently. They know in advance that only a few of them will prove competent workmen; but these men serve the purpose for the time being, as instruments to break the strike.

"SCABS" ARE INCOMPETENT STRIKE-BREAKERS.

"Moreover, in most industries, it usually happens that they spoil as much as they accomplish. The writer remembers one instance where the incompetency of the 'scab' laborers was such as to render them actually worthless, and in order to make a showing, the material was taken out of the machinery which stood round the outside of the workroom, nearest the windows, and the machinery was run empty, the 'scabs' simply

moving the machines as if they were working, so that the passers-by, hearing the noise, would think the factories were running, and the newspapers would announce with flaring headlines that the mills were rapidly filling up and would have no use for the strikers if they remained out a little longer. Of course, there are exceptions; but in the main there is really no heroism in the 'scab.' And he doesn't come as a hero. He seldom comes because he wants to work. He usually comes because there are exceptional inducements offered, and because he is made an object of considerable attention."

THE RIGHT TO WORK.

"Now, as to the right of the 'scab,'—this 'sacred right' which seems to be more precious than the right of anybody else. Of course, the idea behind the eulogy of the 'scab' is that he is a man out of work, seeking to sell his services to the best advantage, and that he has a right to take every opportunity that presents itself, and that he should be regarded as a hero and a social benefactor for so doing. Before we accept that view, the case should be examined a little further. Here are a hundred men out of work. It is important to the welfare of society that they be employed; but it is not important that a hundred other men be discharged in order that they may be employed. The economic and social and moral condition of the community is not improved by any such process of swapping places. What is really wanted is, that the hundred men should have employment. Now, when the strike occurs, one hundred vacancies have not been created in any true economic or social sense. The vacancies that have been temporarily created are really in a state of negotiation. Those who have vacated their jobs have done so with a specific purpose,—namely, to improve them. If they succeed in improving these jobs, whether it be by securing more wages, shorter hours, better sanitary or moral conditions, or whatsoever, those places will be better for whosoever fills them thereafter. Moreover, through the moral effect of this, all similar places throughout the country will be improved much more quickly. If this occurs, if wages are increased, if hours of labor are lessened, if the conditions under which the laborer works are made more wholesome or more moral,—if, in short, any specific improvement in those jobs has resulted from the strike,—then a permanent benefit has been added to the conditions of the whole class, and forever.

HOW THE "SCAB" PREVENTS IMPROVEMENT.

"If the 'scab' takes that place which was not normally for him, which would not have been

vacated but for the fact that the other man was willing to undergo a sacrifice to improve it either for himself or others, he not only does not lessen the total of unemployed, but he defeats the effort of the other man to improve the condition of his whole class. He makes the job worse for himself, for everybody else, and for those that come after him. Is he a benefactor? To the extent that he succeeds, he prevents improvement. His only contribution is to the forces that make it impossible for the laborers in that group to get better economic or social conditions, and he is used specifically for that purpose. Under no other conditions would he have been employed. He is employed only as an instrument for preventing that improvement."

NON-UNION MAN VERSUS THE "SCAB."

In the opinion of this writer, the whole attitude of the "scab" is that of the sneak and the camp-follower; "of the man who robs the corpses on the battlefield, or attends a fire for the sake of the pickings." For the non-union man, as such, he has only respect.

"The non-union laborer and the 'scab' have almost nothing in common. The non-union man really fills an important position. His standing aloof from the union for a multitude of reasons, none of which are really hostile, does much to put the union on its good behavior; it makes it impossible for the union to be coercive and dictatorial, as it otherwise would be. In the present state of development, with unlimited power, trade-unions would be intolerable despotisms; they need the checking influence of non-union men, and also a considerable number of defeats, in order to educate them up to a rational standard of conduct. The non-union man is not an enemy to labor, not even to organized labor, and in the main he is not so regarded; on the contrary, he is a useful element in the industrial controversy of to-day; but there is no sense in which this can be said of the 'scab.'"

President Eliot on Strike Violence.

In his address delivered at the Colonial Club, Cambridge, and reprinted in *Cassier's* for January, on "Labor Unions: Their Good Features and Their Evil Ones," President Eliot discusses the subject of violence in connection with strikes,—particularly the strikes of unskilled laborers. Speaking especially of this class of union men, he says:

"To enforce a strike, they really have no other weapon but violence, and they all know it, and their leaders know it. They resort invariably to violence within a few hours, and nearly every considerable strike for the past ten years

has been accompanied by violence. The reason for this lamentable fact is that violence is inevitable. Such strikers have no other weapons; I suppose most of us have seen this with our own eyes. When a strike occurs on a street railway, for example, there are always hundreds of men who want to take the places of the men who have struck. There is but one way of preventing them from doing so,—namely, by violently making it too dangerous for them.

HOW VIOLENCE IS JUSTIFIED.

"These are but illustrations of a universal fact. Now, what is the theory on which, in labor unions, violence is justified? It is justified. I heard the theory ingeniously stated at a recent meeting of the Economic Club of Boston, and I think I can give it to you accurately. The laborer who has worked in a factory or shop for years, or even months only, has acquired an equitable right in that factory which is not discharged by the weekly payment of his wages. He has made a part of the reputation of that factory and the reputation of its product. He has created a part of the good-will of that factory. This claim is substantial, and it is not discharged by paying him weekly wages.

"He joins his fellows in declaring that for a time they do not propose to continue to work in that factory on the conditions which prevail at the moment. He then sees a man taking his place. Now, that man is possessing himself of that equitable claim on the factory of the right in equity which the former laborer has acquired, and which he ought not to lose by going on a strike. The incoming man is a thief and a robber, and he can be dealt with as one deals with a burglar in one's house. The scab, or strike-breaker, is a burglar, and if ever violence is justified between man and man, violence is justifiable between the union man who has gone on a strike and the scab who takes his place.

"The argument is plausible, but has a fatal, weak spot. It claims a right in the factory or business which depends on continuous operation, and also claims the right to discontinue the business or shut up the factory.

"This doctrine I believe to be a dangerous one, and one that combats all principles with regard to freedom in labor. I find that the principle that a man has a right to sell his labor at whatever price he chooses to fix is earnestly disputed. Indeed, it is said that no man has a right to sell his labor at any price, without considering the effects of his sale on associated laborers in the same trade or business. The right to earn bread for his family by whatever opportunity which presents itself is denied. He must not earn

bread for his family without considering the effects which his taking the price he is willing to accept may have on thousands of other men who are not willing to accept that price. This doctrine cuts deep, and the people have got to consider and reconsider this contest of opinions. It is a serious contest of opinions with regard to personal liberty.

"The sort of violence which the labor unions justify is various, and there has been a great development in the variety of violence within the last ten years. The inevitable violence now takes the form, first, of a few serious outrages on persons and on property. It does not take many outrages to alarm a considerable population. Three or four assaults, three or four killings, a few blown-up houses, will terrorize a large community. But these operations need not be numerous, they need not be frequent. The more effective method, when combined with these assaults and outrages, is the method of the boycott.

"I have not time to describe the varieties of the boycott. Suffice it to say that the boycott, in a community where the union men are in power, penetrates every nook and corner of society. Every shop, every office, every professional man's employment, is assailable, and is assailed. But it does not stop there in a community where the union has a large majority. The police, the courts, and the newspapers can all be controlled. They have been repeatedly, and they are to-day, in some localities. You see how much ground that covers,—the police, the courts, and the newspapers. The community at large is thus deprived of information, and the community on the spot is deprived of the ordinary protection of the courts and the officers of the courts."

SHOULD LABOR UNIONS BE INCORPORATED?

IN connection with the coal strike of 1902, the suggestion was frequently made that the United Mine Workers should become an incorporated body. New prominence has also been given to the whole subject of trade-union responsibility by discussion of the Taff Vale decision in England, the chief points of which are set forth elsewhere in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* by Mr. A. Maurice Low.

Looking at the matter from the point of view of one who believes thoroughly in the value of labor unions and appreciates their services to the community, Mr. Louis D. Brandeis gives in the *Green Bag* for January certain reasons which seem to show the advisability of incorporating the unions,—for their own good, as well as for the public interest.

THE TAFF VALE PRINCIPLE NOT NEW IN THIS COUNTRY.

As to the responsibility of the unions for illegal acts, under our present laws, Mr. Brandeis says :

"When, in the course of a strike, illegal acts are committed, such as acts of violence or of undue oppression, the individual committing the wrong is, of course, legally liable. If the act is a crime, the perpetrator may be arrested and punished ; if it is a mere trespass, he may be made to pay damages, if he is financially responsible ; and if money damages appear not to be an adequate remedy, an injunction against the wrongful acts may be granted by a court of equity. If the injunction is disobeyed, the defendant may be imprisoned for contempt.

"Now, it seems to be a common belief in this country that while the individual may be thus proceeded against in any of these ways, the labor union, as such, being unincorporated—that is, being a mere voluntary association—cannot be made legally responsible for its acts.

"The rules of law established by the courts of this country afford, it is true, no justification for this opinion. A union, although a voluntary unincorporated association, is legally responsible for its acts in much the same way that an individual, a partnership, or a corporation is responsible. If a union, through its constituted agents, commits a wrong or is guilty of violence or of illegal oppression, the union, and not merely the individuals who are the direct instruments of the wrong, can be enjoined or made liable for damages to the same extent that the union could be if it were incorporated ; and the funds belonging to the unincorporated union can be reached to satisfy any damages which might be recovered for the wrong done. The Taff Vale Railway case, decided last year in England, in which it was held that the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants could, as a union, be enjoined and be made liable in damages for wrongs perpetrated in the course of a strike, created consternation among labor unions there, but it laid down no principle of law new to this country."

PRACTICAL, BUT NOT LEGAL, IMMUNITY OF THE UNIONS.

Labor unions have often been enjoined by the courts in this country, and in Massachusetts, more than thirty years ago, an action was maintained against a union for wrongfully extorting from an employer a penalty for having used the product of "scab" labor. The rules of legal liability apply fully to the unions, whether incor-

porated or not ; but, as a matter of fact, it is more difficult for the plaintiff to conduct the litigation against an unincorporated association, and it is especially difficult to reach the funds of a union in order to satisfy any judgment that may be recovered. The unions as such, therefore, enjoy a practical immunity for wrongs committed.

So far from regarding this immunity as an advantage to the unions, Mr. Brandeis looks upon it as a positive disadvantage.

"It tends to make officers and members reckless and lawless, and thereby to alienate public sympathy and bring failure upon their efforts. It creates, on the part of the employers, also, a bitter antagonism, not so much on account of lawless acts as from a deep-rooted sense of injustice, arising from the feeling that while the employer is subject to law, the union holds a position of legal irresponsibility.

"This practical immunity of the labor unions from suit or legal liability is, in my opinion, largely responsible for the existence of the greatest grievances which labor unions consider they have suffered at the hands of the courts,—that is, the so-called 'government by injunction.' It has come about in this way : An act believed to be illegal is committed during a strike. If that act is a crime, a man may be arrested, but in no case can he be convicted of a crime except on proof beyond a reasonable doubt and a verdict of the jury, which is apt to contain some members favorable to the defendant. Many acts, however, may be illegal which are not criminal, and for these the only remedy at law is a civil action for damages ; but as the defendant is usually financially irresponsible, such action would afford no remedy.

"The courts, therefore, finding acts committed or threatened for which the guilty parties cannot be punished as for a crime, and cannot be made to pay damages, by way of compensation, have been induced to apply freely, perhaps too freely, the writ of injunction. They have granted, in many instances, this writ according to the practices of the court of equity upon preliminary application, wholly *ex parte*, and upon affidavits, without any chance of cross-examination. If the courts had been dealing with a responsible union instead of irresponsible defendants, they would doubtless, in many of the cases, have refused to interfere by injunction and have resolved any doubts for defendants instead of plaintiffs.

ADVANTAGE OF JURY TRIALS.

"In another respect, also, this practical immunity of the unions has been very dearly

bought: Nearly every large strike is attended by acts of flagrant lawlessness. The employers, and a large part of the public, charge these acts to the unions. In very many instances, the unions are entirely innocent. Hoodlums, or habitual criminals, have merely availed themselves of a convenient opportunity for breaking the law, in some instances even incited thereto by employers desiring to turn public opinion against the strikers. What an immense gain would come to the unions from a full and fair trial of such charges, if the innocence of the unions were established and perhaps even the guilt of an employer! And such a trial would almost necessarily be had before a jury, upon oral testimony, with full opportunity of cross-examination; whereas now, nearly every important adjudication involving the alleged action of unions is made upon application to a judge sitting alone, and upon written affidavits, without the opportunity of cross-examination."

The objection urged by some of the labor leaders, that incorporation of the unions would expose to loss the funds that have been collected as insurance against sickness, accident, and enforced idleness, is met with the argument that no expenditure of money by a union could bring so large a return as the payment of compensation for some wrong actually committed by it. Any such payment, says Mr. Brandeis, would go far in curbing the officers and members of the union from future transgression of the law, and it would, above all, establish the position of the union as a responsible agent in the community, ready to abide by the law. This would be of great advantage to the union in all its operations.

REPRESENTATION IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE.

WITH the recurring Senatorial elections, deadlocks, and attendant scandals in our State legislatures come renewals of the demand for the election of United States Senators by popular vote, and reiterated assertions by defenders of the established order that the proposed innovation would involve a sweeping change in the nature of our political system. For a candid and exhaustive examination of the grounds of this assertion we commend to our readers the article by Prof. John W. Burgess in the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly*.

Whether or not the representation of a State in its corporate capacity in Congress requires the choice of Senators by the State legislature,—and Professor Burgess cites Calhoun, the apostle

of State sovereignty, in denial of this contention,—it seems to be pretty well established that a United States Senator does not in fact represent a State in its corporate capacity at all, but represents the people within the State, just as a member of the other house of Congress represents the people of his district. As to the method of electing these representatives of the people, the proposed change would, of course, require an amendment to the Constitution; but it by no means follows that any transformation of the fundamental principles of our political system is involved.

"EQUAL REPRESENTATION OF THE STATES."

The most striking part of the article, however, is the discussion by Professor Burgess of the principle of equality in State representation as it works out in practice; and while this matter is quite independent of the methods of Senatorial election, it deserves especial consideration at this time in view of the attempts to secure the admission of new States with sparse population to the Union.

Professor Burgess makes the assertion that the Senate of the United States is at the present moment "the worst rotten-borough institution in the civilized world." In support of this startling proposition, he presents the statistics of population and of Senatorial representation in the five principal federal systems of the world,—namely, Mexico, Brazil, Switzerland, the German Empire, and the United States:

"1. In the Mexican system, which provides the same number of Senators from each state, the smallest state in population is Colima, with about 60,000 inhabitants, and the largest is Jalisco, with about 1,200,000. From the point of view of the principle of representation according to population, Colima's representation in the national Senate is about twenty times as strong as that of Jalisco. Furthermore, there are in the Mexican Union, if we count in the Federal District, which sends Senators to the national Congress, twenty-eight states, with a population now of about 13,000,000 souls. Of these, some 3,000,000 reside in the fifteen smaller states, and some 10,000,000 in the thirteen larger states. That is, 3,000,000 people are represented in the Senate of Mexico by thirty Senators, while 10,000,000 are represented by only twenty-six Senators.

"2. In the Brazilian system, which provides for three Senators from each state and from the Federal District, the smallest state is Matto Grosso, with about 200,000 inhabitants, and the largest is Minas Geraes, with about 3,500,000. From the point of view of the principle of rep-

representation according to numbers, the people of Matto Grosso are nearly twenty times more strongly represented in the Brazilian Senate than the people of Minas Geraes. Moreover, there are twenty-one states in the Brazilian Union, counting in the Federal District, and the population of these twenty-one states is now about 17,000,000 souls. Of these, about 4,000,000 reside in the eleven smaller states, and about 13,000,000 in the ten larger states. That is, 4,000,000 people are represented in the Brazilian Senate by thirty-three Senators, and 14,000,000 are represented by only thirty Senators.

"3. In the Swiss system, which provides the same number of members from each of the cantons or states of the union in the upper house of the national legislature, the smallest canton is Uri, with about 18,000 inhabitants, and the largest is Bern, with about 550,000. From the point of view of representation according to numbers, the people of Uri are about thirty times more strongly represented in the upper house than the people of Bern. Again, there are twenty-two cantons or states in the Swiss Union, and the population of these now numbers some 3,000,000 souls. Of these, some 800,000 reside in the twelve smaller cantons, and some 2,200,000 reside in the ten larger cantons. That is, 800,000 souls are represented in the Swiss Senate by twenty-four Senators, while 2,200,000 are represented by only twenty Senators.

"4. In the federal system of the German Empire, which assigns a fixed number of members of the Federal Council, or Senate, to each state, though not an equal number, the smallest state is Schaumburg-Lippe, with about 42,000 inhabitants, and the largest is Prussia, with about 33,000,000. The constitution of the empire assigns one voice in the Federal Council to Schaumburg-Lippe and seventeen voices to Prussia. From the point of view of the principle of representation according to numbers, Schaumburg-Lippe is from forty-five to fifty times more strongly represented in the German Senate than Prussia. Further, there are at present twenty-five states in the German Union, and the population of these twenty-five states is about 55,000,000 souls. Of these, about 10,000,000 reside in twenty-two smaller states, which have thirty-one voices in the Federal Council, and about 45,000,000 in the three larger states, which have but twenty-seven voices.

"5. Lastly, in the system of the United States of America, which provides an equal number of members from each State in the national Senate, the smallest State from the point of view of population is Nevada, with 42,335 inhabitants, ac-

cording to the last census, and the largest is New York, with 7,268,894. On the basis of the principle of representation according to numbers, the people of Nevada are nearly one hundred and seventy times more strongly represented than the people of New York. Again, there are now forty-five States in the American Union, and the population of these States is about 76,000,000 souls. Of these, about 14,000,000 reside in the twenty-three smaller States, and about 62,000,000 reside in the twenty-two larger States. That is, 14,000,000 people are represented in the United States Senate by forty-six Senators, while 62,000,000 are represented in this body by only forty-four Senators."

Admitting the force of the demand that may arise for the adoption of a new principle of distribution of Senate seats, more in accord with the principle of distribution according to population, is the federal system in danger? Professor Burgess answers that the federal system does not depend upon the equal representation of the States to any such degree that a change in that principle would destroy the system,—that, in fact, the fundamental principles of federal government are more in harmony with a principle of representation that pays more attention to the relative population of the different States. Federal government, he holds, is not to be confused with the system of a confederation of sovereignties. Equal representation of the States, while essential to the latter, is by no means a necessary or fundamental institution in the former.

SHOULD THE ARMY CANTEN BE RESTORED?

THE agitation for the repeal of the law stopping the sale of all intoxicating liquors in the post exchanges of the army has gained headway since Adjutant-General Corbin's recommendation that beer and light wines be restored received the approval of Secretary Root. In the *North American Review* for January, Dr. Louis L. Seaman, an eminent surgeon of New York City, who has served as a major of volunteers, presents the case for the canteen.

After reviewing the history of the post exchange as it was conducted in the army from 1889 to 1900, Major Seaman concludes, from the statistics given in official reports, that "coincidentally with the thorough establishment of the canteen system there occurred a decrease, amounting to considerably more than one-half, of the drunkenness which formerly tended to the impairment of discipline, the demoralization of individuals, and the occurrence of assaults and deaths. It is idle to deny that this excellent

result has been largely due to the attractions furnished by the canteen, combined with the military discipline which prevails in that institution, which reduces to a minimum the possibility of dangerous excesses. Brig.-Gen. J. P. Sanger, Inspector-General of the Division of the Philippines, in his report just submitted to the adjutant-general, states that 'since June 30, 1900, three hundred and seven enlisted men have been sent home insane.' And Major Arthur, surgeon in charge of the First Reserve Hospital, Manila, where they have all been under observation and treatment, reports that 78, or 25.4 per cent., were insane from the excessive use of alcohol.

"It has been asserted that the canteen presents the saloon to the recruit in its least objectionable form,—that he enters the army free from the drink and debt habit, and is discharged with both fixed upon him. In reply, it may be said, if the recruit was *not* in the army, he would probably have the saloon presented to him in a *more* attractive and alluring manner, as, for instance, it is to the college boy of the present day; and if he is not possessed of the moral stamina to resist its temptation in one place, he certainly will not in the other. In the canteen, his commanding officer is directed to see that his credit is limited to 20 per cent. of his pay, which amounts to \$3 per month; and, if he exceeds this amount of debt, his commanding officer and not the soldier has been derelict in the performance of duty."

THE CANTEEN AS A PROMOTER OF ORDER.

According to Major Seaman, drunkenness was not the only evil that showed a positive decrease under the post-exchange system.

"The canteen greatly contributed to the happiness of the troops. The best index of their contentment can be found in the rate of desertions, since it is obvious that the soldier who is well satisfied with his lot will not endeavor to escape from his military obligations. The desertions from the regular army in 1888-89 averaged 11 per cent. In 1897, after the canteen had been running for eight years, it fell to 2 per cent.

"The influence of the canteen in promoting order and contentment is less directly, though none the less positively, shown by the number of the soldiers making savings deposits with the army paymasters.

"The report of the paymaster general for 1899 shows that the average number of men annually making such deposits for the seven years 1885-91 was 7,273, while for the six years 1892-97, the annual number so depositing was

8,382, an increase of over 13 per cent. Gambling, too, has been decidedly diminished by the restrictions of the canteen. The records of the adjutant-general's office, December 4, 1902, show that General Bates, paymaster of the army, collected from 75,000 enlisted men (regulars), during the last year in which the canteen was in force, on account of the Soldiers' Home, dues, fines, and forfeitures, \$462,698; while during the fiscal year 1902, since the abolishment of the canteen, there was collected by paymasters from about 70,000 enlisted men (regulars), on the same account, \$632,125. That is to say, the fines and forfeitures imposed upon and collected from the enlisted men of the army were vastly increased during the year subsequent to the abolishment of the canteen.

"The opportunity given to the men of purchasing light, nutritious lunches in the canteen was certainly of much benefit. Many articles of food not obtainable in the company mess were brought within reach, and the monotony of company cookery was agreeably interrupted. This feature does much to prevent the intemperate use of alcoholics. The gastric cravings of hearty and idle men are thus satisfied, and the sandwich with beer largely decreases the desire for an additional quantity of the latter."

THE SOLDIER'S TEMPTATIONS.

Major Seaman emphasizes the abuses that have resulted from the multiplication of low grogeries and other places of evil resort in the vicinity of army barracks and camps since the canteen was abolished. After declaring that he would himself gladly have alcohol "eliminated as a product from the face of the earth," he says:

"In the debates on the abolition of the canteen, one very important factor was entirely omitted that may furnish a subject for reflection to those who were instrumental in bringing about the lamentable change. The enemies of the canteen seem to have forgotten that when men accustomed to the use of stimulants are deprived of them in one way, they will resort to other methods to obtain them. A very small percentage of the army are total abstainers. Soldiers are not prisoners; they are well-paid men, and have their pass days. The habits of the vast majority of them were formed long before their enlistment, and a large proportion of them belong to the class known as light drinkers. When the soldier cannot obtain a glass of beer at the post exchange in camp, the first place he generally strikes for when on pass is the nearest saloon, where, in Porto Rico, he is served with rum, loaded with fusel oil; at home,

vile, doctored whiskey ; in the Philippines, *vino*, a sort of wood alcohol, distilled from the nepa plant ; or in China the *sam shui*, a product of rice,—all rank poisons, one or two drinks of which steal away with his brains. Excesses follow to which, when sober, he would be the last to descend ; insubordination, drunkenness, debauchery, or desertion."

Against Restoration.

There is, on the other hand, a very general feeling that the experiment of stopping the sale of liquors at the post exchanges has not yet had a fair test. Thus, the *Independent*, of New York, asks :

"Have the commanders of the posts tried to make the post exchanges popular without liquors, or have they completely closed them ? The report of Judge-Advocate Davis, just issued, does not seem to bear out General Corbin's recommendation, as the number of court-martials under the new rule is less, proportionately, than it was before. In 1899, they were 93.3 per 1,000 soldiers, and in 1900 they were 100.5 ; while in 1901, under the new law, they were but 65.5 ; and last year, 61.3.

"We have been told by the highest authority that those who enlist in the army are usually temperate youths. It is for the interests of the army and of the men individually that they remain such, and that temptations be not pressed upon them. We have not observed that the Secretary of the Navy proposes to offer the soldiers on our men-of-war the opportunity to get grog when they please ; that has been done away with. If the sale of beer in post exchanges really tends to temperance on the part of temperance soldiers, then we favor it ; but that yet is not clear. If it simply provides conveniences for intemperate soldiers, then we do not favor it. We should prefer to have the officers use their power to close the saloons near the posts."

BJÖRNSTJERNE BJÖRNSSON.

PROPOS of the seventieth birthday of the Norwegian poet, dramatist, orator, and novelist, Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson, there is a paper in the *January Critic* by John Nilsen Laurvik which contributes not a little interesting information about the career and personality of Norway's radical leader. Writing with recollections of a recent visit to Bjørnson fresh in mind, Mr. Laurvik says :

"Despite his great years, Bjørnson is a man active in body and mind, taking a keen interest in public affairs, where his voice is still heard, and his contributions to the press of Norway

have in no wise diminished. During my stay with him this summer, there appeared no less than half a dozen signed articles by him on questions of the day. And now that he has succeeded in fostering a national life independent of all foreign influence in art, literature, and the drama, he is turning all his energies to furthering the union of the Germanic race, and 'Pan-Germanism' is his watchword at present. He said to me that he hoped to live to see the Germanic race stand united, and with that accomplished, he said, the peace of the world would be assured forever. This has aroused a great deal of discussion in the press all over Europe. Many agree with him, and others merely smile and call it a poet's dream. But if one could visit the old eagle in his home in the mountains of Gudbrandsdalen and see the determination and confidence expressed in those blue eyes, one would go away converted to his belief.



BJÖRNSTJERNE BJÖRNSSON.
(From a recent photograph.)

THE POET'S COUNTRY HOME.

"The estate on which Bjørnson lives, called Aulestad, is one of the largest farms in Gudbrandsdalen, and is managed by one of his sons, and the income from that alone would be sufficient to afford the poet a comfortable living. Here he lives the whole year round, with the exception of occasional visits to Christiania and Copenhagen during the winter. One almost expects as one comes up to his house that lies on the side of the hill, with its prospects over the surrounding country, to meet Arne or Thorbjørn. Over there, on the other side of the valley, where lies a well-kept farm, with its green fields and somber pine woods behind it, one looks for Synnøve Solbakken to step forth into the sunshine. And as I told the old poet this, he smiled and said : 'Yes, it is very much like the scenes of my early tales, and living here makes me feel young again,' which his elastic step and erect frame bear out."

For a fuller account of Bjørnson's life and work, Mr. Laurvik refers the inquiring reader to the admirable essay by Georg Brandes in his "Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century," and to the "Study of the Writings of Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson," by Mr. Edmund Gosse.

HOW HERBERT SPENCER WORKS AND LIVES.

AN interesting article on Herbert Spencer appears in the *World's Work* for February from the pen of Mr. George Iles. Spencer was born in 1820, at Derby, which is now a stirring town of 100,000 inhabitants. As a young man, Herbert Spencer showed marked inventive talent; he constructed a velocimeter, which indicated the speed of locomotives, and suggested the idea of composite photographs. He was a capital draughtsman, and an able painter in water colors. Another accomplishment was music, the philosopher having a strong bass voice of good quality.

HOW HERBERT SPENCER WORKS.

"When he began the composition of 'First Principles,' in 1860, he adopted the practice of dictating to an amanuensis. He was spending



HERBERT SPENCER.

(From a recent photograph.)

the summer by the shore of a Scottish loch. His habit was to dictate for a quarter of an hour, then row for an equal period with the object of so stimulating the circulation of the blood as to carry him through another fifteen minutes' dictation, and so on throughout the forenoon. Neither then nor afterward did he work in the afternoon. Ten years later, at times when his health fell to a low ebb, he would go to a racket court in the north of London, play with the man in charge, and dictate in the intervals of the game. One of the most abstruse portions of his *Psychology*, the argument for Transfigured Realism, was composed under these unpromising circumstances. His usual programme as he

wrote the volumes of the 'Synthetic Philosophy' was to leave his house soon after 9 in the morning and direct his steps to Kensington Gardens. There he walked until nearly 10 o'clock, his head slightly bent, his pace somewhat rapid, his mind evidently in meditation. Yet he was never too absorbed to greet a passing acquaintance with a winning smile. Regularly at 10 o'clock he appeared in his workroom, in Leinster Place, a retreat known to hardly any one, and sacred against intrusion. He first dictated his correspondence, often rebelling at its onerous demands. Then he turned to his systematic work, soon rising to the full tide of dictation; usually he went on without a break till close on 1 o'clock, when he hurried away to luncheon. If his health was out of order, he would stop abruptly at any moment and leave the house, saying that his head felt queer. When fairly well, he would smoke half a cigar, finding that it promoted the flow of thought. His light-blue eyes, as he reflected, had the thinker's far-away look."

A RAPID THOUGH CONSCIENTIOUS WRITER.

"The dictation was continuous; there were no interruptions, and only brief pauses. The panorama of thought unwound itself slowly, and apparently without an effort. He seldom, in resuming his task, needed to be reminded of the last word spoken, and he never changed his calm sitting position in front of the grate. Never did he patch, reconstruct, or begin again. The matter seemed to have long been familiar to him, and only to be taking its final shape before his eyes. Now and then a brilliant thought would flash suddenly upon him. Thus, the felicitous antithesis in his 'Sociology' of the religion of amity and the religion of enmity was a surprise to himself, and so was his declaration that his works are not only caviare to the many but caviare to the few. He rarely used notes. At the end of a week or two's dictation he would begin revising his pages. His sole objects were greater conciseness and precision of language. There was much substitution of short phrases for long ones, but there were no wholesale excisions, and few additions. His works might have been printed from his dictated manuscripts and shown no other defects than redundancies. Considering the difficulty of his subjects, the solidity of the matter, and his finish of style and treatment, his rate of composition was not slow. On good mornings he would produce 1,000 words. This was reduced by the time occupied in revision, the arrangement of materials, and relapses into ill-health to a daily average for the year of 330 words. In 1879, when he was recovering from

a serious illness, sitting under the trees of Kensington Gardens, he dictated his autobiography to an amanuensis."

NOT MUCH OF A READER.

"Spencer has never been much of a reader; he was wont to say that if he were to read as much as other people he would know as little as they. He has never bought many books, nor borrowed from circulating libraries or other sources, and yet he has managed to accumulate enormous stores of knowledge. He read but little in the forenoon, and he dared not read at all in the evening, through dread of insomnia; but for all that, he seemed to miss nothing in print that bore on his work. Almost all his reading must have taken place at odd moments, just after breakfast, after luncheon, and in the afternoons regularly passed at the Athenæum Club. A little time went a long way with him; five minutes over an article, half an hour over a book, availed him as much as half an hour or half a day to another man. Much was communicated to him by friends of eminence in science, who took pride in placing their information at his service. Among these were Huxley, Tyn-dall, and Hooker. Huxley read and revised the manuscripts of 'First Principles' and 'The Principles of Biology.' Early in life, Spencer mastered the art of putting questions, and his unswerving devotion to a single task kept his mind ever focused, so that every new fact or suggestion at once found its place in his thought. His memory is strong for facts and principles, and weak for words; he could never quote correctly poetry of any length. He has the faculty of divination which Augustin Thierry admired in Walter Scott. The blank forms of knowledge were ever in his mind."

A GRAND OLD MAN.

Mr. Spencer retained his great natural bodily vigor till past sixty, and was able to read without glasses at eighty-one. Now, in his eighty-third year, he has reduced the matter of exercise to taking drives about his home at Brighton. Formerly, he was fond of recreation of various sorts, took up lawn tennis eagerly, went often to the theaters and opera, and was a devoted fisherman in northern waters, always using flies of his own design. He dined out often, and played whist and billiards in the evenings when he had no engagements. "As a capital talker he was much in request. An audacious lady once sought him for a dance; he told her that he did not dance, nor did he care to be a wall-flower." The philosopher had many warm friends, among them George Eliot and her husband.

THE CAREER OF SENATOR CLARK.

AN unusually picturesque short personal sketch is that of Senator William Andrews Clark, of Montana, contributed to the February *Cosmopolitan* by Henry R. Knapp. William Andrews Clark was of Pennsylvania Scotch-Irish stock,



SENATOR WILLIAM A. CLARK, OF MONTANA.

and though of slight physique, has so much endurance and vitality that at sixty-three he seems as full of energy as he was at twenty-three.

At the latter age, after having enjoyed an academic education, he hired as a teamster and drove an emigrant wagon from his parents' home at Mount Pleasant, Iowa, to Central City, Colo., 750 miles, in 45 days. He expected to find gold, and though disappointed in the prospect, became a miner.

In a year or so, he drove an ox-team to Montana, taking 65 days for the dangerous journey. At Virginia City, he bought a claim with his oxen, and after nine months of back-breaking work, knee-deep in icy water, cleaned up \$1,500. Clark drove 300 miles to Salt Lake, bought goods, and became a trader. Flour was \$150 a sack, ham was \$1 a pound. One Napoleonic expedition for tobacco netted him \$7,000.

In the meantime, Clark kept trying to find a good mine. After some failures, he wanted to know of the technical side, and went to Columbia College and studied metallurgy in 1872. Later, he took two years in Europe.

In the meantime, the development of electricity and the necessity for copper wire im-

pressed Clark with the value this metal would have in the future. "So, looking for a big, rich, and easily worked copper mine, he occupied his spare time for a year. He rejected many promising ones, until one day there rode into a mining camp, thirty miles east of Phoenix, Arizona, a modest, unassuming man, tanned, and bearing the stamp of a 'health-seeker.' He talked mines, and used his eyes. Then he asked the price of a group of mines.

"One hundred and fifty thousand dollars," was the reply, jocularly and skeptically.

"I'll take it. Make out your papers."

"What's your name?"

"William A. Clark, of Butte; and here's a check for fifty thousand dollars. I will pay the balance in thirty days."

"Those owners were gleeful. Their mine was sold, and so, thought they, was Clark. But that was not their business. It was twenty-five miles from a railway, up and down a precipitous mountain trail. It had never made any money, because there was no egress, and no smelter. Clark built a railway where it was said that could not be done; and, discarding ramshackle buildings and haphazard machinery, he installed a modern plant, and then built a smelter. The town of Jerome grew up. The outside traffic on the railway now pays all charges, leaving the mine and smelter traffic clear of expense.

"To-day, the United Verde mine yields a million dollars a month. It could be made to yield twice as much just as readily. The body of copper is rich, and apparently inexhaustible. Fifteen million pounds cash was refused by Clark in 1895. It is worth twice or thrice or even a dozen times that to-day. No one knows but Clark, and he will not discuss it.

"It's nobody's business," is his reply. "It's not for sale."

STATE OWNERSHIP IN RUSSIA.

ARTICLES from the foreign reviews recently quoted in this department of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS have indicated some of the vast strides that have been taken by Russia in the direction of municipalization of quasi-public undertakings. In the *Fortnightly Review* for January, Mr. R. E. C. Long, writing on the work of M. Witte, shows how a great system of state ownership has been built up under the fostering care of Russia's greatest finance minister. He quotes a Russian authority, who declares that M. Witte has done more than any other minister to augment the power of the state, and sums up his policy in a couple of lines: "A system of economy," he calls it, "based on the principle of

concentrating the whole wealth of the country in a single hand." That is the secret of M. Witte, as discerned by his wiser compatriots, friends and enemies alike.

THE STATE C'EST M. WITTE.

Mr. Long points out that the policy which M. Witte has pursued with a single aim is to concentrate everything in the hands of the state:



M. WITTE, RUSSIAN MINISTER OF FINANCE.

"Through the hands of the greatest finance minister of modern times already passes more than half the income of the people. According to M. Witte's own calculations, the annual products of the empire are not worth more than 3,500,000,000 rubles. The estimates for 1902 amount to 1,946,751,976 rubles. All profits and surpluses are intended to build up the vast fabric of state ownership and state patronage which, under M. Witte's *régime*, is proving the strongest pillar of irresponsible rule. The state is to be a trading corporation first, and an organ of government only as a subordinate function."

A NATIONAL DRINK MONOPOLY.

He began with establishing a state monopoly of the sale of drink:

"The intriguing, predatory publican, said M. Witte's advertising agents, has been dispossessed of rights which should never have been given him; to the state accrues the profit, which is returned to the people either in diminished taxation or in productive expenditure. But this pleasing picture is a delusion. When M. Witte proceeded to dispossess the publicans, he deter-

mined to level up the grievances of the whole population by expropriating most of the local revenues. Towns were reduced to the verge of bankruptcy; many villages closed their schools; productive outlay on education, medicine, and sanitation was stayed, and a paralysis of civic initiative set in which threatens to undo most of the good work done during the last forty years. Some municipalities lost as much as 25 per cent. of their revenues; the villages lost practically their only reliable source of income.

THE SECOND STEP: GROCERIES.

"The spirit monopoly is, however, but the thin end of the wedge introduced by the insatiable Fisk. The greatest financier of modern times is now committed to a further progress of expropriation, which is destined to end in the absorption by the state of all industries, and in the reduction of the producing population to the position of managers of state departments, civil servants, and state laborers. Two more giant monopolies have already passed the stage of conjecture, one a monopoly in name, the other a monopoly in fact. Within the last eight years, M. Witte has created, in the form of spirit shops, a universal distributing organization. He proposes to turn the state spirit shops into general grocery stores. 'The Chief Department of Indirect Taxation and the State Sale of Drink,' we are told, 'with the desire to facilitate the purchase of tea and sugar in remote districts, proposes to provide for the sale of these products in the village public-houses.'

THE THIRD STEP: DRUGS.

"Monopoly once established, prices, following the vodka precedent, will be raised, so that the people who already pay for their tea and sugar at treble English prices may contribute still further to the aggrandizement of the budget. All of which, his excellency argues, means a greater revenue and a corresponding growth of officialdom subject to the ministry of finance. This is the monopoly unavowed. The avowed monopoly now being discussed all over Russia is the state monopoly of chemical and drug stores. Here, while the official pretext is beneficence, patriotism gains some unofficial support. The apothecaries in Russia are nearly all Germans; native enterprise is represented only by the local governing bodies.

THE FOURTH STEP: MUNICIPAL SOCIALISM.

"In Russia, everything from the bakery to the publishing trade has been municipalized. The state is content with carrying on the transport of the empire, working mines, mismanag-

ing steel works, and selling vodka, but the local governments admit no limit to their enterprise at all. The Duma and the Zemstvo sell agricultural machinery, seed, horses, cattle, sewing-machines, text-books, medicines, and magic lanterns; they manage theaters, deliver lectures, translate Milton and Molière, and expurgate Dostoyeffsky for the benefit of the masses. While the city of London is wondering whether it will ever own its own tramways, the city of Tiflis competes with the retail butchers and sells sewing-machines on the installment system to impecunious seamstresses. This municipal enterprise is destined to play admirably into the hands of M. Witte. The local governments are acting as his jackals, eliminating the private trader and creating vast organizations which the state, in the course of its continuous warfare against free local government, will proceed to expropriate. In preparation for the final act of expropriation, municipal trading flourishes. As the local governments are completely under the thumb of the minister, their enterprise is merely state trading in another form, which has the cardinal advantage that it hampers individual enterprise and passes thousands of free individuals under the yoke of administrative tutelage.

RESULTS.

"As the result of this system, the 'redistribution of wealth,' which M. Witte assures his master is the inevitable result of industrialism, goes on with ever-increasing speed. The partition of spoils, at first sight, appears hardly equitable; for while the state has but doubled its income in ten years' time, the capitalists have decupled theirs. At the present time, there are probably more millionaires and more paupers in Moscow alone than there are in the whole of England.

"His excellency does not mention that the consumption of bread *per capita* has fallen off about seventy pounds, that the rejected from military service have increased about 14½ per cent. during the last seven years, and that the people in the richest provinces in the empire have come to live so miserably that the increase in their numbers has altogether ceased. For the beggarment of the peasants, begun thirty years ago, has been consummated within the last ten.

"But where liberalism and finance diverge there is no worse retrograde in the Czar's empire. Thus, we find the liberal minister, in pursuit, as usual, of centralization, declaring that free local government is incompatible with autocracy, limiting the fiscal independence of the Zemstvos, regulating the labor question with se-

cret circulars, and using censure and exile with as little scruple as the Procurator of the Holy Synod."

THE BRUSSELS SUGAR CONVENTION.

THE sugar question and the work of the Brussels convention continue to be discussed by European publicists. Mr. Thomas Lough, M.P., writing in the *Contemporary Review* on the Brussels convention, remarks that the development of beet-sugar production probably conferred greater benefits on the United Kingdom than on any of the countries in which the industry was carried on. The fall in the price of sugar caused the springing up of great manufactures of which sugar was a raw material.

"So great was the expansion, that the average consumption of sugar per head of the population in the United Kingdom increased from 40 pounds in the year 1860 to 90 pounds in the year 1901, and this figure may be compared with 66 pounds in the United States, 66 pounds in Switzerland; in Denmark, 36 pounds; in France, 29 pounds; in Germany, 28 pounds; and in Holland, 28 pounds. In some of the larger confectionery manufactories, from 2,000 to 6,000 hands are employed, and it is estimated that quite 250,000 persons are engaged in the various industries founded on sugar. Naturally, it is, to a large extent, a home trade."

The urgent appeals addressed to government to save the West Indies from industrial ruin have not been verified by the course of events. Mr. Lough quotes freely from the consular reports to show that West Indian trade is looking up.

"Thus it is at the moment when the West Indian case of the agitators is fading away that the government has taken the violent step of committing the country to the engagements of the convention, the terms of which we must now examine."

ENGLAND'S LUDICROUS POSITION.

Mr. Lough is exceptionally severe upon the provision which allows to the other signatories the benefit of a very considerable sur-tax, the import duty of 62 cents per hundredweight more than the excise duty.

"What a ludicrous position we are placed in when we thus realize what the powers have done. They have made a bargain with us that we shall give them preferential duties against our own colonies and all the foreign countries who are outside, we, on the other hand, binding ourselves not to give any preferential treatment to the sugar-producers within our own empire. The

effect will be that our market will be at the mercy of these foreigners. They will always have the amount of the sur-tax directly, and the further amount which their secret mutual *cartel* arrangements may enable them to exact from their own consumers with which to beat our West Indian and other sugar-producers."

Mr. Lough maintains that the treaty has been promoted in the undisguised interests of protection. The convention he describes as the work of two men—Sir Neville Lubbock and Mr. Martineau—who have conducted their campaign through the Anti-Bounty League, the Sugar Refiners' Association, and the West Indian committees of London, Liverpool, and Glasgow. And these two men were sent to the conference with the other delegates! The interests of a community of forty-one millions at home and a vast empire abroad, in the writer's opinion, have been sacrificed to benefit petty private interests.

FUEL BRIQUETTES IN GERMANY.

THE anthracite famine of the present winter in the United States has served to direct our attention to the various forms of artificially prepared fuel which in other countries take the place of hard coal. Among such products, the briquettes made in Germany from lignite, peat, and the dust and waste of coal mines probably represent the highest form of technical skill in manufacture, as well as the greatest economic gains. The fact that these briquettes form the principal domestic fuel of Berlin and other German cities,—that they are used for locomotive and other steam firing, and are employed for heating in various manufacturing processes,—has an added significance for American readers when we consider that vast bogs of peat and unmeasured stores of lignite remain undeveloped in several of our central and Western States.

In a description of the German-made briquettes contributed to *Cassier's* for January, Mr. Frank H. Mason ascribes to them these practical advantages:

"They are clean, and convenient to handle; they light easily and quickly, and burn with a clear, intense flame; when made of lignite or peat, they burn practically without smoke, and are, withal, the cheapest form of fuel for most purposes."

EXTENT OF THE INDUSTRY.

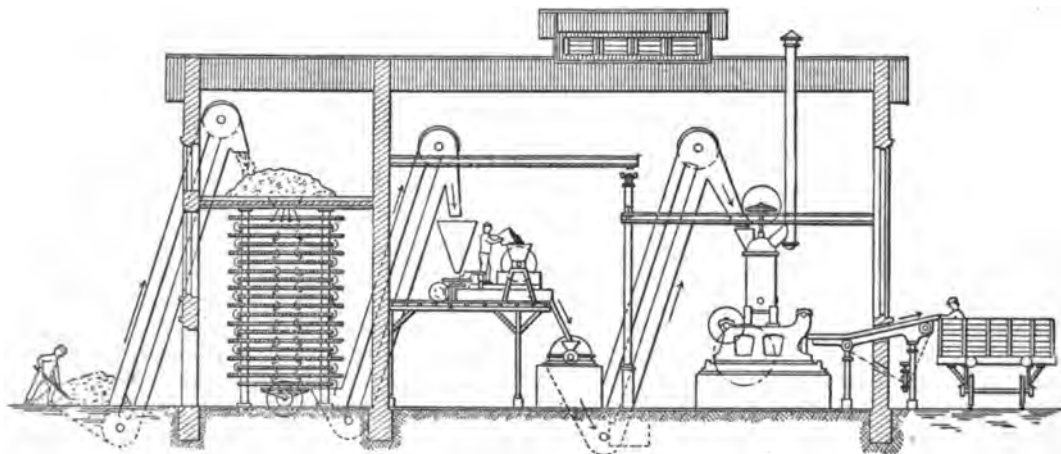
The briquette manufacture, like most other important German industries, is controlled by a syndicate, which includes thirty-one firms or companies, or more than nine-tenths of the producers, and regulates prices and output. From

the official report of this syndicate for 1901, it is learned that the total output for that year was 1,566,385 tons. Including the product of manufacturers outside the syndicate, the grand total of the output in all Germany during 1901 was 1,643,416 tons.

The average selling price in large quantities was 13.33 marks (about \$3.20) a ton, and this was the highest price that had been realized since 1891. Nearly half of the year's output was absorbed by the German railroads; approximately, 500,000 tons went to factories and workshops; retailers took 124,380 tons, and the remainder was consumed by German merchant ships or by the navy, or was exported.

"All processes of this kind are based upon the fact that lignite is a vegetable coal of more recent formation and, therefore, less perfectly carbonized structure than anthracite or bituminous coals, has lower caloric value, and requires to be compressed and further carbonized by artificial means. Turf or peat is a still more recent formation, and requires proportionately more artificial preparation to produce a high-class fuel; hence the several more or less successful patented processes for carbonizing peat into so-called peat coal,—an artificial product which can be used either in irregular lumps or molded into briquettes.

"In all that concerns the manufacture of



WORKING DIAGRAM OF A BRIQUETTING PLANT.

(The raw material enters at the left, passing through a steam drying-apparatus, then in succession to a mixing-machine, disintegrator, kneading-machine, and press, from which last it emerges in briquette form.)

There were in operation in Germany at the close of 1900 eighty-nine manufactories of fuel briquettes, some of which had a capacity of more than one hundred thousand tons each per annum. In respect to the material employed, briquette works are divided into two general classes,—those which make briquettes from lignite or carbonized peat, with or without the addition of a bituminous matrix, or binder, and those which use as a basic material the waste of soft-coal mines.

"Brown coal," or lignite, is abundant and cheap in many parts of Germany. In the works at Deuben, near Halle, this raw material is "crushed, moistened with water to the consistency of mortar, then passed through a machine which, by compression under heat, develops the bitumen and renders the mass so plastic and adhesive that it molds rapidly into smooth, glistening briquettes of a black or dark brown color, which are practically smokeless and leave a reddish-brown ash after combustion.

briquettes from brown coal, or from the slack and waste of bituminous-coal mines, the processes employed in France and Germany have long passed the experimental stage and become a standard commercial industry. If others are really interested in the subject, there is no need that they should risk any large sums of money



SPECIMEN BRIQUETTES.

(They range in length from 6 to 12 inches, in width from 3 to 8 inches, and in thickness from $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inches. These are currently used sizes.)

in uncertain experiments. They have only to study the machinery and methods employed in European countries, compare their crude materials with those found and used here, and they can thus start at the point of technical knowledge which Europeans have reached after many years of experience."

Mr. Mason describes several of the patented processes for carbonizing peat by heating and drying, but perhaps the most interesting of these is a system operated successfully at Munich and elsewhere, by which "black, dense briquettes of high caloric value are made from peat without the application of heat,—simply through the action of kneading and drying."

ABATING THE SMOKE NUISANCE.

One of the chief advantages derived from the use of fuel briquettes in a city like Berlin, as set forth by Mr. Mason, is the beneficial influence in reducing the smoke of factories:

"Berlin, although a busy manufacturing city, ranks as one of the cleanest and best kept in Europe. One of the first things usually noticed by American and British travelers visiting the German capital for the first time is the absence of that cloud of dusty smoke that overhangs so many other towns and cities. The reason for this lies in three facts: The preponderant use of coke and lignite briquettes, which are practically smokeless; the skillful, scientific construction of boiler furnaces and chimneys; and, finally, the high standard of skill that is taught and enforced among firemen who stoke furnaces with coal for steam and manufacturing purposes.

"It is not every strapping laborer who can shovel coal who is permitted to stoke a boiler furnace in Germany. Before he can assume such a charge he must be taught the theory and practice of economical, scientific firing. The Silesian coal used here in most large steam plants and factories is rich in bitumen and would rank below many of the bituminous coals of the United States, and yet the long, dense, trailing clouds of smoke from mill and factory chimneys which are so familiar a sight in many other cities are rarely seen in this section of Germany, where the indiscriminate shoveling of raw bituminous coal into the steam and other furnaces is considered an ignorant and wasteful proceeding.

"Coke-making in retort ovens, by which every element is saved and bituminous coal is converted into smokeless coke and gas, is another important factor in German fuel economy and abatement of the smoke nuisance. If other municipalities beyond the economic range of anthracite are ever emancipated from their present

vassalage to the smoke incubus, it will be through the enforced use of one or more of three forms of prepared fuel,—viz., coke and fuel gas made in closed ovens from bituminous coal, and briquettes made from lignite, peat, and other inferior materials by processes which have been invented, tested, and proven to be efficient by the older and more economical countries of Europe."

THE INDUSTRIAL VALUE OF THE ALPS.

THAT the Alps have an industrial, or useful, side is a fact quite commonly overlooked by the tourist. To the *Revue de Paris*, M. Houllé-vigue contributes a curious and instructive article dealing with this phase of the Swiss mountains. Too long, he says, visitors to Swiss mountainous regions have simply regarded the mountains as beautiful and interesting objects; and he points out that were it not for the Alps, those countries which are situated in their neighborhood would be arid and utterly different from what they now are. That group of mountains known to us all as the Alps benefits Switzerland, France, Italy, and Austria; and of late the scientific leaders of thought on the Continent have given much thought to the whole question of how these mountainous regions can be utilized in a fashion to bring comfort and wealth to man. Visitors, says the French writer, are often surprised to notice that every small Swiss village is furnished with electric light. It would be difficult to overestimate the good that this abundant and cheap illuminant has brought to the lonely Swiss villages, especially in those where electricity is utilized in many other ways. It has been estimated that the French Alps alone produce, each year, a force equal to that of three million horse-power; that is, were the same force to be created with the help of ordinary steam engines, seventeen million tons of coal would have to be consumed. Of course, the water power of each mountain is not harnessed for nothing, but the expense is incredibly less than that of creating the power, as it were, out of nothing.

Italy alone among the nations of Europe has so far attempted to utilize her natural resources with a view to driving local railways. There is now an electric railway line from Bologna to San Felice some thirty-five miles in length, and yet another, close to Lake Como, is close on a hundred miles in length.

THE QUESTION OF OWNERSHIP.

One issue which has been raised of late, and which is likely to be raised far oftener in the future, concerns the difficult question as to

who are the actual owners of these rivers and streams which have their source in the various highlands of Europe. Should the French pay a tax to Switzerland for the use of those of her rivers which have their source in the Alps? "Yes," answer the Swiss lawyers; "No," cry those in France. The one set argue that the water which has its source in Switzerland should be regarded as a coal mine would be in the same region; the others declare that water, like air, has no nationality. It will be extremely interesting to see how this vexed question will be settled,—especially when, as seems so likely, the natural forces of the world begin to play an even greater rôle than they now do in public and private life. In this connection it is interesting to state that in all those French colonies where water has a certain actual value, such as Algiers, every stream, however humble, is considered as the property of the state, and not of the private individual through whose land it flows.

THE FINSEN LIGHT IN AMERICA.

THE readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS will remember Mr. Moritzen's article on the extraordinary accomplishments of the Danish physician, Dr. Niels Finsen, published in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS last autumn. A very interesting group of articles appears in the February *McClure's* from various writers telling of the marvelous results Dr. Finsen has obtained in curing lupus and preventing small-pox markings by the use of his light method, and showing how the cure is being taken up by other countries. Dr. George G. Hopkins, writing on "The Finsen System in America," shows that as early as 1899 he had a Finsen tube built for his use, which was the first in this country, and cases of lupus were successfully treated with this apparatus until the tube was broken, owing to defective mounting. Dr. Hopkins then made a hasty trip to Copenhagen, studied the light treatment under Finsen himself, and brought back another tube with him. Since then, lupus cases have come to be treated from all parts of the United States and Canada. Except in cases where the disease was very far advanced, the cure has been complete, even more surely than by the use of the knife. Other physicians have now taken up the treatment, and the number is constantly increasing.

The light cure in America is the same as that employed in Copenhagen, except that it is used here for cases that could not be reached with the apparatus in Finsen's hospital. For instance, in America, cases of internal abdominal tumor have been successfully treated. It will

not be long before every American town of any size will have its light-cure plant, and American ingenuity will no doubt improve the methods.

CAN MALIGNANT CANCER BE CURED?

"Cancer proper has been generally regarded as hopeless. Having used the Finsen ray with good results in a case of cancer of the skin, I decided, in 1900, to prove its results upon the deeper-seated cancer of the breast. Here, however, entered a difficulty. The Finsen ray has slight penetrative power. The use of the Roentgen or X-ray in connection with the Finsen ray suggested itself to me. The Roentgen ray has extraordinary germicidal qualities, but no curative properties. Light heals; the X-ray is not light, but something beyond light the nature of which is an unfathomed secret. Therefore, to destroy the germs, I used the X-ray, which broke down the cancerous tissue and killed the bacteria. Then I used the Finsen tube to heal the open sore which resulted. The Finsen ray alone would have done the whole work had it been able to penetrate to the core of the ailment. Under the double radial attack, the area of ulceration quickly shrank, and after several months of treatment, disappeared. That was two years ago; there has been no return of the growth since. Subsequently, cases of abdominal cancer were treated with the same result. The Finsen light has also been found useful in the treatment of birthmarks. It gives rise to no pain, and leaves only a white scar which will undoubtedly fade out and in time assume almost a normal aspect.

THE GREATNESS OF THIS MEDICAL DISCOVERY.

"It is yet too early to assert that the Finsen ray, used in combination with the X-ray, will definitely cure malignant cancer. Until the cases of apparent cure have been under observation for several years there can be no certainty that the disease is eradicated. This much, however, we may say: that the dreaded scourge can be arrested even in its last stages, and the sufferings of the patient almost nullified by the simple action of the actinic rays. Should the apparent cures of cancer prove permanent, we must regard Finsen's discovery as the greatest mitigant of human suffering since the first use of anesthetics. And, in any case, the future of the new science is glorious with hope. It is in its infancy yet; when coming years shall have established it beyond the suspicion of quackery, when it shall count its devoted students and eager experimenters in every institution of healing the world over, what limit can imagination set to its achievements?"

THE PRESENT STATUS OF THE BLOOD-SERUM THERAPY.

VON BEHRING'S blood-serum therapy, one of the most precious gifts of modern bacteriology to suffering humanity, is discussed by Medical Counselor Prof. Dr. Wilhelm Dönitz, of Berlin, in the *Deutsche Monatsschrift*, in that lucid yet scholarly way which the Germans term *allgemeinverständlich*,—that is, adapted to the general reader. Since 1890, when von Behring was conducting his epoch-making experiments at the Koch Institute for Infectious Diseases, bacteriologists have been working to produce a diphtheria serum of maximum power, their efforts being very nearly crowned with success now. It was known long ago that a person who recovered from an infectious disease was protected for a long time against a second attack. Then came the discovery that most agents of disease, chief among which are the bacteria, produce their noxious effects by secreting a poison in the body they attack; and bacteriologists succeeded in separating the poison produced by the bacteria of diphtheria and tetanus and evoking by means of them the same symptoms as those produced by the bacilli themselves. With the further discovery that a second attack of the disease may be induced by injecting into an animal a still larger dose of the poison, the foundations for the modern serum therapy were laid.

ACTION OF THE SERUM.

The action of the serum is explained by the writer as follows: "We now know that when a person, or an animal, is recovering from a disease like diphtheria, chemical substances are produced in the body that are capable of neutralizing the poison of the diphtheria bacilli. By subjecting the animal to a second attack, the ability to produce such matter is increased, and if further attacks are induced, these substances (which the German physicians call *Schutzstoffe*—protective matter) are increased to such a degree that the blood, or its liquid portion, the serum, may be used as a curative; for if this serum be injected into a person suffering with diphtheria, the protective substances contained therein neutralize the diphtheria poison in the body, thereby removing the direct cause of the disease. Such a serum is therefore called an antitoxic serum."

ADVANTAGES OF THE SERUM TREATMENT.

Statistics have shown that if the serum be administered with the first suspicious symptoms, the children who are subjected to that treatment on the first day of the disease will positively

recover, while the percentage of convalescents decreases with every day's delay. However, if larger quantities are injected later, the patient may still be saved. It is well, therefore, to have recourse to the serum as a preventive measure even before the disease has been diagnosed as diphtheria, as no ill effects ensue to the person so treated, and all suspicious cases are sure to be reached in that way. Other children in the family affected also may be rendered immune by having a weak solution of serum injected. In the writer's opinion, "No child now need die of diphtheria."

TETANUS SERUM.

The results obtained in the case of tetanus are less satisfactory. Although the tetanus serum has been brought to as high a degree of perfection as the diphtheria serum, it has much less scope, on account of the nature of the disease, as the symptoms of tetanus do not appear at once. It takes some time before the spores of the tetanus bacillus in the wound germinate and form poison, and this poison, again, does not immediately produce in the spine and brain the disturbances that become manifest as lock-jaw, and when they do appear, the poison cannot be neutralized to any great extent; if they are such that life cannot continue, no quantity of serum will avail, for it can neutralize only the poison circulating freely in the fluids of the body. As it is impossible to tell how far the action of the poison may have advanced, in a case of tetanus, physicians inject the serum at the very first symptoms.

PROPHYLACTIC TREATMENT.

"The best results have so far been obtained with the prophylactic treatment, veterinary surgery leading the way. It appears from experiments made by French surgeons that out of 2,300 large domestic animals, mostly horses, that underwent operations and immediately afterward had serum injected, not a single one died, while at the same time and place hundreds of other animals not so treated perished. Other experiments referred to animals that had received injuries such as often lead to tetanus; of these, 400 animals that had serum injected between the first and fourth day after the injury were not attacked by tetanus, but a horse that received the injection on the fifth day was attacked in a mild form." In view of these experiments, the prophylactic treatment is also used in cases where persons are injured, and it has been successfully applied by the German army surgeon Herhold in the recent Chinese campaign.

ANTI-VENOMOUS SERUM.

The third kind of serum so far used with success, finally, is that against snake-bites, made by Calmette. It is obtained by inoculating horses with the poison of the most venomous snakes, which are kept for that purpose. The poison is taken from the snake by opening its mouth and pressing upon the poison glands, the venom being caught on a watch crystal. Once, Calmette himself was bitten in the finger during this operation, but as he immediately applied his serum, he was saved, though his finger had to be amputated. This serum is efficacious for all snake-bites, probably because all these poisons are related chemically. It must be applied at once, as snake poison causes death within a few hours; but the serum, on the other hand, acts even a short time before the fatal moment.

SIR WILLIAM CROOKES AND PSYCHICAL RESEARCH.

MR. HAROLD BEGBIE contributes his second article on master workers to the *Pall Mall* for January, and this time he sketches the life and doings of Sir William Crookes. In his presidential address to the British Association, with reference to his connection with the Psychical Research Society, Sir William Crookes said:

"To stop short in any research that bids fair to widen the gates of knowledge, to recoil from fear of difficulty or adverse criticism, is to bring reproach on science. There is nothing for the investigator to do but to go straight on, 'to explore up and down, inch by inch, with the taper his reason;' to follow the light wherever it may lead, even should it at times resemble a will-o'-the-wisp."

NO BRIDGE BETWEEN THE SPIRITUAL AND THE MATERIAL.

These are brave words, and Mr. Begbie endeavored to ascertain from the man who spoke them whether he had succeeded in coming nearer the mystery,—whether he was able to handle and examine it. Says Mr. Begbie:

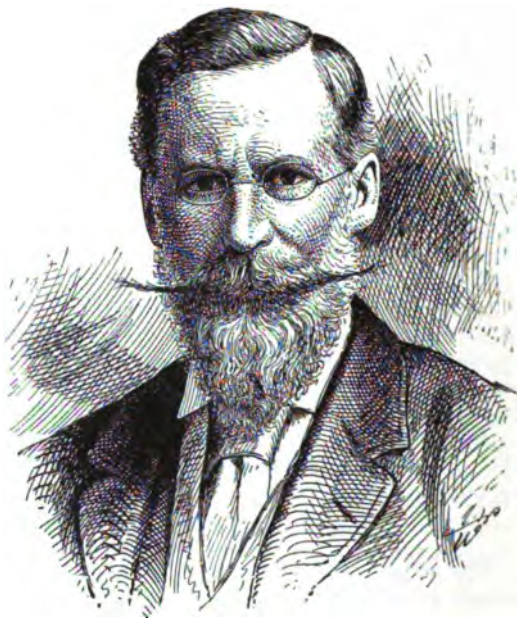
"As frankly as he uttered his faith to the British Association, he told me that he had come to a brick wall. Still, he has nothing to retract; still, he believes that it is in the power of science to gain new and brighter glimpses of a profounder scheme of cosmic law; but, for himself, he has come to a brick wall.

"There is no bridge between the spiritual and the material world," he said; "and I don't see how there can be."

WHAT HOPE IS THERE FOR THE FUTURE?

Mr. Begbie gives, among others, the following as the most important results of his conversations with Sir William Crookes:

"I asked him if he could see any hope that science will one day unlock the mystery and show us wonders of the spiritual world. He refused to prophesy. His work is now entirely in physical science, and to speculate in the realms of metaphysics offers him no temptation. 'But,' he said, 'if you had come to me a hundred years



SIR WILLIAM CROOKES.

ago, do you think I should have dreamed of foretelling the telephone? Why, even now I cannot understand it! I use it every day, I transact half my correspondence by means of it, but I don't understand it. Think of that little stretched disk of iron at the end of a wire repeating in your ear not only sounds, but words,—not only words, but all the most delicate and elusive inflections and nuances of tone which separate one human voice from another! Is not that something of a miracle?"

With regard to the progress of science in relation to the supersensual boundaries of physical existence, Mr. Begbie says:

"His attitude is this: It is impossible to tell whether science may not some day stumble upon the soul. Men of science believe more than they can express—spiritually as well as physically."

THE BRIDGE TO COME FROM THE OTHER SIDE.

And again :

"The main fact that I gather from conversation with the professor is this,—that to expect spiritual revelations from physical science is to look for the impossible. If a bridge is to be thrown from the one world to the other, if a nexus is to link the material plane with the psychical plane, it must come from the other side. Physics and psychics are two parallel lines ; the one is a thistle from which no man shall ever gather the grapes of the other. But he seems to hope,—not enthusiastically or with any attempt at prophecy,—that the researches of the Psychical Society will eventually lead to some definite knowledge of the spiritual kingdom.

TELEPATHY THE FIRST STEP.

"His hope is founded upon telepathy. At the beginning of all occult phenomena we come upon the radiations of thought. To plunge into spiritualism until we have grasped something of the laws governing the transmission,—without the agency of the organs of sense,—of thought and images from one mind to another, is to set about constructing the most difficult problem in Euclid without a knowledge of either axiom or postulate. We must prove telepathy before we can proceed, and prove it in the same convincing fashion as we prove the vibrations in solid bodies, in the air, and in ether. When once this is mastered, man will have touched the hem of the garment without seam woven from the top throughout."

Again to quote Mr. Begbie's rendering of Sir William Crookes' view :

"Is it inconceivable that intense thought concentrated toward a sensitive with whom the thinker is in close sympathy may induce a telepathic chain of brain-waves, along which the message of thought can go straight to its goal without loss of energy due to distance ? And is it also inconceivable that our mundane ideas of space and distance may be superseded in these subtle regions of unsubstantial thought where "near" and "far" may lose their usual meaning ?"

"This speculation he emphatically declares is 'strictly provisional ;' adding characteristically, 'I dare to suggest it.'

"That is his present attitude toward psychical research,—he is not a seeker, but a suggester. 'While it is clear,' he says, 'that our knowledge of sub-conscious mentation is still to be developed, we must beware of rashly assuming that all variations from the normal waking condition are necessarily morbid.'"

THE LATE HERR KRUPP AS A PATRON OF ZOÖLOGY.

IT may not be generally known that Friedrich A. Krupp, the great steelmaster, was much interested in observing the fauna of the sea, and annually betook himself to the shores of the Mediterranean, where his royal fortune enabled him to bring the finest equipment as an aid to his investigations.

The last number of the *Zoologischer Anzeiger* contains an article written by Dr. Otto Zacharias, of the Plön Biological Station, which is of interest not only from the account given of animal life in the Mediterranean Sea, but also from the fact that the article is written as a tribute to the direct services of Herr Krupp to zoölogical science.

Herr Krupp's chief field of labor was the Gulf of Naples, where he cruised about with his yacht, the *Maja*, and later with the *Puritan*. There were fifty-eight hauls made during the trip with the *Maja*, a number of them south of the Gulf of Salerno, at Capri, and the Bocca, usually at a distance of from three to sixteen kilometers from land, and some of this material was dredged from a depth of fifteen hundred meters. Among the specimens collected were thirty-three kinds of free-swimming animal forms from the Gulf of Naples which had never been found in that region before. There were four kinds of fishes, including *Scopelus crocodilus* and *S. Russie*, large-mouthed deep-sea fishes with phosphorescent spots on the tail, and *cyclothone microdon*, an extremely delicate blackish-brown deep-sea fish with a row of luminous spots extending along each side to the tail, and another row underneath, extending back from the throat. This fish lives at a depth of from five hundred to two thousand fathoms.

There were also twenty-four kinds of crustacea, including the typical northern crab, *Nyctiphanes norvegica sars*, whose presence in the Mediterranean had never been suspected. This crab was so abundant at Capri that the fishermen used it for bait, and at the Masina Grande, of Capri, Dr. Lo Bianco saw thousands of them swimming about on the surface of the water.

Five kinds of marine worms were found that never had been captured before outside of the Atlantic Ocean. One worm of special beauty was found living in the swimming-bell of a jelly-fish. There were also twenty-three kinds of the inactive, drifting forms included under the general name of plankton, found common to both the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea.

Before this, Lohmann, while studying the fauna of the Straits of Messina, found twenty-six kinds of tunicates, animals which are on

the border line between vertebrates and invertebrates, starting out in early life with the foundations of a backbone, then losing it in adult life, and relapsing into a sluggish form entirely different from any true vertebrate. Besides these, he found twenty-one other kinds of aquatic animals related to those of the Atlantic Ocean, all of which indicates that industrious study of deep-sea life would show the presence of many other forms common to both bodies of water, although this is contrary to the theory previously held that the deep-sea animals of the Atlantic would not be found in the Mediterranean because the threshold formed by Gibraltar permits an exchange between only the upper layers of water and hinders the migrations of animals inhabiting the deeper, cooler portions.

Carl Chun found specimens of plankton fourteen hundred meters below the surface. He also found three different kinds of jellyfishes, many small, transparent forms related to the cuttlefish, so-called "winged-snails," whose one foot is provided with a pair of muscular frills that facilitate locomotion, actively swimming, transparent worms called Tomoteridæ, and many other forms, thronging there together.

Herr Krupp continued all this work, carrying on investigations himself and placing money and equipment at the disposal of the scientists associated with him. He devised improved apparatus valuable to all interested in deep-sea investigations, and obtained important results from his researches, most of which have not yet been published, although a series of monographs printed in German and illustrated with colored lithographs will soon be brought out.

PRESIDENT HADLEY ON ACADEMIC FREEDOM.

AN important series of articles on "Academic Freedom, in Theory and in Practice," from President Arthur T. Hadley, of Yale, is begun in the February *Atlantic*.

PROFESSOR VERSUS CORPORATION.

President Hadley starts with the fact before us that every year there is a case or two of differences of opinion between teachers in our collegiate institutions and those who hold the appointing power that reaches the phase of public discussion. "Sometimes the difference hangs on the method employed in the creation of the world; sometimes on the proper definition of a dollar in the laws of the United States. One man is called to account for his views about the condition of the wicked after death, another for his opinions concerning the reciprocal duties of rich and poor, a third for his teaching as to the

stability of organic species, and a fourth for his judgment upon the physiological effects of alcohol."

THE CORPORATION GENERALLY WINS.

One party of the public defends the professor and talks of freedom of speech and thought, while others defend the college trustees and emphasize the dangers to good morals resulting from too much freedom. President Hadley points out that the outcome of the conflict is generally in favor of the corporation and against the teacher, probably because of the corporation's material advantage in holding the base of supplies. He thinks, however, that this result is due even more to the corporation's having the practical and tangible side of the argument, as against the theoretical or abstract one. Against the firm belief that the eternal salvation of the pupils is jeopardized, or that the commercial prosperity of the country is endangered, the champions of liberty can only oppose the theory of freedom, "which is somewhat abstract, and, as popularly stated, somewhat incorrect also." President Hadley shows that this question of academic freedom must be studied in connection with other problems of civil liberty, and that these can only be properly analyzed by historical study. So he goes back to primitive communities and traces the slow progress of toleration from the point where the law of the priests punished any departure from unity with death.

LAW AND MORALS.

President Hadley shows that in the earliest times the conceptions of law and morals are wholly indistinguishable. The world found that it was necessary, for real progress in teaching, to find a legal basis for quiet and sensible propagation of truth, as distinct from irresponsible and revolutionary deliverances. It was also necessary to develop some new system under which the champion of new doctrines could be treated as a sane man without at the same time loosening those bonds of social cohesion which had rested on the general acceptance of the old doctrine.

THE SEPARATION OF LAW AND MORALS.

This separation of law and morals developed freedom of thought, but not necessarily freedom of teaching. "Teaching is more than a theory; it is an act." President Hadley dwells on this distinction, and goes at length into the famous trial of Socrates, which he considers in many aspects an exceedingly modern case. Can we so order our institutions that the duty of the discoverer of a new truth and the duty of

the teacher who would consider his country's safety will not come into conflict? "In the field of politics, we have gone far toward removing the corresponding difficulty which once existed, when all institutional reform carried with it, or at any rate seemed to carry with it, the danger of revolution. We have learned to draw the line between the group of actions which Mill characterized as self-regarding and another group which more immediately concerns the safety or interest of others. By permitting liberty in the former field and restricting it in the latter, we seem to have secured the advantages of freedom without exposing ourselves to the worse dangers. We have combined the maximum of progress with the minimum of revolution. But in educational matters we have not yet learned to draw this line. We have not learned to separate the rights of the discoverer from the duties of the teacher, or to secure the advantages of freedom without the dangers."

THE REVIVAL OF THE RELIGIOUS DRAMA.

IN connection with Mme. Bernhardt's advocacy of religious plays, it is interesting to note the comments contained in an article by Mr. Wakeling Dry, contributed to the *Treasury* (London) for January. Mr. Dry pays a just tribute to the Passion Play at Oberammergau, where the place, the players, and the subject all combine to create a profound impression on the spectator. In general, Mr. Dry believes that "the desire on the part of the people for dramatic representation of the Gospel and the Bible narrative, whether by the more obvious form of theatrical representation or by the purely imaginative and emotional art of music, has ever remained; and . . . there is much to be learned from, and a good deal to praise in, the present revival of the religious drama."

"EVERYMAN."

Passing from the Passion Play to mystery plays, miracle plays, and moralist plays, Mr. Dry comes to the consideration of the morality play "Everyman," recently performed in New York and other cities, and of Mr. Housman's "Nativity Play." Of the former, he gives the following description:

"The story is one for all time. Nothing could be more touching and at the same time truly dramatic than the lone figure of a man who leaves everything behind to work out his salvation. The Almighty, represented as one may see in the pictures of old Italian painters, tells Death to convey the message to 'Everyman,' a youth full of life and vigor, and rich in all this

world's goods. Death, pallid of face, with a sable stole, and bearing a drum and trumpet, brings the news to the youth, who turns first to his friends and then to his occupations to help him to avoid the dread catastrophe. But 'Knowledge' and 'Good Deeds' are the only friends who can avail him anything; and after being led to 'confession' and 'penance,' the last long journey to the grave is taken. 'Knowledge' remains with him to the last, and 'Good Deeds' ascends with him to heaven to intercede for his soul. In the representation, the passage of this solitary figure through the audience from the one stage to the other is so pathetic as to be almost painful. The epilogue, spoken by a doctor in order to point the moral, comes almost as a jarring note."

MME. SARAH BERNHARDT ON THE MORAL INFLUENCE OF THE THEATER.

THE editor of the *Cornhill* is to be congratulated upon having achieved well-nigh the impossible in inducing Sarah Bernhardt to write an article for his magazine. In beginning her plea, Mme. Bernhardt says:

"I have often heard people deny the moral influence of the theater, but I find it undeniable. This influence has existed from all time, and never, in my opinion, has it been anything but beneficial. Beneficial it must always be to see the evolution of the human soul, and the more intelligently this evolution of the human soul is shown, the more effectual is the lesson drawn by those privileged to witness it.

"We all know that a single illustration is worth more than a hundred axioms, and if only from this point of view, the theater is a potent school of morality; and the awakening of sympathy by seeing the drama of the lives of others prevents the stultification arising from a self-centered life.

WHAT IS THE THEATER?

"The theater is the temple of all the arts which beautify life, and it is in this that its power lies. For whereas a library, a picture gallery, or a concert hall, each enthroning its respective art, has each its particular admirers, the theater, by the service of literature, the fine arts, and music, has a stronger claim upon human sympathy, and thus obtains a wider hearing.

"To me, the theater seems like a kaleidoscope whose moving facets show an attentive public the baseness, the crimes, the vices, the weakness of humanity, the faults of civilization, and the absurdities of society. And it is this same movement, which while showing the evil shows the

cause of the evil, that is such a fascinating feature of the theater. Thus the spectator, being brought face to face with his conscience, profits by the lesson given, and such spectators can be numbered by thousands."

Mme. Bernhardt quotes Victor Hugo's remark on the theater: "Never should the people leave the theater without taking away with them some profound moral lesson." There are few who will quarrel with this saying, and Mme. Bernhardt cordially indorses it.

THE THEATER A NECESSITY.

"The theater is a necessity,—it has existed from all time under different aspects. As all souls feel the need of praying to God or to a god, so all minds need an expression of their dreams, legends, and past history. We have to go very far back to find in antiquity the first vestiges of the theater, for even amid savage folk we see the need of expression.

"Do not, however, think that I mean that the teaching of the theater is superior to the teaching of classes and books; no,—I simply mean that the dramatic art is the supplement of history and philosophy, and it is a powerful aid to the development of the love of the good and the beautiful to which history and philosophy introduce us.

"The theater has been instructive from all time, and it is ever the scene of progress, revolutionary, artistic, and poetic.

"The theater is the most direct and simple medium of fresh ideas on philosophy, morality, religion, and society.

"Then it is not to dramatic art that we owe the revelation to the public of characters who would otherwise have remained hidden in the musty archives of history?

"Shakespeare, Victor Hugo, Alexandre Dumas, *père*, have all resuscitated heroes whose past existence would only have been made known to us by a few hasty lines."

SHOULD WE HAVE RELIGIOUS PLAYS?

Decidedly, yes! At least, that is the opinion of the writer. She says on this subject:

"There are people, moreover, who maintain that religious things should not be put upon the

stage. Oh, what a mistake! And how fortunate it is that great minds have not been arrested by the false ideas of the narrow-minded! Nothing is more propagative than the theater. It is the reflection of the ideas of a nation. It marches incessantly to the conquest of the true and the beautiful! Sometimes it goes too quickly. It has hoped too much from the minds and hearts of the public. The time has not arrived, and then retrogression is necessary, and it was thus with the religious question in the theater scarcely twenty years ago."

Speaking of the effect of the production of Rostand's "*La Samaritaine*," she writes:

"The day of its first representation was a day of emotion never to be forgotten. Christian love filled the hall with infinitely pure joy, beneficent tears flowed; I felt myself transported into another world, for I uttered beautiful words, and my heart beat with those of others. I wept tears, real tears, tears that wash away and efface forever the stains on our souls and our lives—too long, alas! for the evil we have done, and too short for the good we would wish to do.

"Of course, such a piece could not be represented on the stage without being met with objections. But I remained true to the idea of the moral influence of the stage, and what could be more moral than the lesson seen in the story of the Samaritan and our Lord?"

WHICH NATION LOVES THE THEATER MOST?

With regard to the way in which the various nations love the theater, Mme. Bernhardt finds that "All young and vigorous races love it. Look at young America—she adores the theater, and the theater loves her." "The English people, this race of strength and reserve, they also love the theater, and they take it very much *au sérieux*." "The Spanish, French, and Italians do not take the theater seriously enough. Personally, I like the Spanish, but I cannot say that they take a *serious* interest in the theater," and "the French seem to like going to the theater merely to amuse themselves, if it is not a question of going elsewhere. They go to see each other, to admire the actors, to see the dresses, to chat with their friends, but as to a real passion for the theater, they are destitute of it."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

PROF. THOMAS H. MORGAN writes on "Darwinism in the Light of Modern Criticism" in the February *Harper's*, and cites several important instances where observation and investigation have recently led scientists to qualify the principle of natural selection. The most important instance, perhaps, is the work of Hugo De Vries, of Amsterdam, who has been experimenting with the variation and evolution of plants. De Vries found an introduced plant that had begun to vary to an extraordinary degree. The new species among these new forms were transplanted to an experimental garden, where the flowers of each were artificially self-fertilized, and the seeds planted the next year. No less than seven new forms appeared among the plants reared from a single species. The majority of the seeds have produced plants like the parent form, but among these there were a number of individuals of a new species. By rearing plants from the self-fertilized seeds of these new species, it was found that they appeared true to their kind. Thus, the new species have sprung full-armed and complete from the old one, like Minerva from the head of Jove. Professor Morgan cites other instances among animals, such as the peacock, to show that natural selection cannot account for some of the most strikingly useful characteristics possessed by many organisms.

GREELEY, A "DECREED" TOWN.

In "A Study of a 'Decreed' Town," Dr. Richard T. Ely gives an account of the town of Greeley, the town founded in Weld County, Colorado, in 1870, from the inspiration of Nathan C. Meeker, who was at that time associated with Horace Greeley on the *New York Tribune*. The aim of the community was to establish a colony in the West which should, through coöperation and carefully thought out plans, afford all who might participate in the movement substantially equal opportunities for improvement of their own individual resources, while at the same time enabling them to provide themselves with the advantages of long-established communities. Horace Greeley gave his sympathy and support to the plan, and at the present time between three thousand and four thousand people live in Greeley. Dr. Ely says a large proportion of them have an adequate supply of wealth for the satisfaction of all rational economic wants, while a considerable number are wealthy. Substantially all of this wealth came into existence since 1870, and it has come directly and indirectly from agriculture. Dr. Ely thinks it a remarkable feature of Greeley that they have prohibition which actually prohibits. This is a part of the original plan. Only temperance people were invited in the beginning to join the community. In all deeds, it is provided that land shall be forfeited if in any way it is connected with the traffic in intoxicating beverages.

THE LITERARY AGE OF BOSTON.

Prof. George E. Woodberry writes on "The Literary Age of Boston," which he places before the Civil War. To Emerson, of course, he gives the foremost place. He ascribes much of the phenomenal intellectual and spir-

itual strength of the group which included Emerson, Holmes, Whittier, Lowell, Longfellow, and Hawthorne to Unitarianism; "its direct and indirect obligation to Harvard College, though but partially set forth, is obviously great, and just as clearly was due to the old humanities as there taught. In forty years we have drifted farther, perhaps, than any of us have thought from the conditions and influences that gave our country so large a part of its literary distinction."

In this number, Mr. Thomas A. Janvier begins an historical serial, "The Dutch Founding of New York," and another notable feature is the first part of a new story by Maurice Hewlett, "Buondelmonte."

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

MR. HENRY LOOMIS NELSON has a very plain-spoken article in the February *Century* on "The Overshadowing Senate." He calls to our attention that the assertion of power by the Senate to hold up and dictate appointments and bargain for legislation is very recent; that it is only a little more than twenty years since Mr. Conkling and Mr. Platt resigned their seats in the Senate because Mr. Garfield insisted on appointing to federal offices in New York men who were distasteful to these two "ambassadors." But at present the Senatorial claims on patronage make that body indeed overshadowing. Mr. Nelson says that the rule of the "courtesy of the Senate" has permitted the construction of the most perfectly developed trust or trade-union in the country, and that there is hardly any existing combination which is more inimical to the general welfare than the Senate union has sometimes been, and may easily be again. Mr. Nelson proceeds: "The country would be astonished if it could know the extent of this proprietorship. The Senate's power of confirmation places not only the President, but the whole civil service outside of the classified list, under tribute." In the matter of treaty-making, it, the Senate, often courts, according to Mr. Nelson, the anti-foreign sentiment, and usually consults this or that "vote" instead of the general welfare. Over and above this overshadowing quality of the Senate, which Mr. Nelson regards as so ominous, he thinks it is unquestionably an evil that men who have no talent for public life should attain to its highest honors merely because they are rich.

CAN WE RESTORE THE BIBLE?

Mr. Rollo Ogden, in writing of "The Literary Loss of the Bible," while assuming that we have actually as a people lost the Bible as a literary model through its disuse, and while he does not depreciate the extent of the loss, makes the claim that none of the half-dozen English styles which have stood out in the past half-century were derived clearly from the Bible. Examining Ruskin's style, he contends that Hooker, rather than the Bible, is to be credited as the model of the author of "Sesame and Lilies." Mr. Ogden does not believe that the English Bible can be restored to its old place as a nursery of thought and style by making it a part of literary discipline. Later and college studies cannot give what must be drawn in almost with mother's milk.

The *Century* begins this month with an account of "The Aurora Borealis," as observed by Frank W. Stokes in Smith Sound and other Greenland waters, and the description is given striking life by the reproduction in vivid colors of the writer's paintings of these Arctic phenomena.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

PROF. JOHN FINLEY, of Princeton University, writes in the February *Scribner's* of his visit to "The Isle of Pines," the curious bit of earth lying some hundred miles south of Havana. The Americans on the island are strongly urging its annexation to the United States. They have preëmpted a good portion of the forest land and productive plains, and have begun the planting of oranges, bananas, and pineapples, in anticipation of the day when their lumber and fruit may be shipped without duty to other ports. "They urge that it is the only tropical territory within the American system not only climatically adapted, but unreservedly open, to American colonization. From the point of view of its strategic value, it can easily be made impregnable, and it lies on one of the paths to and from Panama and Nicaragua." Professor Finley thinks it not yet decided whether the water of the harbors is deep enough to shelter the great war vessels.

In an essay on "The Presidential Office," Mr. James Ford Rhodes calls for more moderation and consideration in public criticism of the President's acts. He gives many facts to show that the Presidency of the United States is an exceedingly difficult place to fill. He calls our attention to the contrast between the savage criticism of Cleveland and Harrison while each occupied the Presidential chair and the respect each enjoyed from political opponents after retiring to private life. Mr. Rhodes thinks the Presidential office has well justified the hopes of its creators, and that the dangers described by Hamilton in the *Federalist* have not been realized.

The number opens with a descriptive article of interest to art lovers, "Picturesque Milan," by Edith Wharton, illustrated by Peixotto; one of Mr. James B. Connolly's capital salt-water sketches is given in "Running to Harbor," and there is another installment of the very readable letters of Mrs. Mary King Wadlington describing "English Court and Society" from 1898 to 1900.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

THE February *McClure's* contains several interesting and timely articles which we have quoted from in another department: Mr. Francis H. Nichols' "Children of the Coal Shadow," Capt. Robert E. Peary's "The Last Years of Arctic Work," and Dr. George G. Hopkins' "The Finsen System in America."

Miss Ida M. Tarbell's notable history of the Standard Oil Company is continued in chapter four, which gives the story of Mr. John D. Rockefeller's second attempt to bring about a combination to control the whole oil business. Miss Tarbell's account is the first complete one of events that have never been entirely revealed, even in the numerous federal and State investigations of the company. The years 1873 and 1874 saw the rise and fall of the National Refiners' Association, which Mr. Rockefeller and his associates had established in an attempt to get all of the refining interests together.

But while the leading spirit in oil-refining was being thwarted for the present in his larger ambitions, he was developing his own great refining interests with extraordinary ability. For the first time, great barrel factories were built by the refinery itself, cutting down one of the heaviest expenses. Mr. Rockefeller bought tank cars, so as to be independent of the railroad allotments. He gained control of terminal facilities in New York, put his plants into the most perfect condition, introduced every improving process which would cheapen his manufacturing by the smallest fraction of a cent, and diligently hunted methods to get a larger profit from the crude oil.

This number begins with an account by Mr. Will H. Low of "The Fathers of Art in America," being descriptive and biographical notes on Smybert, West, Copley, the two Peales, Trumbull, and Stuart. Of these, Mr. Low tells us that by far the greatest was Gilbert Stuart. There is a group of articles on "The Surgery of Light," dealing from different points of view with Dr. Finsen's healing rays, and stories by Florence Wilkinson, Samuel Hopkins Adams, and others.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

WE have quoted in another department from the sketch of Senator William Andrews Clark, by Henry R. Knapp, in the February *Cosmopolitan*. Mr. Elbert Hubbard contributes "Leo Tolstoy: An Interpretation Done in Little." Mr. Hubbard's interpretation is largely occupied in discussing the relations between Count Tolstoy and the countess, and he does not leave us with a very pleasant idea of this lady. His idea of the situation is that the countess' persistent pursuit of pleasure, according to the manners of her class, "has acted on the count by antithesis, and he has no doubt swung out much further than he otherwise would had he not been irritated by forced association with a manner and life that were distasteful." Thus, Mr. Hubbard agrees with the observation of the writer who said that Tolstoy went barefoot because his countess wore high heels.

In the chapter, this month, of Viscount Wolseley's history of "The Young Napoleon," which is being published in the *Cosmopolitan*, Bonaparte is described as being a man of very strong animal passions, who had never known the meaning of love before he met Josephine de Beauharnais, when dining with Barras. Viscount Wolseley emphasizes the effect on Napoleon of this first acquaintance with a well-bred lady.

A brief sketch of Henry M. Whitney among the "Captains of Industry" gives some striking facts about the facilities of Mr. Whitney's industrial establishment at Sydney, Cape Breton, in competing with the coal and steel production of the United States. These Canadian factories are 1,228 miles nearer Liverpool than Pittsburgh, 1,050 miles nearer Gibraltar and the Mediterranean, 757 miles nearer Cape Town,—in fact, even nearer Cape Town than Liverpool. What seems even more startling is that Sydney, Cape Breton, is actually nearer every South American port, from Pernambuco down, than any other shipping point on the American seaboard. Sydney has raw materials for steel at hand in tremendous quantities, and Cape Breton counts herself, in her unmined wealth of coal and iron, to be where England was two centuries ago, and "dares to foresee for herself no less a future."

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

A BRIEF sketch of Mr. Reed Smoot, the Mormon apostle and United States Senator-elect from Utah, is given in the February *Frank Leslie's*. Mr. Smoot has been one of the twelve apostles of the Mormon Church ("the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints") since 1900. He is still, however, a man of affairs, and is interested on an important scale in the banks, mines, and manufacturing plants of his community. He has been a straight Republican since 1888, and represents the younger body in Mormon politics. He is described as a tall, well-preserved, vigorous man of forty-one, a good public speaker, and having a personal record very different from that of Roberts. Mr. Smoot is the husband of one wife only, and his family of six children is free from the cruel misfortune of a divided house.

THE DOUKHOBORS AND THEIR PILGRIMAGE.

There is an excellent account by Mr. John Ridington of "The Crusade of the Doukhobors," the fanatical society which immigrated from Russia to the Northwest Territory some two years ago, and which has more recently gone on more crusades, inspired by their belief in the return of Christ to the earth. Mr. Ridington spent some weeks with the Doukhobors, and was with them on their memorable pilgrimage. He says the men are magnificent specimens of humanity,—tall, deep-chested, massive,—slow of movement and of speech. Their attire is as characteristic as their religion. The coats have wide, flaring skirts, and heavy black-felted cloaks, reaching almost to the feet, protected them from rain or cold. Many of them wore on their feet a sort of moccasin made at home from binder's twine. The physique of the women was much inferior. They were generally short and shapeless, with flat, expressionless faces, and dressed in startling colors.

A GREAT POWER DAM ON THE HUDSON.

Mr. Charles E. Parsons, the well-known engineer, describes what he says is the greatest power dam in the world,—the structure being built across the Hudson River, about eight miles above Glens Falls, to furnish power and light for the 900,000 people living in the country around within a radius of 56 miles, which would include such towns as Albany, Troy, Schenectady, Glens Falls, and Saratoga. The Hudson at this point flows 10 miles an hour, and Mr. Parsons is stopping it with a wall 80 feet high, which will back the water for 5 miles. The dam will be finished early next spring, and will be 1,400 feet long, the greatest height 154 feet, and the width across the top 17 feet. There is no other power dam in the world barring so mighty and powerful a river. The plant will reach a capacity of 50,000 horse-power during eight months of the year when the river is high, and never less than 20,000.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

WE have quoted in another department from Mr. George Iles' sketch of Herbert Spencer in the February *World's Work*. Mr. Sylvester Baxter describes in this number the experiment of the Boston & Maine Railroad in undertaking the construction and operation of a trolley line in connection with its steam system. This trolley runs from Concord to Manchester, N. H., using water power from the Merrimac River. It is unlike all other street railways, in the adoption of steam-railway practice. It bears the same relation to

the entire system of the company that any other branch or division does, although at the same time it is a street railway in every essential. Thus, this trolley road is possessed of a roadbed ballasted as thoroughly as the best of the steam railways, doing away with one serious objection to trolley travel.

In an article entitled "What Can We Learn from German Business Methods," Mr. Louis J. Magee says that Teutonic banking or industrial corporation work is characterized by frugality, hard labor, great energy, and discipline, side by side with wastefulness, disorder, lack of interest, and bureaucratic red tape.

There is a very pleasant little description, in "The Work of a Japanese Craftsman," by Herbert G. Ponting, of a workshop in Kyoto producing marvelous Cloisonné ware. The writer makes a most attractive picture of Namikawa, the thorough artisan, who, with his workmen, spends, sometimes, years on a single vase. These masterpieces range in price in Japan from \$25 to \$750, and would in America command more than their weight in gold.

CUBAN TOBACCO GROWN IN THIS COUNTRY.

Mr. Marion Wilcox writes on "Growing Cuban Tobacco in the United States," and tells of successful experiments in producing Cuban leaf in Texas and Ohio. The process of growing fine tobacco involves intensive cultivation in a high degree, and the whole family can expend all its labor on a very small plot indeed. The Cubans have been preëminent so far in the production of fine cigars, and the Department of Agriculture at Washington is anxious to learn whether our planters cannot secure quality as well as quantity. If the experiments in Texas and Ohio are successful, it will be a great thing for those communities, for it is customary to say that the Vuelta Abajo lands are not for sale at any price.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR T. HADLEY, of Yale University, has in the February *Atlantic* the first of an important series of articles on "Academic Freedom, in Theory and in Practice." We have quoted from President Hadley in another department.

George W. Alger begins the number with a discussion of "The Sensational Journalism and the Law." Mr. Alger deals largely with the relations of the sensational newspapers to criminal trials which are exciting the public interest. He points out that it has got to the point where a New York daily newspaper actually paid large sums of money in a great poisoning case to induce persons to make affidavits incriminating the defendant on trial. He says, too, that these efforts receive aid from prosecuting officers, who have an itch for notoriety. Mr. Alger thinks that such journals not only have a pernicious influence on the courts of justice, but that they often actually make fair play an impossibility. It takes days and weeks to find a jury in whose minds the case has not already been "tried by newspaper." "When the public feeling in a community is such that it will be impossible for a party to an action to obtain an unprejudiced jury, a change of venue is allowed to some other county, where the state of the public mind is more judicial. It is a significant fact that nearly all applications for such change in the place of trial from New York City have for many years been based mainly upon complaints of the inflammatory zeal of the sensational press."

DR. FLINDERS PETRIE'S DISCOVERIES.

A very interesting archeological essay by Mr. H. D. Rawnsley, "With the Pre-Dynastic Kings, and the Kings of the First Three Dynasties at Abydos," gives an account of the net results of Dr. Flinders Petrie's wonderful discoveries. These discoveries have actually enabled us to know the manners and habits, the amusements and life-work, of the people, and the funeral customs of the King Ka, who lived about 4900 B.C. Further than this, we can get some idea of the pre-historic race which went before the pre-dynastic kings, who used the same palettes for eye paint, drank from the same alabaster drinking-cups, washed hands with the same diorite wash-bowls, cut their meat with the same flint knives, and hoed their fields with the same flint hoes. There are now known to exist seventy-five to seventy-nine pre-historic seals of sequence dates which overlap the time of the pre-dynastic kings, and thus for the first time it has been established that the history of the Valley of the Nile runs forward from the furthest past without a break.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

SEVERAL of the articles in the *North American* for January deal with important topics of the day. Two of these—"Shall We Reduce the Iron and Steel Tariff?" and "Why the Army Canteen Should Be Restored"—have been reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."

Justice W. J. Gaynor, of the New York Supreme Court, protests against the "Lawlessness of the Police in New York," as manifested especially in the practice of making arrests without warrant, in the "raiding" of private houses, in the wholesale arrests of registered voters at elections, and in the prevalent notion that "the police may trample on the law regulating their conduct in order to make other people observe the law regulating theirs."

GREATER GERMANY IN SOUTH AMERICA.

Mr. Stephen Bonsal tells the story of German colonization in southern Brazil—a movement aided by the Brazilian Government itself, or at least at the expense of that government, and entirely without encouragement from the government at Berlin. The so-called German settlers within the territory in question (who really include many Swiss, Austrians, and Poles) are said to number about four hundred thousand. Mr. Bonsal remarks that the settlement of these great Teutonic colonies should not especially alarm the United States when we recall the fact that the Rio Grande of the South and the Bay of São Francisco are twice as distant from our shores as are the banks of the Elbe and the Weser, from which these settlers come. He adds that he has never met an Englishman, a European, or an American domiciled in South America who regarded the pacific development of Germany in southern Brazil with feelings of hostility.

THE WORK OF PRESIDENT DIAZ.

Mr. Charles Johnston, writing on the achievements of President Diaz, of Mexico, divides the career of that popular leader into two distinct periods, each of about a quarter-century in length. In the first, Diaz figured as a warrior and emancipator of his people; in the second, as an administrator, building up the wealth and well-being of Mexico "in a way unrivaled in the life of

nations, giving new life alike to commerce, enterprise, education, and all the means and methods of civilized life." His boast now is that he has given to his country all the instruments and safeguards of freedom: free education, free ballot, free press, and an honest and progressive government.

EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH.

In concluding a highly eulogistic article on the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria, Mr. Sydney Brooks says:

"It was once said of Sir Robert Peel that he was qualified to take any post in the government. The same, or nearly the same, might have been said of President Harrison. Of Francis Joseph, it is the bare truth, so completely have his unflagging interest and energy mastered the outlines and even the details of the big departments of state. He never parades his knowledge, as his ally the German Emperor is apt to do, but it is always there when wanted. His is at bottom a very simple character, sympathetic, frank, unobtrusive, dependable."

THE RIGHT OF THE CHILD.

Mrs. Ida Husted Harper makes an able plea for the limiting of families, even in the case of the well-to-do. She says:

"The immense reproduction of the lower classes is unavoidable; and, instead of trying to outnumber them, the better classes can more effectively serve society by having smaller families themselves, and applying the surplus parental affection and care, and the surplus time and money, toward fitting those unfortunates for respectable and useful lives. Over one-fourth of our entire population now is composed of children of school age, and there is not a large city in the United States which has sufficient accommodations to give a full day's tuition to all those who wish it."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mark Twain gives the second installment of his inquiry into the principles of Christian Science, which can be better reviewed after the publication of the entire series of papers is concluded. "Anglo-Indian" writes on "Lord Curzon's Services to India," the Duke of Litta-Visconti-Arese on "Agrarian Reform in Italy," and Prof. W. J. Ashley on "The Universities and Commercial Education."

The editor of the *North American* makes a new departure at the beginning of the year by publishing in monthly parts a novel by Henry James—"The Ambassadors," with an introduction by Mr. William Dean Howells.

THE ARENA.

THE January number of the *Arena* contains five papers on the coal strike of 1902 and its lessons, written by Prof. Frank Parsons, the Hon. George Fred Williams, Eltweed Pomeroy, Bolton Hall, and Ernest Howard Crosby. These writers, while differing on minor points, are in full agreement in denouncing the system of private ownership as applied to coal mines.

Mr. Crosby quotes the late Abram S. Hewitt as saying, in 1884, concerning the life of the miners:

"When I saw that men who worked a whole day away from the light of heaven, and who took their lives in their hands every time they entered the pit, are housed in hovels such as the lordly owners of the mines would refuse to stable their cattle in, then I felt that

something was wrong in the condition of the American laborer."

A PROFIT-SHARING EXPERIMENT.

The profit-sharing scheme now in operation at the great optical manufacturing works of the "Zeiss Foundation," at Jena, is described by Leopold Katscher. Some years ago, the board of directors of the optical workshops resolved to make to the body of workmen and officials of the business under their authority additional payments in proportion to their wages, as a share in the profits, and that to the amount of 8 per cent. This was first done for the business year expiring in the autumn of 1896.

"On the introduction of profit-sharing, the following principles were acted upon in the optical workshops in calculating the shares to be granted to the staff: Of the yearly profit shown by the balance sheet, which according to the resolutions of the statute is to be reckoned without regard to the amount of business capital, in percentage of the sum total of the wages and salaries, the first 9 per cent. is deducted beforehand for the reserve fund, and then 7 per cent. as the estimated reserve necessary for future pension liabilities, and 2 per cent. as a cover for the dismissal indemnities to be paid in the future. In case the remaining net profit does not exceed 20 per cent. of the wage and salary account, it falls to the Foundation as a super-profit; but if the whole profit exceeds the amount of 20 per cent. of the wage and salary account, one-half of the surplus is divided, in the manner described above, among the officials and workmen. These claims count as legal, although the duty of submitting the accounts and books to the staff is in no wise formally acknowledged."

THE INTERNATIONAL QUARTERLY.

THE current issue of the dignified review now known by this title and published, under the editorship of Mr. Frederick A. Richardson, at Burlington, Vt., contains many valuable articles contributed by American and foreign writers of repute.

M. Gustave Geffroy's appreciation of "Emile Zola: His Literary and Social Position," is quite as authoritative as any review of Zola's career that has appeared since his death. It is a discriminating tribute, written by a man who was not only a literary associate of Zola's, but was in the fullest possession of the facts regarding the novelist's ascendancy in Parisian life.

THE AMERICAN WORKINGMAN AND HIS FRENCH BROTHER.

According to André and Jules Siegfried, who write on "The American Workman and the French," the principal point of difference between the two is disclosed when we get an answer to the question, "What do they do with their money?"

"The Frenchman saves while the American spends. If money is wanting, the Frenchman will prefer to reduce his way of living so as not to be obliged to work more; the American will work more so as not to cut down his way of living. This is the natural expression of the situation in old countries as opposed to new countries. In the new countries, the people like a large way of living; they will know nothing of privation; they quickly acquire the habit of never doing without, and of gratifying their every whim."

OTHER ARTICLES.

The following is a list of the remaining contents: "How Soldiers Have Ruled in the Philippines," Capt. D. H. Boughton, Third United States Cavalry; "Why Criminals of Genius Have No Type," Cesare Lombroso; "The Spanish Drama," Brander Matthews; "Taine and Renan," Alfred Fouillée; "Faith in Nature," N. S. Shaler; "Ethnology and the Science of Religion," Ths. Achelis; "The Beginnings of Mind," C. Lloyd Morgan; "Duchess Amalia of Weimar," Benjamin W. Wells; "Home Rule for American Cities," Ellis P. Oberholtzer; "National Antagonisms, an Illusion," Jacques Novicow; "The Recent American Architecture," Russell Sturgis; "The Quarterly Chronicle," Joseph B. Bishop.

THE FORUM.

SINCE the *Forum* has become a quarterly it has consistently pursued its announced policy of publishing *résumés* of the progress made in the various departments of human activity, from quarter to quarter, in place of the contributions on general topics that formerly appeared in the monthly issues. These *chroniques* are very well done, and appear regularly from the same pens in successive issues. Obviously, they do not readily lend themselves to the system followed in this department of "The Periodicals Reviewed." There are, however, two "special articles" in the current number—one on the subject of "Waterways: An Economic Necessity," by Prof. Lewis M. Haupt, and another on "The Passing of the American Indian," by Thomas F. Millard—which deserve notice.

CHEAPNESS OF CANAL TRANSPORTATION.

Professor Haupt expresses surprise that the economies of waterways have not been taken advantage of by our railroad managers and legislators. We once had something of a canal system in this country, but we have permitted it to become obsolete and practically useless.

"One by one, these earlier avenues of communication have been absorbed and abandoned; and yet statistics show that the cost of transportation by these artificial channels is about one-third only of that by rail, while by open water it is still lower. A nation that ignores an economy of 66 per cent. in transportation is wasting its resources and imposing onerous burdens upon its people. The possibilities of this country are magnificent; and yet but few of them have been developed, and in these cases the work has been done largely by private corporations or local interests. The Erie Canal still exists, a monument to the enterprise of the Empire State, of which it has ever been the backbone; but it is becoming too weak to bear the greatly increased tonnage, and must be strengthened and enlarged, unless it is desired to divert the traffic to the down-grade route through Canada."

ELIMINATION OF THE TRIBAL INDIAN.

Mr. Millard directs attention to the fact that the Indian, as such, has practically lost his identity among us. Within another year, he will have disappeared from the face of the earth, so far as his tribal relations are concerned. Henceforth, American Indians will cease to have any form of national organization. Mr. Millard refers, of course, to the so-called civilized tribes

in the Indian Territory, which now number about eighty-five thousand people and represent the "tangible remnant" of the North American aborigines, although there are many minor tribes which have lost all semblance of tribal autonomy.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CAPT. STEWART L. MURRAY has a paper in the *Nineteenth Century* for January on "The Price of Food in Our Next Great War." He calculates that in the event of a European war there will be 7,000,000 persons in Great Britain whose incomes are so low that the rise in the price of food will be such as to leave them starving, and there are probably 3,000,000 more who will be brought to the same state owing to the closing of factories and workshops. A vast organization of relief will be required, an organization so vast that unless it is carefully prepared beforehand it is bound to break down. The stoppage of trade owing to the lack of raw material and the closing of markets will depend largely upon the number of cruisers available at the outset of the war. At present, there are not enough cruisers. Measures must be taken in advance toward limiting the rise in prices inevitable in time of war. All steamers under twelve knots' speed will be laid up in port owing to danger of capture, and that means the loss of three-quarters of England's raw material. Captain Murray concludes by urging the necessity for a government inquiry.

THE ABYSSINIAN QUESTION.

Mr. George F. H. Berkeley sketches the history of Abyssinia in modern times. He says:

"The French hope to establish a line of trade through Abyssinia across Africa from east to west, in opposition to our Cape to Cairo railway from north to south. In this they have already achieved some success. They have settled themselves along the Gulf of Tadjoura, on the south of which they hold the magnificent Bay of Djibouti, while on the north their flag waves over the small port of Obok. But their real triumph in these regions has been the establishment of a lasting friendship with Abyssinia by judicious consignments of arms and ammunition—which were used against Italy in the war of 1896. Finally, they are now in the act of building a French railway from Djibouti to Addis Abeba, the capital of Abyssinia. This railway will completely cut out the British port of Zeila, for in the concession granted by Menelik it is stipulated that no company is to be permitted to construct a railroad on Abyssinian territory that shall enter into competition with that of M. Ilg and M. Chefneux."

Mr. Berkeley has a high opinion of recent Abyssinian rulers. Theodore, John, and Menelik all were great warriors and capable statesmen. He thinks that Menelik has so far consolidated his empire that it will probably remain united after his death. Menelik regards Great Britain as a powerful and aggressive neighbor, and he is on much better terms with the French.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Harold Gorst concludes his history of the fourth party. Ali Haydar Midhat writes on English and Russian politics in the East, with special reference to Midhat Pasha and his constitution. Mr. J. W. Cross contributes a paper on "Our Financial Future."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THERE are many interesting articles in the January number of the *Contemporary*, one or two of which have been dealt with separately.

JAMES MARTINEAU.

Characteristically, the year is opened with a theological article on James Martineau by Dr. Fairbairn. Martineau is said to have been made by his blended Huguenot and Puritan ancestry, and the influences of Channing, Emerson, Theodore Parker, and Schleiermacher. His significance is said to be philosophical rather than theological. "It is largely owing to him that our age was not swept off its feet by the rising tide of materialistic and pseudo-scientific speculation." Dr. Fairbairn writes "as a pupil and as a distant admirer," and claims that Martineau did in England something of the same work that Schleiermacher achieved in Germany.

THE DUEL BETWEEN SLAV AND TEUTON.

"Quidam" writes on the coming struggle between Slav and Teuton, which he considers inevitable. The headship of Europe is at stake, and is likely to fall to the power that secures Constantinople. The writer calls attention to the Russian designs on the Slavonic provinces of Germany and Austria, and on Turkey, and to Germany's manifest desire to secure the friendship of the Sultan, and eventually his dominions in Asia Minor. Pobiedonostzoff is described as the leading statesman of Russia, who means to Russianize the world. His personality has given unity to the policy of the Russian foreign office under many different ministers. The writer's conclusion is that "as the Teutonic and the Slavonic elements of Europe, with their allies and possible allies, are about equally strong, Great Britain can well afford to leave the settlement of the Eastern question in the hands of the Continental nations, which are most directly interested in it. In fact, Slav and Teuton, with their following, are so well matched that both must avoid serious entanglements with third nations, lest the other should raise the Eastern question. If Great Britain keeps aloof from both camps, neither Russia nor Germany will be able to disturb the peaceful development of the British Empire, and in the struggle between Slav and Teuton Great Britain will become the balance-holder, and will enjoy all the advantages springing from that position. . . . The question of Constantinople is of no immediate interest to Great Britain."

STUDIES OF ROYALTY.

Under the title of "Kings and Queens," Mlle. Hélène Vacaresco contributes one of the most interesting articles of the new year. It is very seldom that any one who has known kings and queens so intimately as Mlle. Vacaresco has the capacity or the will to write of them with freedom and philosophy in the way she does. The soul of the article is not in its anecdotes, but rather in its subtle speculation as to the effect of the etiquette of courts upon the princes and princesses who form the center of the pageant of royalty.

She has come to the conclusion that sovereigns would be the most wretched creatures under the sun were they deprived, not only of their moral rights, their scepters and crowns, but also of all small and great attributes of their exalted position. They enjoy, no doubt, occasionally masquerading *incognito*, but the anomaly

pleases them only because they are perfectly certain that they are only playing a part, and can resume at will their interrupted task and hide themselves in the distant haze of pomp and misery.

BROWNING UNDER FIRE.

Mr. Philip Wicksteed contributes a study of Robert Browning which, in spite of much cordial appreciation of the poet's worth, will be remembered chiefly for its onslaught on Browning's accuracy. He speaks of the poet's "indifference to fact." He "cares less than other poets even for facts of nature." "Combined indefiniteness of statement and neglect of fact is habitual with Browning." The same habit appears in Browning's "contempt for historical facts." "Sordello" is pronounced "one huge anachronism." After alluding to Browning's extraordinary breadth of sympathy, which makes us conceive ourselves capable of the greatest heights and lowest depths of human possibilities, the writer declares there is often moral exaltation, but seldom ethical enthusiasm, or even sound moral indignation, in Browning's work. There is even "absence of anything approaching to social enthusiasm. There is no resentment of social wrong, no vision of the kingdom of heaven on earth."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

WRITING in the *Fortnightly* for January, Mr. Ernest Newman prophesies great things concerning Richard Strauss, who, he says, is the creator of a new order of things in music and the founder of a new type of art. The real Strauss is only to be seen in his later works. Mr. Newman says:

"Tschaiakowsky brought the last new shudder into music, Strauss has endowed it with a new simplicity. It is this, indeed, that makes him Strauss; for, paradoxical as it may seem, this builder of colossal tone-poems, this wielder of the mightiest orchestral language ever yet spoken, this Mad Mullah of harmony, is what he is because he has dared to throw over almost all the conventions that have clustered round the art in the last two hundred years. He is complex because he is simple; he appears so terribly artificial because he is absolutely natural; he is called sophisticated because he casts aside all artifice and speaks like the natural musical man."

THE NEW ORDEAL OF THE COMMONS.

Mr. T. H. S. Escott glances backward over the history of Parliament, and records the way in which the House of Commons has triumphed over its various enemies; and then discusses the question whether it is now destined to succumb to the encroachments of the present ministerial majority. The struggle through which it is now passing is proving a severer trial to the House than any of its earlier conflicts.

"Whatever, in the seventeenth century, on the part of the apostates to the king was denounced as arrogant and tyrannical by the managers of the House is, one hears, tamely borne at the hands of the two despots now controlling St. Stephen's—Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain."

THE DECAY OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN ELEPHANT.

Mr. H. A. Bryden writes a brief paper upon what he calls "The Long Tragedy of Extermination." The story of the downfall of the South African elephant is replete

with life, movement, and excitement. For two hundred and fifty years the mightiest of mammals has been pursued with unrelenting vigor. Until two hundred and fifty years ago, he had held his own with ease against assailants who had no firearms; since then he has been hunted down with such severity that elephants have practically ceased to exist south of the Zambesi. There are two or three protected herds near the south coast of Cape Colony. There is one troop in Khama's country, and a few elephants still maintain a precarious existence in Rhodesia. These are the sole remnants of the innumerable herds that sixty or seventy years ago roamed in freedom over the African interior.

THEATRICAL SUBVENTIONS.

Mr. William Archer writes on "The Rise of Theatrical Subventions." The three great provincial cities of France—Lyons, Marseilles, and Bordeaux—built great theaters in the eighteenth century and let them to managers who failed. The rent gradually fell, until it vanished altogether at the beginning of the nineteenth century. But even when the theater is granted free, the managers cannot make it pay, so the era of subsidies began. In Marseilles, the theatrical subvention is \$54,000 a year; in Bordeaux, \$21,600; in Lyons, about \$12,500. The chief cause of this necessity for heavy subsidies is the great expense entailed by the production of opera. The municipal dramatic theater in Lyons, instead of receiving a subsidy, pays a rent of \$5,000 a year to the city. In Germany, the towns are splendidly supplied with theaters, which keep in view a moderately high artistic ideal.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THE longest and, in some respects, the weightiest article in the *National Review* for January is that which Sir H. D. le Marchant, late chairman of the East and West India Dock Company, contributes on the subject of the Port of London. It is a vigorous plea for the dock companies and a protest against the expropriation on the part of the public authorities. The dock companies put forward as an alternative a suggestion that there should be one supreme port authority for controlling the waterways, but that the dock companies should continue to exist with mandatory powers of raising revenue,—that is to say, with liberty to raise rates. In return, they would accept a limitation of dividend, be willing to accept the jurisdiction of the railway commissioners, and undertake to provide the requisite accommodation.

IS ENGLAND IN DANGER OF WAR?

Mr. J. E. B. Seely, writing on "The Cause of European Peace," echoes M. Bloch's familiar thesis that the improvement in firearms and the introduction of smokeless powder render war practically impossible in Europe. "But," he says, "this renders our position all the more dangerous."

"It is submitted that it is not true, but, on the contrary, that it is a fair matter for consideration whether England be not the only place in Europe where war can now be waged with any reasonable prospect of rapid success to the attacking side; this may sound a somewhat strange proposition, but it is certainly the view which is held by the military advisers of many foreign governments."

THE VACATION SCHOOL AT JENA.

One of the pleasantest papers in the *Review* is that which Miss Dodd contributes concerning the vacation course which is given at Jena University. The vacation course is an international summer meeting, in which men and women from all parts of the Continent assemble to spend three weeks in studying the German language, natural science, literature, and pedagogy. Three years ago, there were not twenty students; last year, there were 275, who attended 26 classes, while instruction was given by 21 professors. There were 18 English at Jena last year, 7 Japanese, and 3 Dutchmen.

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is a rather interesting paper for collectors of *bric-a-brac* upon prices brought by antique furniture in the salesrooms. The writer records the fact that at the Duke of Leeds' salesrooms, in 1901, a pair of comodes of oak of the Louis XV. period sold for \$75,000.

An anonymous writer describes Johannesburg as it is to-day. "Her one great danger," he says, "is that her ablest element may continue alien, treating the city as a caravansary, and return to Europe as soon as its ambition is satisfied."

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

THE *Westminster Review* for January opens with a paper by Mr. W. J. Corbet entitled "The Skeleton at the Feast," which deals with the alarming increase of lunacy in the British Isles. He gives figures showing that since 1859 the number of registered lunatics has increased by no less than 100,739. Mr. Corbet pleads for an international conference of qualified persons to consider the matter of a remedy. Heredity is the chief cause of the increase. Mr. Corbet cites a number of authorities who declare that there is no way to retard the increase except by the sterilization of all lunatics. At present, persons tainted by lunacy who are supposed to be cured marry, and in one case known to Mr. Corbet a whole family of ten children inherited the disease, and had to be put under restraint. The garnering of the lunatic poor in vast asylums where they are so well cared for that they soon become outwardly sane, and are released to transmit the disease to others, is, says Mr. Corbet, the root of the evil.

THE DECLINE OF ENTHUSIASM.

Mr. J. G. Alger, in his retrospect of "Middle Class Culture in the Fifties," remarks upon the change in public sentiment:

"People half a century ago were full of admiration for persons and things. Palmerston and Lord John, as Russell was always styled, enjoyed more popularity than was ever possessed by Beaconsfield or Gladstone, and Lord Salisbury notoriously lacked it. There was also an unbounded confidence in the results of the diffusion of education, the circulation of newspapers, and the extension of the franchise, which has not been realized. Liberals, in particular, glowed, moreover, with sympathy for oppressed nationalities,—for Hungary, which Kossuth's residence in England stimulated; for dismembered Poland, which found an ardent parliamentary champion in Lord Dudley Stuart, and for American slaves. Fugitive slaves, indeed, thrilled large audiences with their experiences, and, I suspect, in some cases, made a good trade of lecturing. Newspa-

pers now tell us, indeed, much more of foreign countries, but we feel less interest in them. We have really, in the scramble for Africa and other territories, become more insular in our sentiments. We are no longer such good lovers or good haters. A Marshal Haynau would now run little danger of mobbing by brewers' draymen, but would simply be stared at. A Garibaldi would no longer have a fervid welcome."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Karl Blind contributes a couple of pages on "The Germans in the United States;" C. F. Adams writes on "Labor and Capital," and Alexander Mackendrick on "Religion and Morality."

THE MONTHLY REVIEW.

THE *Monthly Review* for January opens with an amusing piece of satire, written in the vein of "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," on the controversy between Sir Edward Clarke and Mr. Gosse.

THE STATE AND EDUCATION.

Dr. Goldwin Smith contributes a paper entitled "Shall the State Educate?" from which we extract the following practical suggestion to the British Government:

"It is, perhaps, a necessary consequence of the system which makes every great measure the result of a struggle between parties that little or no use is made in politics of cautious experiment. Great systems are established for the whole nation without trial, and past recall. There is apparently no reason why in this case the whole country should be at once and irrevocably settled on the same plan. One or two counties might be permitted to try the voluntary system, with licenses for the opening of schools, government inspection, examination by the inspectors on secular subjects, and a moderate *per capita* allowance for the pupils who passed it. Little harm could be done by such an experiment; little good would be postponed; and a useful comparison might be made."

Dr. Smith criticises state education on the ground that it has an inherent tendency to bureaucracy. He says that in educating the whole population on an ambitious scale we may be educating them out of manual labor and domestic service. In America, both these departments of labor are supplied from abroad. Dr. Smith thinks the advantages of coeducation of the sexes are very doubtful. He foresees danger in the modern tendency to regard state education merely as an instrument of industrial salvation.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

Lieut. Carlyon Bellairs writes some severe criticisms on the British Naval Intelligence Department. He points out that Great Britain accredits the same naval *attaché* to Russia and Italy, while the naval *attaché* at Washington, near the Atlantic seaboard, is accredited to Japan as well. Obsolete regulations are issued which make England the laughing-stock of the world. No official records of modern naval fights are issued to British officers. The disease is one of overstrain at the admiralty. The intelligence department is undermanned. The sea lords need to be understudied by other officers and relieved of much of their routine work. Altogether, the present organization of the navy is a peace organization.

THE AGE OF THE WORLD.

Sir Edward Fry continues his paper on "The Age of the Inhabited World." He gives a great many instances of sudden variation in plants and animals under change of environment and other conditions, and points out that in all probability, even where variation of species has been gradual, it has gone on at different speeds, and was much more rapid when the earth received more heat from the sun. New species may therefore have been formed much more rapidly than is generally supposed, and therefore the enormous period of time which evolutionists require for the development of

modern species may not really be needed. If this be so, the biologists may be brought into agreement with the physicists as to the space of time needed for the formation of the modern world.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Dr. A. N. Jannaris writes on "The Fourth Gospel and St. John the Apostle," discussing the question who wrote the Fourth Gospel. He comes to the conclusion that St. John was really the author. Mr. Arthur Morrison's illustrated articles on "The Painters of Japan" are continued. There is an interesting series of letters written in 1857 from Delhi during the Indian Mutiny.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

LA REVUE.

THE first number of *La Revue* for December opens with a new account of the loss of Lorraine, compiled from unpublished memoirs of Marshal MacMahon and General de Cissey.

Dr. Félix Regnault writes on "Suggestion in Education." He says that suggestion may be practised, not only on persons in hypnotic sleep, but also upon persons who are awake and in a normal condition, and particularly upon children, who cannot resist the influence by reflection or judgment. But ordinary hypnotic suggestion may be employed with advantage to uproot inveterate bad habits. Dr. Regnault cites a number of practitioners who employed hypnotic suggestion successfully to correct the vices of idiots. He says that Dr. Edgar Berillon has proved by the experience of fifteen years that hypnotic suggestion is efficacious, innocuous, and that its cures are durable. The bad habit of biting the nails, so common among children, has been cured in this way. The child is hypnotized and seated in a chair; the doctor seizes its hand, holds it firmly, and says: "Try to put your hand to your mouth and bite your nails. You see it is impossible," and so on, the exercise being repeated. When the child in a normal condition attempts to bite its nails, it feels the pressure of the preventing hand and is unable to do so. "Each time," says Dr. Regnault, "the hand is raised, the child feels in the forearm a sensation which prevents further movement." Kleptomania is cured in a similar way. Dr. Regnault says that the practice of hypnotic cure should, however, only be practised when dealing with morbid cases.

THE RIVALRY OF BERLIN AND MUNICH.

M. Jean Chantavoine writes on "The Two Germanies"—the Germany of the north and the Germany of the south—which are represented, respectively, by Berlin and Munich. He characterizes the attitude of Berlin to Munich as one of aggressive bad humor. The Prussians desire that their capital should be in fact, as well as in right, the imperial city. Politically, they have achieved this end, and they are now attempting to centralize all the intellectual and artistic activity of the federated monarchies in order to play the part in Germany which Paris plays in France, a part which Paris, indeed, has had more than one occasion to regret. M. Chantavoine argues that for Germany's own sake this much-desired concentration would be a bad thing. Berlin may remain the first of German capitals, but if she becomes sole capital it will result in a loss of life and strength for the empire, which will finally injure Prussia herself.

REVUE DE PARIS.

IN the December numbers of the *Revue de Paris*, out of fourteen articles, five are of a more or less historical character, while only two can in any way claim to deal with current events.

Mme. Judith Gautier continues her interesting recollections of her famous father and of his friends, and she gives vivid word pictures of two great artists, Grisi and Mario. The former, a devoted mother, never allowed her children to be kissed and petted by strangers. She considered that a child has a right to its individuality as much as a grown-up person, and remembered the repugnance and annoyance with which she had, as a child, herself received unwelcomed attentions.

THE LAWS OF SWITZERLAND.

Little Switzerland owns a longer civil code than almost any country in Europe; indeed, every canton has its own legislation, and only now is some effort being made to unify the code. Among the proposed new laws, a considerable number deal with the vexed question of matrimony. Following France in this matter, the Swiss cannot marry, or indeed become engaged, without receiving permission from his parents; but whereas in France it becomes increasingly difficult each year for a workman and a workwoman to become legally joined in matrimony, owing to the number of family papers, certificates of death, etc., which have to be produced, in Switzerland vexatious hindrances of this kind are as much as possible made away with, and when the would-be wedded pair are poor all this trouble is undertaken on their behalf by the municipal authorities of their town or village. The Swiss law has long permitted divorce, but in the case of the guilty party the judge may pass a decree by which he or she cannot marry again during a space of time amounting to three years.

LONDON THEATERS IN SHAKESPEARE'S DAY.

M. Jusserand, the French ambassador, who has given up so much time to medieval England, describes in picturesque language the London theaters as they must have appeared to Shakespeare. The tiny London of that day had quite a number of playhouses, but wandering players often performed in the great halls of country houses and in the kitchens of inns. The Londoner seems to have always been a playgoer, for at a time when Paris had only one theater London had four fine playhouses, as well as innumerable private theaters. Roughly speaking, the Elizabethan could enjoy the play by paying sixpence for the best places and a penny for the least good. Often there was no roof, and accordingly, in wet weather the unfortunate actors played to empty benches.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

A FEW VOLUMES OF ESSAYS AND CRITICISM.

"Shakespeare and His Forerunners," by Sidney Lanier (Scribners), is an excellent example of the rejuvenation of an old theme in the hands of a writer whose literary enthusiasms are genuine and spontaneous. Although now for the first time printed (with the exception of a few stray chapters that recently appeared in the magazines), this presentation of Shakespeare as the culmination of the Elizabethan era was given by Mr. Lanier at Baltimore in the form of two series of lectures in the winter of 1879-80. The vital quality so characteristic of all that Mr. Lanier wrote is here notable for its intensity. The poets and poetry of the Elizabethan age were very real to him, and it was to him a delight to picture the times when our English literature was coming to its full power, and especially to trace the growth of the master spirit of that masterful age. So completely had he made this theme his own, that when he came to lecture on it there was a delightful freedom from convention and routine. It was as if he were speaking out of his own intimate and personal knowledge of the subject. This it was that gave life to what he had to say. The lectures comprised in the present beautiful two-volume edition are accounted among the most important of Mr. Lanier's prose works. Much has been done by the publishers to make the volumes attractive. The illustrations are abundant, well executed, and in many instances reproduced from rare originals. All in all, the work has a unique and permanent value.

The Rev. Stopford A. Brooke's study of "The Poetry of Robert Browning" (Crowell) will command general attention, treating, as it does, of a poet who has always ranked preëminent in his calling as a thinker, and comprising, as it does, the matured views of one of the sanest and most capable of modern English critics. Mr. Brooke is as well known in America as in England, chiefly through the publication of his manuals and summaries of English literature, and also, more recently, through his critical estimate of the poet Tennyson. The opening chapter of the present work is a contrast of Browning with Tennyson. By adopting this method of presentation, the author has been able to set forth the more distinctly the peculiar elements in Browning's poetry, which he discusses more fully in the subsequent treatment.

Mr. Henry H. Bonnell has written "Charlotte Brontë, George Eliot, Jane Austen : Studies in Their Works" (Longmans). These studies are especially concerned with the philosophic attitudes of the writers in ques-

tion, the author giving secondary consideration to the literary art of each.

"Boston Days" is the title given to a volume by Lillian Whiting (Boston : Little, Brown & Co.) in which is attempted a presentation of the New England metropolis as a city of beautiful ideals, the city of the golden age



MISS LILLIAN WHITING.

of American literary genius. No specific biographical record is included in Miss Whiting's book, and, indeed, the absence of any precise order of treatment tends somewhat to the confusion of the reader; but, on the whole, the book serves its purpose well as an interpretation of a literary and ethical spirit rather than a mere compendium of facts. Miss Whiting writes from the fullest sympathy with the various schools of authors, critics, and social reformers who in

the nineteenth century stood for what was most significant and permanent in American culture, and her pen pictures of those Boston worthies of other days are most attractive.

In "The World Beautiful in Books" (Boston : Little, Brown & Co.), Miss Whiting has set forth her theories of literary values with great clearness. The writer's fond belief, like that of Mr. Howells, that life and literature are closely related one to the other, has given character to her treatment of literary themes. In this little book, the attempt is made to bring the reader into touch with much of the best writing and thinking of our time. In many ways, the book is an inspiring one, likely to do much good by way of cultivating a taste for the best literature.

Prof. Richard Burton's "Forces in Fiction" (Indianapolis : Bowen, Merrill & Co.) deals with the most modern phases of several literary problems, such as "The Cult of the Historical Romance," "The Love Motive in Modern Fiction," "The Development of Technique in the Drama," and "The Essay as Mood and Form."

Those readers who may desire less elaborate treatment of the subject than is afforded by the works of the late Dr. Moses Coit Tyler will find in "American Literature in Its Colonial and National Periods," by Prof. Lorenzo Sears (Boston : Little, Brown & Co.), an excellent epitome, well adapted, from the point of view of entertainment as well as of matter-of-fact instruction, to serve as a popular history of American letters. Professor Sears has made a judicious selection of representative authors, and by mention of these men and their works he makes apparent the development of



REV. STOPFORD A. BROOKE.

literature in this country from the efforts of the earliest colonists down to the work of the latter-day novelists, historians, and poets. The subject of oratory also receives in this work more attention than is customarily accorded it in books of similar scope.

Two of the text-books of American literature recently prepared for use in schools and colleges are significant as showing the rapid progress made in late years in the scientific study of the subject. Dr. J. W. Abernethy's "American Literature" (New York: Maynard, Merrill & Co.) not only presents a systematic plan of study, but is so arranged as to serve admirably as a guide-book to the most important biographical and critical material having to do with our national literature. Unusually liberal treatment is accorded to our modern writers, and a prominence in some degree according with the interest and value of the subject is given to Southern literature. A chapter is also devoted to the historians represented by Bancroft, Prescott, Motley, and Parkman.

A brief but carefully elaborated work on a similar plan is comprised in Prof. William C. Lawton's "Introduction to the Study of American Literature" (New York: Globe School Book Company). The biographical treatment required by the author's plan might reasonably have demanded more ample space, but this limitation is largely offset by the numerous references to standard histories and biographies which are incorporated in the text.

Passing to the far broader field of English literature in general, an elementary "History of English Literature," by William Vaughn Moody and Robert Moss Lovett, of the University of Chicago (Scribners), is an attempt to present the history of English literature from the earliest times to our own day "in a historical scheme simple enough to be apprehended by young students, yet accurate and substantial enough to serve as a permanent basis for study, however far the subject is pursued." In developing the proportions of this book, the authors have assigned a full half of the space to the last two centuries, and much more to the nineteenth than to the eighteenth.

Among the special studies in this department, Mr. Lewis Einstein's volume on "The Italian Renaissance in England" (Macmillan) is worthy of notice. In this work, the author has endeavored to trace the Italian influence in England from the beginning of the fifteenth century until the death of Elizabeth. The author discerns three stages in the history of the Italian influence in England during this period. The first, extending to the end of the fifteenth century, was centered at the University of Oxford, and succeeded, after several attempts, in introducing the new classical and scientific learning of Italy into England, thereby laying the foundation for all future English scholarship; the second epoch was marked by the growth of Italian culture at court in the first half of the sixteenth century, while the third and last period witnessed the spread of Italian influence from the court to the people at large. The growth of Puritanism, however, fostered the moral and national reaction against Italy at this time.

"Standard English Prose" (Holt) is a collection of extracts from Bacon to Stevenson, selected and edited by Henry S. Pancoast. The compiler's plan required that the selections should as far as possible be complete in themselves, hence relatively a large amount of space is assigned to each writer. The work should prove of great value to the student of literature.

"The Beginnings of Poetry" is the title of a scholarly

work by Prof. Francis B. Gummere (Macmillan). The author's attempt in this volume is to trace the rise of poetry as a social institution. The writer's purpose, therefore, is not, in the main, to propound a theory or to establish canons of criticism, but rather to fill the office of historian.

Another writer whose point of view differs from that of most of those who have gone before him in his special field is Prof. Mark H. Liddell, who has written "An Introduction to the Study of English Poetry" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). Professor Liddell holds that language and literature present a field for scientific study much like that of economics or ethics, "inasmuch as the phenomena which they furnish are neither accidental nor capricious, but the result of the operation of certain fundamental laws as definite and formulable in the one case as in the other, provided one takes the trouble to investigate the phenomena in the scientific spirit." The author's attempts to formulate poetic phenomena in strictly scientific terms can hardly fail to interest the reader even if they do not invariably command assent.

In the field of European literature, perhaps the most important recent contribution in English is the second

volume of Professor Saintsbury's "History of Criticism and Literary Taste in Europe" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). This volume covers the period "from the Renaissance to the decline of eighteenth-century orthodoxy." One of the most noteworthy features of this work is the large proportion of space given to English critics. This is in accordance with Professor Saintsbury's expressed belief that the value and importance of English criticism are far greater than has been usually admitted.

The chapter on "Elizabethan Criticism" and the survey "From Addison to Johnson" bear many evidences of the author's respect for the literature of his own land. It may not be generally known that Professor Saintsbury has been engaged for nearly thirty years in collecting the materials for his exhaustive work.

In "A Survey of Russian Literature" (Chautauqua Press), Miss Isabel F. Hapgood renders a distinct service to American readers, by disclosing to their view a field that has remained until this time almost unexplored. Miss Hapgood's method in this enterprise is to acquaint the reader with the views of Russian critics on their own national literature. Through this *résumé* of Russian criticism, in connection with the accompanying extracts from standard authors, the American student has at last a very good opportunity to gain at least an introduction to the great writers of a people too long neglected by our pushing Anglo-Saxon civilization.

In the second volume of the essays by George Brandes, entitled "Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature" (Macmillan), "The Romantic School in Germany" is treated. This volume affords the English



PROFESSOR GEORGE SAINTSBURY.

reader the rare opportunity to familiarize himself with some of the most important phases of modern German literature and criticism.

The motive of Mr. W. D. Howells' charming studies in "Literature and Life" (Harpers) is well set forth in his preliminary "Word of Explanation," in which he says that he has never been able to see much difference between what seemed to him literature and what seemed to him life. "If I did not find life in what professed to be literature," says Mr. Howells, "I disabled its profession, and possibly from this habit, now inveterate with me, I am never quite sure of life unless I find literature in it." Needless to say, Mr. Howells has found literature in a great variety of themes that to the ordinary man partake but slightly of this quality. The beauty of the present volume of essays is that it interprets for this materialistic age this literature in everyday life. Such topics as "The Man of Letters as a Man of Business;" "Confessions of a Summer Colonist;" "The Editor's Relations with the Young Contributor;" "A Circus in the Suburbs;" "The Beach at Rockaway;" "The Horse Show," and "The Problem of the Summer,"—little as they seem to offer in the way of literary suggestion,—in the hands of Mr. Howells remind us that the vocation of the essayist is not yet a lost art among us, and recall some of the most characteristic work of George William Curtis and Charles Dudley Warner.

Among the English essay-writers of our day, none is welcomed by a larger public than Mr. Austin Dobson. In connection with the second series of his "Miscellanies" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), there appear various "Occasional Verses and Inscriptions," for the writing of which Mr. Dobson has a unique gift. In the essays themselves, the chief topics discussed are "Mrs. Woffington," "The 'Grub Street' of the Arts," "The Story of the 'Spectator,'" and "The Covent-Garden Journal," and there is also a paper of special interest to all students of Izaak Walton on certain quotations from the "Angler."

Some of the attractive papers that appear from week to week in the *Outlook*, of New York, entitled "The Spectator," have been brought together in a little volume entitled "Seen by the Spectator" (New York: The Outlook Company). All kinds of topics, from "An East Side Political Outing" to a "Johns Hopkins Quarter-Cen-



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tury," have been treated by the "Spectator" in his genial and sagacious fashion. There has been much guessing, by the way, for many years, as to the "Spectator's" identity, and rumor has more than once pluralized him; but the public seems as much in the dark as ever as to this interesting literary problem.

"Under the Trees" (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is the title of a beautifully illustrated volume of essays on outdoor topics by Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie. Within a comparatively few years, Mr. Mabie has come to occupy a foremost place among American critics and essayists. A preëminent sanity of judgment and a constant devotion to the things that are most "worth while" in our modern life and letters characterize all his work.

Let not the matter-of-fact reader mistake Mr. Alfred Austin's "Haunts of Ancient Peace" (Macmillan) for a guide-book to rural England. Mr. Austin's descriptions of the English countryside are bright, but elusive. Few travelers, we imagine, could identify more than one or two of the regions mentioned,—and yet, in a subtle way, the poet interprets for us the charm of old English country-seats, and we are content to listen to the colloquy with Veronica and Lamia that began in those earlier books, "In Veronica's Garden," and "Lamia's Winter-Quarters."



ALFRED AUSTIN.

BOOKS ABOUT MUSIC.

Music as an agency of culture meets with adequate recognition in a little volume of essays by O. B. Boise entitled "Music and Its Masters" (Lippincott). This writer treats of the nature and origin of music, of the conditions under which it has been and may yet be developed, and of what is comprehended in the phrase "musical intelligence." The amateur should be enabled to gain from Mr. Boise's papers a clearer conception of the claims of music as an art, while the professional musician may well profit from such a review of the principles to which his calling owes its existence.

More elementary in style and method and more specific as an historical record is "The Story of the Art of Music," by Frederick J. Crowest (Appleton). This is a concisely written sketch, non-technical so far as possible, and well adapted to the wants of the general reader. In order to cover the allotted ground in the restricted space of 180 small pages, the author was compelled to treat some topics cursorily, but his chapters are interesting, though condensed, and contain altogether an amazing amount of useful and solid information.

Mr. Daniel Gregory Mason's volume of studies, "From Grieg to Brahms" (New York: The Outlook Company), opens with a suggestive essay on "The Appreciation of Music," in which an attempt is made to impart to the reader a sense of the general movement of the art as a preparation for the study of individual composers and their work. Then follow critical and biographical studies of Grieg, Dvorák, Saint-Saëns, Franck, Tschai-



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kowsky, and Brahms, with an epilogue on "The Meaning of Music."

An interesting exposition of the Wagnerian cult is to be found in Mr. W. J. Henderson's "Richard Wagner: His Life and His Dramas" (Putnams). Following the biographical sketch with which this volume opens, there is a very readable attempt at analysis of Wagner's artistic aims. From this the author proceeds to a detailed study of each of the master's world-famous compositions. Records of first performances and other information relating to the production of the operas have been collected by Mr. Henderson with especial care.

The series of books included in "The Musician's Library" (Boston: Oliver Ditson Company) is intended to have literary as well as artistic quality. Each of the two volumes thus far issued in the series is far more than a mere collection of sheet music. "Fifty Master-songs," edited by Henry T. Finck, is prefaced by admirable biographical sketches of the composers represented. As an introduction to "Forty Piano Compositions," by Chopin, Mr. James Huneker contributes a well-written though too brief study of the composer's career and works. It is to be hoped that the same high level may be maintained in later issues of this "library."

In "The Music Lover's Library" (Scribners), the volume on "Choirs and Choral Music," by Arthur Mees, claims the special interest of amateurs on the broad ground that chorus singing is a sphere of public musical activity which now belongs legitimately to amateurs. Mr. Mees is the enthusiastic conductor of the New York Mendelssohn Glee Club. He knows the modern development of choral singing as well as any man, but he has also studied with exceptional care the beginnings and the history of the art. It would take a long and laborious search to acquire from other sources the information contained in this attractive little book.

For a somewhat fuller account of religious music, the student or general reader can do no better than to consult the volume on "Music in the History of the Western Church," by Prof. Edward Dickinson, of Oberlin College (Scribners). This work treats comprehensively of such topics as "Ritual and Song in the Early Christian Church," "The Liturgy of the Catholic Church," "The Ritual Chant of the Catholic Church," "The Development of Medieval Chorus Music," "The Rise of the Lutheran Hymnody," and many themes related to the development of modern church music.

SOCIOLOGY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.

The studies in Boston's immigrant population published several years ago in a volume entitled "The City Wilderness" have been supplemented by an investigation of conditions in the north and west end of Boston, conducted under the same auspices, and edited, like the former studies, by Mr. Robert A. Woods, the head of the South End House. The new volume is entitled "Americans in Process" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). All of the contributors to the work are residents and associates of the settlement over which Mr. Woods presides, and are experienced workers in this field. Until about fifteen years ago, the districts covered by the present study were inhabited chiefly by an Irish population. Since that time, there has been a large influx of Jews and Italians, and at the present time twenty-five different nationalities are represented in the district, including a large number of negroes. As an introduction to their presentation of contemporary conditions, the writers have reviewed the history of the metropolitan

section under consideration from pre-Revolutionary days. The chief value of the book lies in its clear-cut statements as to what is actually taking place at the present time in these densely populated city wards, and what is being done by various agencies in the way of bettering the social and religious conditions of the population. The dangers of the situation are not minimized, but the endeavor of the writers is to point out the most rational lines of effort on the part of the city as a whole in the task of Americanizing its new citizens.

Judged by its externals, without a reading of more than its chapter-heads, "The Social Unrest," by John



MR. JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS.

Graham Brooks (Macmillan), might easily be set down in the category reserved for merely academic essays on the labor problem; but even the superficial reader soon discovers that this is in no sense a book compiled in a library from other books, nor one made up of the writer's personal opinions. In some cases, indeed, we should have preferred a fuller statement of the writer's own conclusions, but his main purpose has been, apparently, to make us see the matters in dispute between labor and capital in the light in which they stand out before the representative laborer and the representative capitalist, and to do this he presents the data acquired in conversation rather than from the more restrained utterances embodied in conventional printed statements. Thus, the attitude of the rank and file of "organized labor" toward socialism, and the reasons that the men themselves give for that attitude, are discussed by Mr. Brooks in a way that is particularly enlightening at this time, as a revelation of important facts hitherto but imperfectly understood. Mr. Brooks has been a close student of conditions in the anthracite mining region for the past eighteen years. The aims and achievements of unionism in the coal mines will be better appreciated by every one who reads his chapters. The book as a whole is a mine of fresh and vital information—of matter that interests everybody.

In the historical series of "American Philanthropy of the Nineteenth Century," edited by Mr. Herbert S. Brown, Mr. Joseph Lee, of the Massachusetts Civic League, has written a suggestive little book entitled "Constructive and Preventive Philanthropy" (Macmillan). Mr. Lee has been for many years a keen observer of the modern philanthropic movement in its various phases, and his book is a useful summary of the significant tendencies in that movement, as well as a shrewd analysis of its underlying purpose. Besides outlining for the reader various philanthropic activities grouped under such heads as "Model Tenements," "Vacation Schools," "Playgrounds for Small Children," "Baths and Gymnasiums," "Model Playgrounds," "Outings," "Boys' Clubs," and "Industrial Training," Mr. Lee has prefaced each chapter with an excellent list of references which may serve to guide the reader to fuller information on the several topics treated.

"Pictures and Problems from London Police Courts" (London: Edward Arnold), by Thomas Holmes, a London police-court missionary, is an interesting contribution to sociology. The writer's long acquaintance with criminals has put him in possession of many facts of a personal nature which could not easily be obtained by a professional criminologist. His book is full of suggestions for all who have to do with the difficult problems connected with the custody and reformation of the delinquent classes.

The forestry movement was in need of just such a manual as has been provided by Dr. Bernhard E. Fernow in a volume entitled "Economics of Forestry" (Crowell). Works on forestry that are adapted to the needs of students and workers in this field have not been lacking, but the average citizen and publicist have not heretofore had ready access to any comprehensive statement of the economic basis of an American forestry policy. Such a statement is admirably set forth in Dr. Fernow's book. Besides the things directly interesting to the economist discussed in this volume, there is offered also an exposition of the technical details of the forester's art, and sufficient information of this kind is given to enable the reader to form an intelligent judgment as to the conditions and limitations under which this art can be practised. The concluding chapter of the book very conveniently sums up the successive stages of the forestry movement in the United States up to the present time.

The compendious two-volume work by M. Ostrogorski, entitled "Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties," as translated from the French by Frederick Clarke (Macmillan), will doubtless prove to some American readers a disappointment. Many will instinctively compare the work with Mr. Bryce's "American Commonwealth," and will perhaps hastily conclude that the author is a far less trustworthy student of American institutions than his distinguished predecessor, who, by the way, contributes a preface to the present work. It is to be remembered, however, that M. Ostrogorski has undertaken a very different task from the self-imposed one of Mr. Bryce. He has selected perhaps the most difficult problems in the political organizations of Great Britain and the United States, and has restricted his investigation to those particular problems. The advantage that the American student gains from reading a work of this character is the old one of being enabled to "see ourselves as others see us." The first volume is devoted entirely to party organization and government in Great Britain, while the second volume, con-

sisting of nearly eight hundred closely printed pages, is required for a description of the caucus and convention system as it is operated in the United States. The writer's conclusions are far from optimistic. He finds innumerable defects in our American application of the electoral system. The party as we have it, "democratized in appearance only, has warped the spring of democratic government by discouraging, through the formalism with which it is set up, the citizen's independence of mind, the energy of his will, and the autonomy of his conscience." He has a new method of political action to propose,—that of special combinations for limited objects, doing away with the practice of permanent parties with power for their aim and end. Quite apart from the author's deductions and conclusions, his book is extremely valuable as the first systematic and full presentation of the actual workings of our American party system as such. The author's methods of investigation have been not at all those of the political theorist who is concerned to know the literal provisions of written constitutions, but rather those of the trained observer who has come to study our actual process of government rather than our formulas.

The volume entitled "The New Empire," by Brooks Adams (Macmillan), supplements the author's earlier books, "The Law of Civilization and Decay" and "America's Economic Supremacy," by applying the principles laid down in those works to the latest conditions of international growth. The interest of the present volume lies largely in the author's use of the inductive method. His belief in the influence of geographical conditions upon human destiny has led him to make constant reference to geographical data throughout his book. In fact, the whole work may be described as a new application of the laws of physical geography to political and social development.

International relations on the naval and political sides are discussed in the new volume of essays of Capt. A. T. Mahan, entitled "Retrospect and Prospect" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). These essays are in direct sequence to those of the author's previous volumes, "The Interest of America in Sea Power" and "The Problem of Asia." The topics treated in the present volume are "Conditions Determining the Naval Expansion of the United States," "The Influence of the South African War Upon the Prestige of the British Empire," "Motives to Imperial Federation," "Considerations Governing the Disposition of Navies," "The Persian Gulf and International Relations," and "The Military Rule of Obedience." There is included in this volume an appreciation of the late Admiral Sampson.

In the series of "Handbooks of American Government" (Macmillan), Prof. William MacDonald contributes a volume on "The Government of Maine: Its History and Administration." While this volume follows the general plan of the series to which it belongs, there is sufficient elasticity in that plan to admit of a certain individuality of treatment in each volume of the series. In the present volume, the general reader who is not a citizen of Maine will find the chapters on "Education," "The Protection and Comfort of the State" (including a section on the prohibitory law), and "Revenue and Expenditure" of special interest.

Few books on finance use the term "funds" excepting in relation to public affairs. Some misapprehension may therefore arise from the title of Dr. Frederick A. Cleveland's new work, "Funds and Their Uses" (Appleton), for in this book it is the field of private

finance that is covered rather than the operations of governments. Looking upon the subject of private finance as one which has to do with the getting and the spending of funds for private enterprises, Dr. Cleveland has grouped his materials around three central ideas—namely, (1) "What Are Funds?" (2) "How Funds Are Obtained;" and (3) "Institutions and Agencies Employed in Funding Operations." In his introductory chapters, Dr. Cleveland discusses the various forms of money and credit used as funds, and the means of transfer of credit funds. Passing to an exposition of how funds are obtained, the author divides modern funding methods into two classes: (1) those of the industrially and socially dependent, and (2) those of the industrially and socially independent,—that is, those who depend on the active participation in business. The concluding chapter of the work is given to descriptions of each of the leading financial institutions, from the United States Treasury and the various forms of banks and trust companies to the modern insurance company.

A new field is entered and explored by Mr. Alexander Colin Campbell in his volume on "Insurance and Crime" (Putnam). This writer attempts a discussion of insurance as a producer of morbid conditions in society. While the writer believes in the warning of history against the danger of the practice of insurance, he is far from decrying insurance itself. On the contrary, he regards it as an 'invaluable element in social life.' From his point of view, it is all the more necessary that any source of evil connected with insurance as an institution should be removed.

AMERICAN HISTORY.

In "Ohio and Her Western Reserve" (Appletons), Mr. Alfred Mathews tells the story of that part of the State of Ohio that was settled by colonists from Connecticut, many of whom had come to the new land of promise from Pennsylvania, where they had endured many hardships and suffered the utmost terrors of Indian warfare in the Wyoming massacre during the Revolutionary War. All of these horrors of pioneer life are chronicled by Mr. Mathews; but the chief value of his book lies in its account of the transplanting of New England Puritanism to its new Western home south of Lake Erie, and various successive steps by which those elements of Statehood contributed by the Connecticut settlers were wrought out and made a part of the body politic of that sturdy Western State which is this year celebrating its centenary. The contributions of the Western Reserve to the civil life of the State and nation were indeed remarkable, as Mr. Mathews' book very convincingly shows.

Mrs. Alice Morse Earle's "Sundials and Roses of Yesterday" (Macmillan) admirably supplements her book of last year, entitled "Old-time Gardens." Mrs. Earle has for many years been a diligent collector of sundials, and of information and materials relating to them, including books on dialing, old and new, drawings and photographs of dials, and, not less important, a large correspondence with dial-owners. The great number and variety of the dials photographed for this volume will be a revelation to those who have not made a special study of this interesting subject. The interest in dials would seem to be as persistent in this country as in England. Many of the most beautiful illustrations in Mrs. Earle's book are from American originals.

"Social Life in the Early Republic," by Anne Hollingsworth Wharton (Lippincott), is an attempt to portray the social evolution of the national capital in the early years of the last century. The Washington of those days as described by Miss Wharton was the seat of a society more typically republican than that of contemporary New York, Boston, and Philadelphia. It has been Miss Wharton's aim to obtain from such men and women as have lived down to our own times, and were part of the Washington life of the early nineteenth century, pictures of the social life of the capital as it appeared to them. Miss Wharton has also made a study of the old country-seats in and about Washington. Pictures of several of these old mansions accompany the text, and there are also many portraits of the social leaders of early Washington.

The fashionable life of pre-Revolutionary New York is well described in a beautifully illustrated volume by Esther Singleton, entitled "Social New York Under the Georges" (Appletons). In this volume, the humble side of old Dutch life in Manhattan has been neglected, the author's aim being rather to exhibit the manners and customs of the wealthy families who lived in and about the town during the Georgian age of English administration, from 1714 to 1776. Much attention has been given by the author to the famous country-seats of those times, and in illustrating the volume many articles of furniture still owned by prominent New York families are pictured. There are chapters on table furnishings, the costumes of men, the dress of women, amusements and manners, food, and culture.

Few American towns or cities rejoice in so full a record of their history as has been provided for Enfield, Conn., by a loyal son of the town, Mr. Francis Olcott Allen (Lancaster, Pa.: Published by the author). In three portly volumes, comprising nearly three thousand neatly printed pages, we have the whole story of this ancient Connecticut valley community, so far as the official records (exceptionally complete, even for a New England town) can give it. In a strict sense, such works as this are not histories, but they furnish the very warp and woof of the materials out of which all history that is to have any permanent value must be made, and it was nothing less than a patriotic impulse that actuated the compiler of these volumes. If similar work could be done for all of our early colonial settlements whose public records are extant, what a richness of material would be available for the historian, who will in the future be more than ever dependent upon such sources as these for a working knowledge of our national origins! We trust that Mr. Allen's example in editing and publishing this work will be followed in an equally generous fashion in the case of many other American communities.

Volume XVI. of the collections of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin is entirely devoted to the French *régime* in Wisconsin. The volume is made up of translations from original documents in the French language, including much material from the government archives of Paris. The early explorations of the Jesuit missionaries and the enterprising French fur traders, together with migrations in the wars of the native Indian tribes, are fully and vividly narrated. The material is presented in chronological order. It covers the period 1634 to 1727; but as the French *régime* did not enter until 1663, it is probable that at least another volume will be devoted to the same subject.

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Banking in Great Britain and Ireland During 1903, BankL.
Banking Reform in the United States, W. R. Lawson, BankL.
Baptismal Formula of the Apostolic Age, R. J. Cooke, MethR.
Battle-Ship of the Future, L. Nixon, WW.
Bequerel Rays, J. J. Thomson, Harp.
Beef Prices, Advance in, F. C. Croxton, AMRR.
Beerbohm, Max, W. W. Whitelock, BB.
Berlin, British at the Gates of, H. W. Wolff, Mac.
Bible, A Spiritual Book, T. F. Wright, NC.
Bible, American Revised Version of the, J. C. Granbery, Meth.
Bible-School Method, Some Principles of, G. W. Pease, Bib.
Biblical Law: Primogeniture, D. W. Amram, GBag.
Birds, A Few Winter, E. J. Sawyer, CLA.
Björnson, Björnstjerne, J. N. Laurvik, Crit.
Bodleian Library: 1802-1902, A. Birrell, Out.
Bonney, Mrs. Lydia Pratt, P. Carus, OC.
Books, American, Dial, January 1.
Books, Miniature, of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries, H. T. Sheringham, Bl.
Boston's Playground System, J. Lee, NEng.
Botanical Garden, Missouri, W. Trelease, Pops.
Bowdoin College and Her Sons, G. T. Little, Mun.
Bowen, Herbert: An International Figure of the Month, AMRR.
Boys, Some Physical Abnormalities of, W. T. Talbot, Ed.
Brown, John, of Harper's Ferry, W. Stevens, LelaH.
Browning, Robert, P. H. Wicksteed, Contem.
Bruno, Monk, Philosopher, Seer, Martyr, F. H. Wright, MethR.
Brussels Sugar Convention, T. Lough, Contem; E. Maraini, NA, December 1.
Building, Office, Biography of an, A. Goodrich, WW.
Caine, Hall, as I Know Him, G. B. Burgin, YW.
California: Mountains and Valleys of Yuba County, Caroline M. Olney, Over, December.
California, The Life Informal in, J. W. Tompkins, O.
California: The Right Hand of the Continent—VII., C. F. Lummis, OutW, December.
California: Tulare County, G. A. Barry, OutW, December.
California: Ventura County, Harriet H. Barr, OutW, December.
Camping in the Snow, A. R. Dugmore, CLA.
Canada, Our Industrial Invasion of, R. H. Montgomery, WW.
Carnegie, Andrew, as I Know Him, W. T. Stead, YM.
Carthage, On the Ruins of, J. Baker, LelaH.
Catholic Democracy, W. Ward, ACQR.
Cattle Pasturage Problem in the West, E. B. Andrews, AMRR.
Cavalry, Future Role of, E. Wood, USM.
Caverns, Freezing, T. E. James, Pear.
Cements, Military Tests of, J. E. Howard, JMSI.
Chamberlain, Joseph, J. S. McNeill, FrL.
Chantey-man, The, H. P. Whitmarsh, Harp.
Chateaubriand, Vicomte de, A. I. du P. Coleman, Crit.
Chicago City Council, Regeneration of the, G. C. Sikes, Chaut.
Child, Moral Training of a—III., E. H. Griggs, LHJ.
Child, The Right of the, Ida H. Harper, NAR.
Children's Books That Have Lived, C. Welsh, BL.
China, A New Englander in (Gen. Frederick T. Ward), F. A. Gannon, NEng.
China: Educational Edicts of 1901, C. M. Lacey-Sites, EdR.

- China, New Education in, T. Richard, Contem.
Chinese and Western Civilization, Wu Ting-Fang, Harp.
"Christian Religion, Philosophy of the:" A Review, W. T. Davison, Meth.
Christian Science—II, "Mark Twain," NAR.
Christmas in Uncle Sam's Colonial Possessions, J. M. Shawhan, W. O. McGeehan, F. Austin, P. G. Miller, Over, December.
Church, Lay, Suggestion for the Foundation of a, P. Carus, OC.
City, Furnishing of a, J. Schopfer, Arch.
City Government, Referendum and Initiative in, J. R. Commons, PSQ, December.
Coal Strike and Its Lessons: I, The Industrial Battle and the Public, F. Parsons; II, Our Real Masters, G. F. Williams; III, Still a Democracy, E. Pomeroy; IV, The Strike and the Consumer, B. Hall; V, Violence and Arbitration, E. H. Crosby, Arena.
Coast and Geodetic Survey, United States, O. H. Tittmann, NatGM.
Coasting: A Neglected Winter Glory, J. L. Steele, O.
Coffee, W. G. Marshall, San, December.
Corners through the Ages, P. Durel, Nou, December 1.
Colony, Plantation Type of, L. D. Scisco, AHR.
Color in the Divine Word, E. Madeley, NC.
Commercialism, Bugbear of, F. B. Tracy, Gunt.
Constantinople Bookshops, Among the, H. O. Dwight, BL.
Cook Estate at Lenox, W. Miller, CLA.
Cornelle and the Spanish Theater, F. Brunetiere, RDM, January 1.
Cost Keeping for Moderate-Sized Shops, H. Diemer, Eng.
Cowboy Songs and Dances, Grace B. Ward, Pear.
Crabs and Crabbing, C. McIlvaine, CLA.
Crane, William H., E. F. Edgett, FrL.
Crookes, Sir William, H. Begbie, PMM.
Cruiser Machinery, British, G. Halliday, CasM.
Crusades: How Medieval Europe Expanded, T. J. Shahan, ACQR.
D'Annunzio, Poet and Playwright, H. D. Sedgwick, Jr., Dial, January 1.
Dante and Music, C. Bellaigue, RDM, January 1.
Dante Society at Siena, P. Villari, NA, December 1.
Deaconesses, A. M. Courtenay, Meth.
Delhi, In, W. F. Dix, Out.
Delhi, Letters from, 1857, G. S. Barnes, MonR.
Derby Day in the Snow, Swedish, M. Woodward, Pear.
Devonport (England) Dockyard Extension, A.S.Hurd, CasM.
Diaz, Porfirio, C. Johnston, NAR.
Dickens, Charles, as a Man of Letters, Alice Meynell, Atlant.
Disease, War Against, C. E. A. Winslow, Atlant.
Dunkhonor Crusaders, MisR.
Dowie, John A., and Zion, L. de Norvina, Revue, December 15.
Drake, Sir Francis: His Voyage to the Pacific Coast of America—II, OutW, December.
Dredge, Greatest, in the World, C. S. S. Miller, Pear.
Dumas, Alexander, ppr, F. Mathew, Corn.
East, English and Russian Policies in the, A. H. Midhat, NineC.
Eden, Expulsion from, J. B. Spiers, NC.
Education: see also Kindergarten.
Appointing Teachers, San Francisco's System of, F. Burk, EdR.
Arithmetic, Causes of Success and Failure in, J. M. Rice, Forum.
Art in American Colleges, Study of, A. H. Espenshade, Ed.
Boys, Some Physical Abnormalities of, W. T. Talbot, Ed.
Chemistry for Admission to Colleges, E. H. Miller, EdR.
Classical Education, Advantages from a, Caroline R. Gaston, Ed.
Classical or Modern Education, E. Berth, RSoc, December.
Classical Study: How to Make It Interesting, H. E. Burton, EdR.
College Course, Shorter, Objections to a, E. J. Goodwin, EdR.
College, The American, N. M. Butler, EdR.
Commercial Education, Universities and, W. J. Ashley, NAR.
Common Schools, Our, and Our Common People, W. A. Candler, Meth.
Degrees, Post-Graduate, in Absentia, A. L. Benedict, PopS.
Educational Outlook, O. H. Lang, Forum.
Ethical Culture Schools of New York City, Specific Aim of the, Bertha Johnston, Kind.
Jena University, Holiday Course at, Catherine I. Dodd, NatR.
Languages, Modern, Study of, J. F. Coar, EdR.
Manual Training in General, C. M. Woodward, Kind.
Music Credits in High Schools, H. W. Fairbanks, Mus, December.
Press and Public Organizations, Education Through the, R. G. Boone, Ed.
Professions, Learned, Training for the, E. G. Dexter, EdR.
Revolution in Educational Methods, L. Caze, Revue, December 15.
Rhodes Scholarships, W. W. Blackall, EdR.
Self-Government in Schools, Kind.
Social Bearing of Elementary Instruction, W. Poland, ACQR.
State: Shall It Educate? G. Smith, MonR.
Twentieth Century Education, B. O. Flower, Arena.
Egypt: From Cairo to Khartum, W. G. Erving, Cent.
Electric Plants, Design and Operation of, P. R. Moses, Eng.
Electric Power in India, J. H. Thomson, CasM.
Elephant, South African, Decline and Fall of the, H. A. Bryden, Fort.
Emerson, Ralph Waldo, as a Poet, J. Mudge, MethR.
"Encyclopaedia Biblica" and the Gospels, A. N. Jannaris, Contem.
Engineering Mind, The, J. C. Sutherland, PopS.
Engineering, Prospects in, Corn.
England: see Great Britain.
English as Spoken in the West Indies, A. R. Loscombe, Gent.
European Peace, Cause of, J. Seely, NatR.
Evolution: Are Proofs of the Descent of Man Being Strengthened? W. T. Freeman, Gent.
Evolution: The Man Who Is to Come, B. Kidd, Harp.
Fabre, J. H., the Naturalist, A. Glardon, BU.
Fashions, American versus Parisian, F. Lees, PMM.
Fiction in 1902, H. B. M. Watson, PMM.
Finance, Recent Events in the World of, A. D. Noyes, Forum.
Fire-Fighters in Foreign Cities, F. Morris, Cos.
Fish, Big Game, How to Take, C. F. Holder, O.
Florida, Hunting Crocodiles and Alligators in, J. A. Dimock, CLA.
Football at the Colleges and Universities, J. Kennedy, EdR.
Football Brilliancy, Close Formations and Low Tackling Lessening, H. Beecher, O.
Foreign Affairs, Recent, A. M. Low, Forum.
Forest Preservation, Need of, J. F. Lacey, Gunt.
Foundry Management—II, R. Buchanan, Eng.
France:
Army, Historical Records of the, F. H. Tyrrell, USM.
Church, Great Crisis in the, Revue, January 1.
Commune, Recollections of the, G. Toudouze, Nou, December 1 and 15.
Congregations, Ministry and the, A. Bonnard, BU, December.
Democracy, Radical, in France, W. M. Sloane, PSQ, December.
Depopulation in France, H. Clément, RefS, December 1.
Divorce in France, L. Barthou, Nou, December 15.
Judicial System in France, C. F. Beach, Jr., GBag.
Modern Literature in France, E. P. Bazan, EM, December.
Petroleum and the Budget, De Monzie, RPP, December.
Religion in France, L. Arréat, Mon.
Religious Orders, France and the, C. Clemenceau, NatR.
Religious Orders, Situation of the, Countess de Courson, Ros.
Franklin, Benjamin, in Germany, J. G. Rosengarten, Lipp.
Franklin, the State of, G. H. Alden, AHR.
Fraternal Movements, Fundamental, B. O. Flower, Arena.
Fuel Briquettes in Germany, F. H. Mason, CasM.
Furniture, Antique, in the Sale-room, W. Roberts, NatR.
Games, Roman, V. Fiorentino, Cos.
Gardens, Suburban, Care of, Evelyn B. Mitford, YW.
Gearing, Cut, O. J. Beale, CasM.
Geneva Before Calvin (1387-1536), H. D. Foster, AHR.
"Geometry, Foundations of," Hilbert's, O. Veblen, Mon.
Geometry, Origin and Development of, G. Loria, Mon.
German Classics, Original, Collection of, J. T. Hatfield, BL.
Germans in the United States, a Blind, West.
Germany:
Berlin and Munich, J. Chantavoine, Revue, December 15.
Merchant Marine, G. Johnston, RPP, December.
Russia, Coming Struggle With, Contem.
South America, Greater Germany in, S. Bonsal, NAR.
Goda, Transformation of the Local Divinities Into, S. I. Curtiss, Bib.
Gospel, Fourth, and John the Apostle, A. N. Jannaris, MonR.
Gould, Helen, Personality of, Juliet W. Tompkins, Ev.
Government by the Golden Rule, S. M. Jones, Mun.
Great Britain: see also South Africa.
Anti-Nationalists in the Napoleonic War, H. W. Wilson, NatR.
Aristocracy, British: It It on the Wane? G. Arthur, NAR.
China and England, V. Garpen, Revue, December 15.
Commons, New Ordeal of the, T. H. S. Escott, Fort.
Culture, Middle-Class, in the Fifties, J. G. Alger, West.
Defense, Higher Policy of, J. R. Thursfield, NatR.
Education Act at Work, T. J. Macnamara, Fort.
Education Act, Clergy and the, D. C. Lathbury, NineC.
Education Act, Nonconformists and the, J. G. Rogers, NineC.
Education Bill, W. T. Stead, AMRR; J. J. O'Shea, ACQR.
England in 1902, R. B. Johnson, Atlant.
English Court and Society in the Eighties, Mary K. Wadlington, Scrib.
English Men of Letters—II, G. W. Smalley, McCl.
Germany, Relations with, Contem.
Health, National: A Soldier's Study, F. Maurice, Contem.
Insanity, Increase of, W. J. Corbet, West.
Kings and Queens, Hélène Vacaresco, Contem.

- Lansdowne, Lord, A Lesson to, NatR.
 Local Government Board, Growth of the, M. Foster, NineC.
 Marines and the Navy, USM.
 Medical Lessons of the Boer War, W. Hill-Chimo, USM.
 Militia, Imperial, Black.
 Naval Intelligence Department, C. Bellairs, MonR.
 Naval Reform: The Accountant Branch, USM.
 Navy, Zeal in the, USM.
 Party of the Future and Its Programme, W. T. Stead, RRL.
 Royal African Company of England, W. R. Scott, AHR.
 Schools, Public, Sir Oliver Lodge and the, A. C. Benson, and F. Fletcher, NineC.
 Tory Creed and the Unionist Alliance, Fort.
 Trade Unions, British, Americanism for, A. Mosely, WW.
 War Post, Developing a, A. S. Hurd, CasM.
 Workman's Reply to Mr. Holt Schooling, Fort.
 Greenhouse, Small, Pleasures of a, A. G. Minshall, J. A. Ellis, J. N. Gerard, E. A. Reed, H. Erichsen, and E. T. Harvey, CLA.
 Gymnastics: "Life More Abundant for Indoor People," A. Fremont, Era.
 Hague Tribunal, First Arbitrator of the, E. di Parravicino, RasN, December 16.
 Handel and the "Messiah," W. S. Mason, Ros.
 Happiness, H. Sturt, IJE.
 Harrisburg, Civic Progress in, J. H. McFarland, Chaut.
 Hawaii and Samoa, Christmas in, F. Austin, Over, December.
 Hawthorne, Nathaniel, as American Consul, J. B. Osborne, Bkman.
 Hebrew Book-Lore, I. Singer, BL.
 Heredity, Health and Morals—II., W. J. Colville, Mind.
 Heredity in Royalty, Mental and Moral—VI., F. F. Woods, PopS.
 Herrick, Robert, Poetry of, H. C. Beeching, NatR.
 Holland, Life on the Canals of, J. Dalma, BU.
 Holmes, Justice Oliver Wendell, E. B. Adams, GBag.
 Horace, First Three Epodes of, G. Carducci, NA, December 16.
 Household Employee, More Life for the, Caroline L. Hunt, Chaut.
 Housekeeping, American, English Wives and, M. E. L. Addis, Lipp.
 Howells, William Dean, Latest Novels of, Harriet W. Preston, Atlant.
 Hughes, Rev. Hugh Price, D. Williamson, LeisH.
 Immigrant, America's Distrust of the, A. J. McLaughlin, PopS.
 Immigrants from Eastern Europe, Historical and Religious Origins of Our Recent, R. Parsons, ACQR.
 Immortality, Human, J. E. McTaggart, IJE.
 India, Lord Curzon's Services to, NAR.
 Indian, American, Passing of the, F. F. Millard, Forum.
 Indian, Cherokee, Newspaper, W. R. Draper, Era.
 Indiana, Story of, T. Dalton, Pear.
 Indianapolis, G. E. Hunt, NatM.
 Insanity in Great Britain, Increase of, W. J. Corbet, West.
 Invertebrates, North-American—XII., H. H. Pratt, ANat, December.
 Ireland, Priests and People in, Black.
 Ireland, Situation in, J. J. Nevin, West.
 Ireland, Social Life in, O. C. Morris, PMM.
 Irrigation, Miracle of, D. A. Willey, NEng.
 Italian Immigrant in America, W. E. Davenport, Out.
 Italy, Agrarian Reform in, Duke of Litta-Visconti-Arese, NAR.
 Jackson, Andrew, Last Days in the Career of, A. H. Lewis, Ev.
 Jade, S. E. Easter, NatGM.
 James, Henry, Latest Novels of, Harriet W. Preston, Atlant.; W. D. Howells, NAR.
 Japanese Army, J. Leader, USM.
 Jerome, William Travers, District Attorney of New York County: Incidents in the Day's Routine in His Office, A. Hodder, WW.
 Jerrold, Douglas, Centenary of, L. Melville, Temp.
 Jesuits of L'Ancien Régime in Michigan, R. R. Elliott, ACQR.
 Jesus, Teaching of, in regard to Property, K. Ashida, Meth.
 Jews in Modern Palestine, E. W. G. Masterman, Bib.
 Joan of Arc, the Girl Martyr of Rouen, YW.
 Journalism as a Profession in France, R. H. Sherard, LeisH.
 Journalism, Early American—II., W. T. Hale, Meth.
 Jupiter, Spectograms of, V. M. Slipper, PopA.
 Kindergarten:
 Froebel's Life, Some Details of, Eleonore Heerwart, KindR.
 Kindergarten in the New Practice School of the Chicago Normal, Kind.
 London Schools for Invalid and Crippled Children, Mrs. H. Ward, Kind.
 Pictures in the Kindergarten, Katherine Beebe, KindR.
 Prairie Child, The, W. R. Lighton, KindR.
 Sunday School and Religious Education of Children, Kind.
 Knowledge, Primitive Theories of, A. F. Chamberlain, Mon.
 Krupp, Friedrich Alfred, WW.
 Krupp, Friedrich Alfred—The Essen Philanthropist, Elisabeth W. Carden, AMRR.
 Krupps and Their Steel Works at Essen, R. H. Knorr, AMRR.
 Labor:
 British Unionists: What They Saw, M. G. Cunniff, WW.
 Incorporation of Trade-Unions, L. D. Brandels, GBag.
 Labor and Capital: How Shall They be Reconciled? C. F. Adams, West.
 Labor Experiment, A Unique, L. Katscher, Arena.
 Labor Unions, Good and Evil Features of, O. W. Elliot, CasM.
 Non-Union Man versus the "Scab," Gunt.
 Right to Work, R. S. Baker, McCl.
 San Francisco Labor Movement, T. W. Page, PSQ, December.
 Trusts, Labor and the, E. S. Wicklin, Arena.
 Lafayette, General, Unpublished Letters of, Revue, December 15.
 Law as a Profession, J. B. Walker, Cos.
 Law, French, and the French Judicial System, C. F. Beach, Jr., GBag.
 Law, Some Absurdities of the, W. B. Dowd, GBag.
 Leo XIII.: Apostolic Letter on the Institution of a Commission for Biblical Studies, ACQR.
 Leonida, W. H. Pickering, PopA.
 Library of Congress and the Blind, Margarita S. Gerry, Scrib.
 Liquefaction of Gases and Low Temperatures, PopA.
 Literary Controversy, Art of, R. E. Vernebe, Mac.
 Literature, Business Side of, Cham.
 Literature: English Men of Letters—II., G. W. Smalley, McCl.
 Literature of Dirt, Doubt, and Despair, J. T. Smith, ACQR.
 London, Omnibuses in, M. Phillips, Era.
 London, Port of, H. D. le Marchant, NatR.
 London Theaters in Shakespeare's Day, J. J. Jusserand, RPar, December 15.
 London's Oldest Art Club, A. Lawrence, Harp.
 Lorenz, Dr. Adolf, S. S. Sherman, Frl.; W. F. Day, Mun; J. Swain, McCl.
 Louisiana Purchase, and Its Effect, J. A. Foote, Ros.
 Lowell, James Russell, Poetry of—II., H. N. Snyder, Meth.
 Lutheran Revolt, Study of the, J. H. Robinson, AHR.
 Man and Woman, Variation in, H. Ellis, PopS.
 Manitoba Penitentiary, Visit to the, Cham.
 Mankind in the Making—V., H. G. Wells, Cos: Fort.
 Mansfield, Richard, and His Little Boy, G. Kobbé, LHJ.
 Manufactures, American, E. D. Jones, WW.
 Marriage as an Economic Institution, M. E. Robinson, IJE.
 Martineau, James, A. M. Fairbairn, Contem; P. F. Bicknell, Dial, January; West.
 Mascagni, Pietro: An Inquiry, L. Gilman, NAR.
 Masses, Submerged, Promise of Present Efforts to Reach the, F. W. Farrar, Hom.
 Mathematics, Philosophical Foundations of, P. Carus, Mon.
 Medieval Stories, J. F. Hewitt, West.
 Mendel's Law, W. J. Spillman, PopS.
 Metaphysical Movement, New, K. R. Forbes, Mind.
 Meteors and Luminous Phenomena, A. Lacour, Nou, December 15.
 Mexico, An Hour's Visit to, H. S. Kirk, Over, December.
 Mexico, Development of Tropical Agriculture in, S. G. Andrus, NatM.
 Miller, Hugh, and His Centenary, J. M. Clarke, NEng.
 Miners, Non-striking, Story of the, R. S. Baker, McCl.
 Mines, Metalliferous, Management of, A. Williams, Jr., Eng.
 Minneapolis, The Shame of, L. Steffens, McCl.
 Miracles, Mediate, G. F. Wright, Hom.
 Missions:
 Africa, Into the Heart of, DeW. C. Snyder, MisR.
 Australia, "Black Fellows" of, J. T. Hamilton, MisR.
 Christianity in Ancient Rome and Modern India, J. M. Mitchell, MisR.
 Euphrates College, Growth, Influence, and Needs of, M. A. Melcon, MisH.
 Euphrates College, New, H. N. Barnum, MisH.
 Foreign Missions, Testimonies of Great Statesmen to, Belle M. Brain, MisR.
 Gonds, of India, G. K. Gilder, MisR.
 India, Religious Statistics of, MisR.
 Moslems, Methods of Work Among, E. M. Wherry, MisR.
 Zaragoza—False and True Religion, W. H. Gulick, MisH.
 Zululand, Through, on a Bicycle, F. E. Bunker, MisR.
 Mississippi River: The Old Route to Orleans, W. Gibson, Scrib.
 Money Market, The Treasury and the, C. A. Conant, AMRR.
 Monism, Professor Royce and, A. K. Rogers, Phil.
 Monroe Doctrine, R. H. Titherington, Mun.
 Montaigne, Michel de, The Friends of, L. E. Tiddeman, West.
 Montalembert and Lamennais, W. L. Sullivan, Cath.
 Morgan, J. Pierpont: His Advisers and His Organization, J. B. Walker, Cos.
 Mormonism and Its Founder, W. H. Carruth, Dial, January 1.
 Mt. McKinley, Plan for Climbing, A. H. Brooks and D. L. Reaburn, NatGM.
 Municipalization of Public Services, G. Frascara, NA, December 1.
 Music, Orchestral, Future of, W. J. Henderson, Atlant.

- Musical Progress, American, W. S. B. Mathews, Mus, December.
- Naples, The Rising of 1647-1648 in, D. C. Knowlton, AHR.
- Napoleon I.: Return to Paris, H. Houssaye, RDM, January 1.
- Napoleon, The Young—L., Viscount Wolsey, Cos; PMM.
- Napoleon's Imprisonment, New Light on, BB.
- Nast, Thomas, E. Knauff, AMRR.
- National Guard, Military Engineering in the, G. D. Snyder, JMSI.
- Nature, Music of, Helen L. Jones, Cos.
- Navy, The New American—III., J. D. Long, Out.
- New Thought, Psychical Research in the, J. Stewart, Mind.
- New York Chamber of Commerce, A. C. David, Arch.
- New York, Lawlessness of the Police in, W. J. Gaynor, NAR.
- New York, Literary Landmarks of—VI., C. Hemstreet, Crit.
- Newfoundland: The First American Colony, P. T. McGrath, NEng.
- Nile, Barrages of the, C. Hamilton, Cham.
- Ninde, Bishop William X., C. M. Stuart, MethR.
- Nippur, Revelations at, A. Sutherland, Era.
- North Pole, The Way to the, A. McGray, NatM.
- Norway Salmon-River, G. W. Hartley, Black.
- Novel, Decay of the: A Symposium, YM.
- Novel, Decay of the, B. Swift, Crit.
- Novel, The, and Contemporary English Society, Mary Moss, Bkman.
- Old Testament, Latest Criticism and the Canon of the, W. M. McPheeters, Hom.
- Othello on the Stage, G. Crosse, Mac.
- Panics and Depressions, Individual Responsibility for, WW.
- "Paradise Lost," Similes in, H. C. T. Franklin, Temp.
- Paris Pawnshops, C. Moffett, Cent.
- Paris, the City of Beautiful Women, V. Thompson, Cos.
- Passionist Fathers, Golden Jubilee of the, Cath.
- Pastor Among His People, W. H. Mayhew, NC.
- Pelicans, The City of, H. K. Job, O.
- Persia and the Persians in Our Time, M. Delines, BU.
- Philippines, Christmas in the, W. O. McGeehan, Over, December.
- Philippines, Disposition of the, Rebecca J. Taylor, Arena.
- Philippines: Essential Unity of Filipino Dialects, D. J. Doherty, Gunt.
- Phillips, Stephen, Dramas of, R. T. Kerlin, Meth.
- Photography:
- Architectural Photography—XII., H. C. Delery, PhoT, December.
- Chicago Photographic Salon, Third, S. L. Willard, BP.
- Child Portraiture, J. A. Tennant, WPM, December.
- Color Photography by the Lumiere Process, PhoT., December.
- Color Photography, Century's Progress in, G. L. Johnson, PhoT, December.
- Composite Pictures, J. P. St. Clair, CDR.
- Composition, Some Principles of, L. A. Osborne, CDR.
- Dark Room, Ideal, PopA.
- Development, F. Voittier, CDR.
- Development, Control in, F. J. Clute, PhoT, December.
- Electric Light in the Studio, WPM, December.
- Flashlight Portraiture, W. H. Dunham, PhoT, December.
- Hardening Gelatine Films, H. W. Bennett, WPM, December.
- Hydrofluoric Acid, Uses of, R. Thirsk, WPM, December.
- Lantern, Enlarging, How to Make an, L. A. Osborne, CDR.
- Lenses, A Few Points on, J. K. Holbrook, CDR.
- Natural Colors Upon Paper, Photography in, C. Worel, PhoT, December.
- Negatives, Systematic Method of Filing, R. Lee, CDR.
- Photography, Early Days of, W. Zimmerman, CDR.
- Pine, California's Unique, Helen L. Jones, OutW, December.
- Plague, Bubonic, in San Francisco, San, December.
- Planetary Observations, W. F. Denning, PopA.
- Plants of Crystal (Diatoms), A. Mann, Harp.
- Poe, Edgar Allan: A Pilgrimage to His Cottage at Fordham, New York, Lida R. McCabe, BB.
- Poe-Chivers Papers, Edited by G. E. Woodberry, Cent.
- Polar Expedition of the Duke of Abruzzi, F. de Filippi, NA, December 16.
- Polar Pack, Sledging Over the, R. E. Peary, O.
- Political Affairs, American, H. L. West, Forum.
- Political Life, Perils and Rewards of, J. McCarthy, YM.
- Ponies of the New Forest, E. T. Sheaf, O.
- Population, City and Country, Proportion of, F. A. Ogg, WW.
- Porto Rico, Christmas in, P. G. Miller, Over, December.
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- Pacific, Russia's Quest of the, F. A. Ogg, Chant.
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- Smoke, Treatment of: A Sanitary Parallel, W. N. Shaw, San, December.
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 Zola, Emile, V. Wilker, MethR; E. A. Vizetelly, PMM.

Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

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| ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila. | Edin. Edinburgh Review, London. | NC. New-Church Review, Boston. |
| AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y. | Ed. Education, Boston. | NEng. New England Magazine, Boston. |
| AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago. | EdR. Educational Review, N. Y. | NineC. Nineteenth Century, London. |
| AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago. | Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y. | NAR. North American Review, N. Y. |
| ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis. | Era. Philadelphia. | Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris. |
| AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C. | EM. España Moderna, Madrid. | NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome. |
| AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y. | Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y. | OC. Open Court, Chicago. |
| ANat. American Naturalist, Boston. | Fort. Fortnightly Review, London. | O. Outing, N. Y. |
| AngA. Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y. | Forum. Forum, N. Y. | OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal. |
| Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila. | FL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y. | Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco. |
| Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y. | Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London. | PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London. |
| Arena. Arena, N. Y. | GBag. Green Bag, Boston. | Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y. |
| AA. Art Amateur, N. Y. | Gunt. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y. | Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y. |
| AI. Art Interchange, N. Y. | Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y. | PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y. |
| AJ. Art Journal, London. | Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn. | PL. Poet-Lore, Boston. |
| Atlant. Atlantic Monthly, Boston. | Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y. | PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston. |
| Bad. Badminton, London. | IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila. | PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn. |
| BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London. | Int. International Studio, N. Y. | PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N. Y. |
| BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y. | JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H. | PRR. Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila. |
| Bib. Biblical World, Chicago. | JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago. | QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston. |
| BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O. | Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago. | QR. Quarterly Review, London. |
| BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne. | KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass. | RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence. |
| Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh. | LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila. | RefS. Réforme Sociale, Paris. |
| BB. Book Buyer, N. Y. | LeisH. Leisure Hour, London. | RRL. Review of Reviews, London. |
| BL. Book-Lover, N. Y. | Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila. | RRM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne. |
| Bkman. Bookman, N. Y. | LQ. London Quarterly Review, London. | Revue. Revue, La, Paris. |
| BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago. | Long. Longman's Magazine, London. | RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris. |
| CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y. | Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa. | RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels. |
| Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto. | McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y. | RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris. |
| Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London. | Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London. | RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris. |
| CasM. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y. | MA. Magazine of Art, London. | RSoc. Revue Socialistic, Paris. |
| Cath. Catholic World, N. Y. | Meth. Methodist Quarterly, Nashville. | Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio. |
| Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y. | MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y. | San. Sanitarian, N. Y. |
| Cham. Chambers' Journal, Edinburgh. | Mind. Mind, N. Y. | School. School Review, Chicago. |
| Chaut. Chautauquan, Chicago. | MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston. | Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| Contem. Contemporary Review, London. | MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y. | SR. Sewanee Review, N. Y. |
| Corn. Cornhill, London. | Mon. Monist, Chicago. | SocS. Social Service, N. Y. |
| Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y. | MonR. Monthly Review, London. | Str. Strand Magazine, London. |
| CLA. Country Life in America, N. Y. | MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y. | Temp. Temple Bar, London. |
| Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y. | Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y. | USM. United Service Magazine, London. |
| Crit. Critic, N. Y. | Mus. Music, Chicago. | West. Westminster Review, London. |
| Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart. | NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C. | WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y. |
| Dial. Dial, Chicago. | NatM. National Magazine, Boston. | WW. World's Work, N. Y. |
| Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin. | NatR. National Review, London. | Yale. Yale Review, New Haven. |
| | | YM. Young Man, London. |
| | | YW. Young Woman, London. |

WHY IS THERE TROUBLE IN SOUTH AMERICA?

BY JACK ST. ARMONT.

DID it ever occur to you how little we know about the South American continent? Have you stopped to consider the vastness of this "better half" of ours, trailing on at the other end of the isthmus?

Recent events have concentrated public attention upon that vast section of country lying between the Caribbean Sea and the watershed of the great Amazon, containing but about 2,750,000 souls, and yet powerful enough to embroil in controversy the three greatest nations of the world. There must be some reason for this interest which has sent into the Caribbean Sea a portion of the war fleets of five nations. There certainly is a reason, and Germany, with her merchants scattered throughout Venezuela, would feel the loss of that trade keenly. Great Britain, with her money tied up in various ways in enterprises which have paid heavy dividends in times gone by, does not care particularly to have her revenues from this quarter cut off. Even little Italy would miss some revenue, Belgium considerably more, while the United States would feel the loss of commerce most heavily. But these are not the reasons for this controversy.

The United States will soon have thousands of men digging a canal not very far from the present seat of operations, which she will control (naturally), and will be looked upon to strictly maintain the Monroe Doctrine in a country in which millions of good American dollars are invested annually—for big returns.

Germany and Great Britain are keenly alive to this contingency, and cognizant of the fact that sixty years behind the times is this South American country, and only waiting for the aggressive American, with his experience and foresight, to open up the possibilities that now lie unworked, uncared for, and not generally known. Those who do know are making the best of the knowledge, but a few men cannot take advantage of a continent full of golden opportunities.

The seaports of Venezuela are open to the world; the harbors sheltered, anchorage unexcelled; the mountains full of precious metals; the forests, of almost priceless woods, stand in their primeval vastness, and the soil will produce

two to three crops per year of any cereal or vegetable plantage. The republic offers all the advantages of the temperate zone for health and agriculture, and the still greater advantages of the torrid zone.

THE WORLD-FAMOUS AMAZONAS.

The Amazon River through Brazil, its great tributaries Rio Negro and the Casiquiare, and its connection with the Rio Orinoco, form the greatest watershed in the world, and drain an area equal in extent to the entire United States. This famous belt is the Mecca toward which the commercial world is turning. In this region grow wild and luxuriant the banana palm, the breadfruit, pineapple, rosewood, teak, mahogany, and valuable dye woods; cacao, tonka, vanilla, cinchona, and various other trees producing essentials for pharmaceutical preparations. Here grows also in its native element a tree indigenous to the soil and zone, a tree in the cultivation of which, by transplanting, millions of dollars have been and are being expended, but so far without commercial success, if we are to believe so high an authority as Mr. O. F. Cook, botanical expert in charge of investigations in tropical agriculture (found in the Year Book of the United States, Department of Agriculture, 1901).

Men of learning and erudition have variously named this tree *syringa*, *syphonia elastica*, and *Hevea Braziliensis*,—but commonly and correctly this wonderful tree is known as rubber.

The uses of rubber are well-nigh infinite, since the genius of Goodyear discovered a scientific treatment of the milk which gave to the world a commercial product of extraordinary value in the arts of modern civilization. In its soft vulcanized form it is used for elastics, air cushions, boots and shoes, clothing for man and horse, belting, etc. The hard vulcanized rubber, or vulcanite, is used in the manufacture of penholders, buttons, statuary, jewelry, and thousands of other articles of daily utility. Rubber as an insulator for electrical appliances has made possible the application of this wonderful power to daily and common use, and chroniclers now write of this as the "electrical age," but historians will write of the "rubber age," which this truly is. Were the Pacific cable to be manufactured this year it

would require the entire visible supply of rubber in the United States to-day for insulation. The rubber factories of the United States use annually 60,000,000 pounds of crude material, and the imports of rubber into this country are exceeded in value and quantity by sugar and coffee alone, and no duty is imposed on its importation.

Some two hundred years ago certain wise men of India, given to research and investigation, discovered that a useful and marketable product could be made from the cream arising from the milk of the rubber tree,—hence the name "India rubber" still clings.

PARA THE GATEWAY.

For nearly one hundred years the Amazonas belt has furnished the finest quality of rubber produced in the world, commercially known as Para, on account of the shipments being made through the port of Para, at the mouth of the Amazon, in Brazil. Most of the rubber used in the world to-day still comes from equatorial South America, and the up-river forests, where the Indians gather the hule, are as dense to-day and as little known as in the time of Cortez.

Para is a rather pretty city of about 100,000 people, and a regular call port for seven lines of ocean-going steamers. The public buildings are well built and picturesque. The streets are fairly wide, and are equipped with car lines, electric lights, and all modern conveniences. Hotel accommodations are good, and in the markets one can purchase wares from all parts of the world, though to do so advantageously one must be a good "trader." Portuguese is the language spoken, though one can get along very nicely with the more liquid Spanish.

Leaving Para on the full tide, which rolls in from the ocean with a roar and raises the water at the wharf 60 feet, we steam away on an ocean liner of from 4,000 to 6,000 tons, passing through the inner channel by beautifully wooded islands and into the majestic Amazon, which at this point is three miles wide. The banks are covered with tropical verdure, from the Macao, with its wide beautifully marked leaves, and the wild rice gracefully waving in the morning breeze, to the majestic rosewood, mahogany, teak, and ironwood, while the banana palm, the breadfruit, and the banyan trees add their plumes and undulating foliage to the brilliant sea of green. From the trunks and branches of the larger trees cling, depend, and gracefully droop delicate vines whose darker greens, beautiful flowers, and berries add a lacelike tracery to the picture. Through the branches of the forest flit birds of paradise, cockatoos, parrots,

and hundreds of others of beautiful plumage, while monkeys, sloths, ant-eaters, and others of the animal kingdom give an air of native life and activity to the scene which is only occasionally marred by the appearance of a cobra, anaconda, crocodile, or lizard.

MANAOS, THE RUBBER CENTER.

After two delightful nights and two days of languid siesta upon the broad decks of our steamer, we tie up at the wharf used by the Para Company at Manaos, just as the sun rises over the gilded spire of the cathedral, bathing this picturesque half Spanish, half Portuguese city in a flood of light. The most prominent feature of this city of 60,000 people is the shipment of rubber, just as the shipment of tobacco is the prominent feature of Havana. All the exporting section of the city is occupied by packing houses, where the rubber is boxed for shipment. The well-paved streets are given over to stores of varied merchandise collected from the marts of the world. Electric cars, arc lights, telephones, and all the comforts of home abound under most intelligent management. The streets are wide, and lined with tropical trees, and, with their little tables for refreshment, they remind one somewhat of Paris.

In this city, in magnificent style, live the owners of many of the rubber properties in the Amazonas, and officials representing companies that have capitals of millions, who manage their rubber enterprises after modern business methods. Here also reside merchants who have grown rich in the handling of the commodities and merchandise used by the "men in the woods." Since the almost complete and ruthless devastation of the rubber forests below Manaos the traders have moved from Para, and created in Manaos to-day the rubber center of the world. From other parts, last year, was shipped fifty million dollars' worth of the crude product.

The social life is divided into three distinct castes, or classes,—the high, middle, and low class, from the two lower of which it is impossible to rise after once being established. Theaters, churches, beautiful drives, and yachting on river, together with varied social functions, afford ample amusement and relaxation in this languid environment. From 11 A.M. to 3 P.M. the stores are closed, the streets being practically deserted during these hours of siesta.

UP THE RIO NEGRO.

Taking one of the steamers of the Para Rubber Plantation Company at 9:30 P.M., we leave the glittering lights of the city behind, sail out on the Amazon, and so on into the Rio

Negro, where the banks are closer together, the overhanging trees occasionally almost shutting out the moonlight entirely. From this point the scenery is too wildly interesting and tropical for description,—most beautiful, enchanting.

THE RIO CASIQUIARE.

Arriving at San Carlos, the head trading station of the Para Rubber Plantation Company, a town mainly controlled by this great company, situated at the mouth of the Rio Casiquiare, where it empties into the Rio Negro, we find a typical jungle trading station,—the streets irregular, the houses built mainly of bamboo, thatched and walled with palm leaves. We are royally entertained by Mr. Kenneth Rose, the general manager for the company, and sleep the sleep of the just upon a bed of matting and cocoa silk. Early in the morning we take the launch for a trip up the Rio Casiquiare, a winding river running for 175 miles through an open jungle of tropical trees: all the valuable woods seen on the Amazon and more, acres and miles of them, for the company owns 1,000,000 acres, or 1,400 square miles, of territory running the entire length of the Casiquiare River, from the Rio Orinoco to the Rio Negro, passing the mouths of thirty-six creeks which drain the country into this river. The most noticeable tree in this jungle, however, is the thick, dark green leaved *rubber*, whose rich foliage is seen on every hand, and we are told that a careful cruising of the property has figured six trees to the acre, or 6,000,000 rubber trees over fifteen years old, besides countless numbers of younger plants rapidly growing to maturity. The tree grows in families, somewhat like the famed banyan tree; the roots of the parent trunk sprout and grow independent trunks, while the branches send creepers downward to, in turn, take root. Station No. 3, at the confluence of the Danano Creek, is reached about noontime, and after a lunch of tinned delicacies and native wine, made from a species of the palm, we take to the "tracks," as the paths or routes followed by the sap gatherers on their daily rounds,—carefully mapped out for them by the foreman of the station each season,—are called. These tracks oftentimes extend to the confines of the company's property, five miles on one side and three miles on the other side of the river throughout its entire length.

IN THE "TRACKS."

The natives of this tract are Indians,—peaceable, quiet, and semi-industrious, docile, and capable of being easily managed by one understanding their temperament. They are formed

into squads of twenty to fifty men and women, each bearing six to ten metal bowls holding about a pint, and a "carrina," or earthen jug, of a capacity of perhaps two gallons. The overseer marches his band into one of the "tracks," dropping a gatherer here and there, with instructions to take from five to ten bowls of milk from such a tree. It is a fact known to science that if a rubber tree is not abused it will produce milk in abundance for thirty or forty years,—all the trees of this company are scrupulously cared for. With a machete having a blade about two inches wide, a small gash is made through the outer bark, beneath which is pinned a bowl, into which the clear, milky sap soon begins to drip. This process is continued until all the bowls are in commission. Lighting a cigarette, the native then sits or lies in a soft spot for two or three hours, then commences the collection of his day's output by going from tree to tree, emptying his little bowls into his carrina, and when all are attended to the march for home is begun, being joined on the way by his companions of the morning.

The contents of the carrina is then emptied into a sort of vat, and soon the cream rises to the top like cream on milk, forming a thick grayish-white scum. A fire is built beside the vat; on a paddle is collected a little of the cream, which is held over the fire and turned over and over constantly until the moisture evaporates and the mass hardens, when the process is repeated until a ball about the size of a small ham is formed, weighing perhaps 20 pounds. This is known to commerce as a "ham," and in such shape, cured in this manner, free from sticks, stones, and other foreign matter, it is ready for the weigher, who credits up its weight to the gatherer or immediately pays for it;—so many yards of bright calico, rice, coffee, sugar, maize, so many beads, small mirrors, other showy trinkets or tobacco, which comprise the only medium of barter in this primitive paradise. The cost of rubber to the company is figured at about 35 cents per pound packed for shipment, and sells in New York for 88 cents per pound.

AN ELASTIC SOLUTION.

This vast tract of the most valuable rubber-producing land in the world has been bought and is owned and held in fee simple, without bond or debt, by the Para Rubber Plantation Company, a United States corporation. They have organized and are operating the property on the lines adopted and carried out, through long years of successful effort, by the well-known Hudson Bay Company in the gathering of furs, and by John Jacob Astor, the founder of the Astor fortune.

A head station has been established at San Carlos, commanding the mouth of their river, so that it is an impossibility for goods to be taken in or rubber smuggled out without the knowledge of the factor in charge. Up the river, at convenient points, are located other stations, each under a competent manager or overseer, where are carried all the merchandise used or needed by the hunters, and where is collected the result of their labors, to be stored until called for by one of the company's steamers, for shipment to the main packing station. This is, beyond all doubt, one of the world's greatest enterprises, giving promise of large returns upon the money expended, with great possibilities for future developments along the most diversified lines; but were rubber alone the only source of income, the profits would be enormous.

As already stated, the company owns about 6,000,000 wild trees,—not a nursery for transplanted stock, which has never proved a success. Each tree produces about 5 pounds of rubber, which would make for the entire property 30,000,000 pounds a year,—all of which facts convey some idea of the future for all who are interested in rubber, and especially so when that interest comes through a company whose plans are on lines similar to those of the great companies above mentioned.

For markets, even if the demand of American manufacturers should be entirely supplied at a given time, the manufacturers of Europe would at once outbid each other to secure the raw material. And as for the profits on rubber made through European channels, there is no better-known instance of a fortune made than that accumulated by the King of the Belgians through his ownership of rubber forests in his Congo region in Africa.

With the foregoing outline of what the rubber industry is, and what relation the Para Rubber Plantation Company bears to the rubber industry, it is the purpose of this article to inform the readers of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* that a

fortune has been spent in preliminary operations by the company. This money has been expended acquiring the property and in the establishment of camps and trading posts, and it is now the purpose of the company to sell a limited amount of its treasury stock for further exploitation.

The Para Rubber Plantation Company has an authorized capital of \$5,000,000, divided into 500,000 shares of common stock, of a value of \$10 per share. There is but one kind of stock, and no bond issue; the officers are all well-known financiers and men of affairs, who have made a signal success in their own enterprises, outside of which their names have rarely appeared, which guarantees honorable, energetic management, and a financial interest with this class of men affords an opportunity seldom offered the public.

The stock will be sold at its par value of \$10.00 a share, and there are no bonds or preferred stock. In view of the foregoing, the officers of the company feel that they are very conservative in assuring investors that present prospects warrant their looking forward to a dividend of 6 per cent. from the first year's earnings, and it will be seen at a glance that the natural and available resources of the company are such that this dividend will be immediately and largely increased.

We desire to emphasize that the above calculation of a 6-per-cent. dividend is based on the employment of but 2,000 laborers, and this company owns sufficient territory to give employment to the 40,000 who are available. It is unnecessary to say more. The great immediate and prospective value of the stock is apparent at a glance.

For further particulars and illustrated booklet, giving full information relative to the company, call on or address Para Rubber Plantation Company, Department C, 52 Broadway, New York City. Canadian office, 64 Canadian Life, Montreal.

(Review of Reviews Advertising Supplement.)



THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO AND HIS SUITE LEAVING FEZ.

(An incident of the current civil war in Morocco. See article on page 298.)

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Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

A Great Citizen and Exemplar. In the death, last month, of the Hon. J. L. M. Curry, this country lost one of its greatest citizens, and in the truest sense of the word one of its most profound statesmen. His career should inspire all our young men,—especially those of the South. Dr. Curry was almost seventy-eight years old. He had been earnest and active in public affairs,—always and everywhere a natural leader and a man of mark,—since he entered the Alabama Legislature at the age of twenty-one in 1847, having served in the Mexican War the year before. He had graduated from the University of Georgia at eighteen, and from the Harvard Law School at twenty. While a mere boy, he had joined Col. Jack Hayes' famous "Texas Rangers," fought for the freedom of the Lone Star State, and received a grant of land from Congress for his services. After ten years of activity and prominence in the State affairs of Alabama, he was elected to Congress at the age of thirty-one, and served until the outbreak of the Civil War, when he went with his State into the secession movement. He passed, in 1861 without interval of time, from membership in the Federal Congress to prominence in the Congress of the Confederate States. He was a member of that Congress until its dissolution in 1865. He served with Toombs and other eminent leaders of the South upon the committee which drafted that interesting and, in many respects, superior and even monumental document, the written constitution of the Confederacy. Meanwhile, he managed to unite civilian service as a Confederate Congressman with no small amount of military service at the front, and was an aide on the staff of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, and, later, on that of Gen. Joseph Wheeler, while in the last year of the war he was a lieutenant-colonel of Alabama cavalry. He was chosen by the Confederate Congress to write the last address and appeal to the Army of Northern Virginia. Such was his record, to the age of forty.

An Apostle of Education. Like his great leader Robert E. Lee, Dr. Curry accepted the results of the war immediately and in good faith. And, also, like General Lee, he entered at once upon an educational career,—holding the view that along with material and political reorganization there was great work to be done in the upbuilding of the schools and colleges of the Southern States and in the training of a new generation to set its face hopefully toward the bright possibilities of the future. It was not given to General Lee to remain very long at his last post of service. Lee took the presidency of Washington University at Lexington, Va., in 1865, and died in 1870. Dr. Curry took the presidency of Howard College, Alabama, in 1865, and after three years went to Richmond College, Virginia, where he remained in active work until 1881, when he was appointed agent of the Peabody Fund, and entered upon a larger ministry of educational service for the entire South which did not cease until his death last month and which will be the basis of his most enduring fame. When Mr. Cleveland became President in 1885, he sought to identify some of the foremost citizens of the South with his administration, and he offered Dr. Curry the post of United States minister to Spain. The trustees of the Peabody Fund lent Dr. Curry to the government service for a period of three years, at the end of which well-earned furlough,—coming as it did after forty years of continuous activity in Southern affairs, from the accession of James K. Polk to the accession of Grover Cleveland,—he returned to his apostolate of Southern education, and gave to it with unflagging zeal and energy the closing fifteen years of his long life.

Father of the New Educational South. Through his statesman-like administration of the Peabody Fund he had fostered the establishment and growth of normal schools throughout the South for the training of teachers, and had been able by judi-

cious aid at opportune moments to promote the establishment in all the larger cities and towns of modern graded schools supported by local taxation. When, subsequently, the Slater Fund for the promotion of negro education was created, Dr. Curry was made one of its trustees and chairman of its education committee; so that, from 1890 until the present year, he administered that important fund in addition to his work as executive officer for the Peabody trustees. As representative of the Slater Fund he had promptly recognized the tremendous value of the work General Armstrong and Dr. Frissell were doing at Hampton, and that Booker T. Washington had entered upon at Tuskegee,—these being only two instances of the many good schools for negroes that he had investigated and had been enabled to assist. When the new movement now carried on under direction of the Southern Education Board was launched, Dr. Curry was its most eloquent exponent, and was appointed its field director. The object of this movement was to awaken the South to the absolute necessity of improving the common schools and providing, especially in the country districts, for the better education of the children of both races. It was essentially a Southern movement, under the leadership of Southern men, though with the harmonious coöperation of many people in the North. Closely associated with this movement was the latest one of all, which, under the name of the General Education Board, has been at work for the past year, and which was a month ago incorporated at Washington by virtue of a special act of Congress. Dr. Curry was also an honored member of this General Board, which is fostering educational progress in the South by giving some money, as well as much advice and encouragement, to the aid of various local movements for better-prepared teachers and a better kind of schools. To these causes Dr. Curry gave unstinted zeal and devotion.

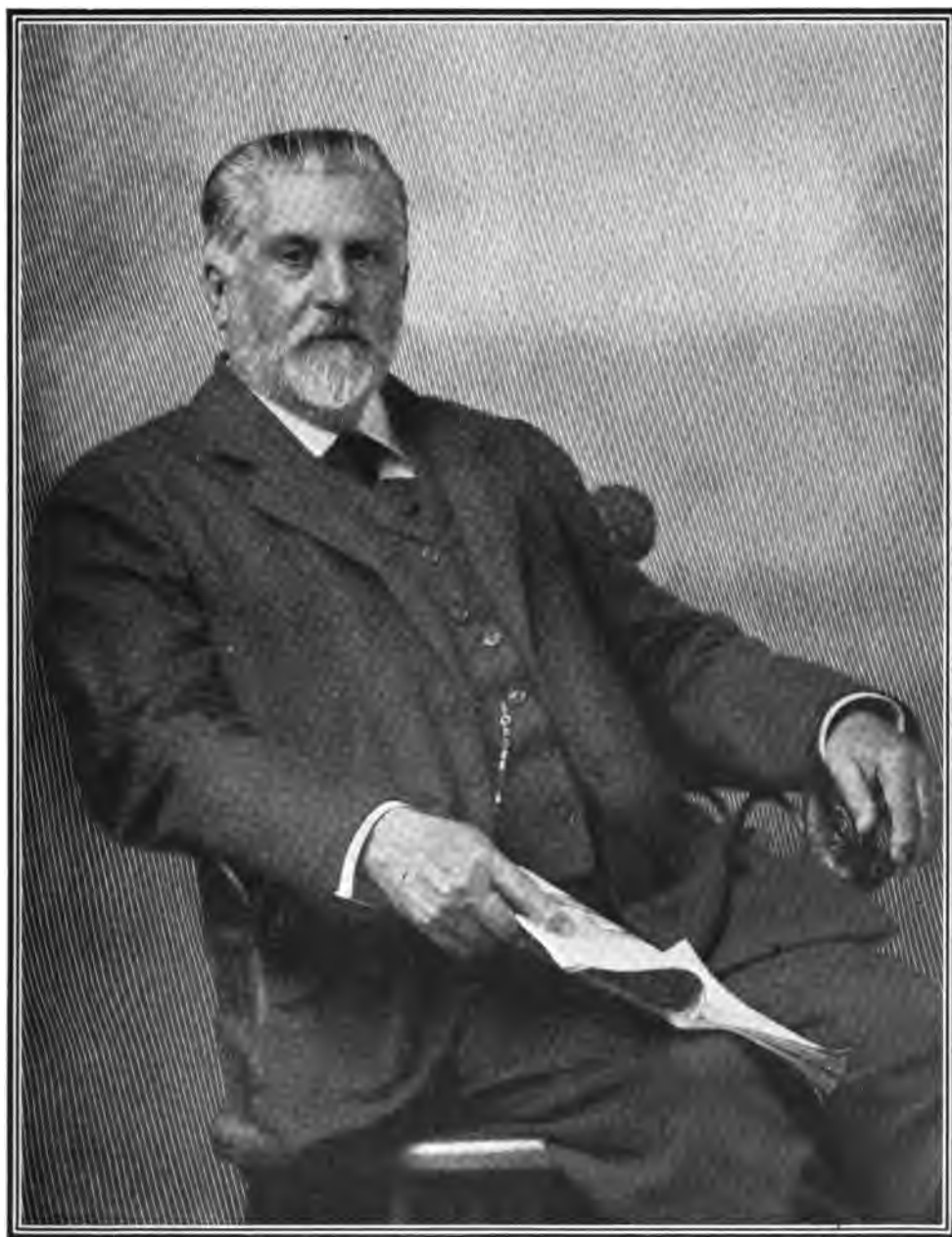
*A Harmonizer
of Sections
and Races.*

Dr. Curry had probably a wider acquaintance and a greater personal influence than any other man throughout the entire South. He had rare gifts of eloquence, a broad love of humanity, an unwavering faith in God and country, and a patriotism as fervent as any man could possibly possess. Dr. Curry was, moreover, a great harmonizer. He rose above all sectional feeling, and never ceased to do all in his power to promote good understanding between the North and the South. He appreciated thoroughly the difficulties involved in the Southern race problem, but never ceased to work to make those difficulties less and to promote the truest interests in both races. Hav-

ing enjoyed peculiarly agreeable relations with the government and reigning dynasty of Spain when minister at Madrid, he was the man best fitted to be sent to represent the United States at the coronation of the young Spanish king. The mission was a delicate one, in view of the fact that so short a time had elapsed since we had destroyed the Spanish fleets and stripped Spain of all that was left of her island empire in two hemispheres. President Roosevelt, who appreciated the greatness of Dr. Curry's public services, expressed the keenest pleasure in having the privilege of appointing him as our special ambassador on occasion of the brilliant functions at Madrid, and the selection was well justified. Dr. Curry was treated with greater deference and kindness than any other of the envoys who represented the sovereigns, courts, and governments of the nations; and thus his brief ceremonial mission to Madrid was of appreciable value in helping to restore friendly feeling between the American and Spanish peoples.

*A Mentor
on Southern
Questions.*

There was hardly another man in the country surviving to the present day who had so large a fund of interesting reminiscences as Dr. Curry. He has written upon the constitutional aspects of the Confederacy, and we could wish that he had given us an elaborate personal narrative of men and times in the South from 1845 to 1865. But Dr. Curry never laid aside the harness of incessant contemporary labor long enough to devote himself to the leisurely writing of reminiscences. He lived much more in the present and the future than in the past. To the very end, he was younger in spirit than many a man of only half his years. We can none of us be experts in many fields of knowledge, or wise at first-hand about many matters of public concern. We should be willing, therefore, to repose faith in others and to select and follow safe leaders. There were some of us in the North who had found out long ago that we could not be altogether wise at first-hand about current Southern problems of politics, industry, education, race, and society. And, this being the case, we had learned to accept with good conscience and without misgiving the views of certain people who had won the right to speak as experts and with first-hand authority. The foremost of these men, upon the whole, was Dr. J. L. M. Curry. There are, indeed, men in Boston who take a deep interest in the race problems of the South and whose motives are sincere and altruistic; but none of them understand the situation half as well as did Dr. Curry. Fortunate, therefore, were those who were willing to sit at the feet of so great and so wise a man.



THE LATE JABEZ LAMAR MONROE CURRY, LL.D.

A Group of Successors. It was Dr. Curry's good fortune and great joy to live long enough to see younger men come forward in the South as true educational leaders, some of them in politics, some in teaching work or school administration, and some in other callings. Such men in politics are typified by the present brilliant, eloquent, and courageous Governor of Vir-

ginia, the Hon. A. J. Montague, and that effective and virile public character, the Hon. Charles Aycock, now Governor of North Carolina. Another is the new Governor of Tennessee, the Hon. James B. Frazier; and various others could be named in the Southern States—governors, state superintendents of education, and others in official life—working for educational reform



GOV. A. J. MONTAGUE, OF VIRGINIA.
(An eloquent advocate of education.)

and progress, not merely with zeal, but also with remarkable intelligence and efficiency. Among professional educators, on the other hand, the South can now present a galaxy of names of men qualified in every way. They are as broad as the continent in their patriotism. They are absolutely conscientious in their sense of duty toward the children of the inferior race. With their political associates of the type of men already named, they are as fit for high leadership as were the great men that the South gave us in the early days of the republic.

*Marks of
Concrete
Progress.*

When Dr. Curry entered on his great educational crusade as agent of the Peabody Fund there was no public-school system at all in any State of the South. He lived to see a public-school system established in every State. When he began, there was not a legislature in favor of free schools, nor a college or university willing to coöperate. He addressed the legislatures and urged school taxes and appropriations. He opposed the universities and schools in their conservative position. He saw the legislatures one by one yield to his arguments; and in due time the colleges and universities became not only reconciled to free public schools, but began one after another to establish departments for the training of public-school teachers. The legislatures would have given him almost any political honors; and

as for the universities, fourteen of them offered him their presidencies with flattering inducements. He had lived to see wonderful progress, and he had a right to believe in the future.

*Confidence and
Hope as the
Watchwords.*

As almost the last of the grand old men who belonged equally to the former and the latter times, Dr. Curry was full of hope and encouragement as he looked about him, noted the advancement that the South had made since the war, and, further, noted the present tendencies. Now, it happens that the past few weeks have been full of a fresh discussion of race problems and tendencies in the South, and there has been a vast amount of pessimistic and unpleasant speaking and writing. We prefer to believe that much that has been said on both sides is due to misunderstanding, and does not represent actual conditions in true perspective. Dr. Curry's judgment was far too solid to be affected by temporary fluctuations of sentiment. He knew as a matter of fact that both races in the South had made marvelous progress since the war. He knew that in spite of various difficulties and so-called "problems," the present status of the South is much the best that the section has ever known. He saw that the continued superiority of the white race had merely to depend upon its taking due pains to be sure that it could truly meet every test by which superiority should be measured. He knew that the growth of the white race of the South in prosperity, intelligence, and character must inevitably benefit the negro race; while, on the other hand, he saw clearly that the improvement of the negro as a man and a worker was of unqualified advantage to the other race and to the whole South. In short, he proclaimed to the very last the gospel of mutual confidence and of unclouded hopefulness.

*Lessons for
North and
South.*

All that precedes has been said, not merely to eulogize a great leader who has finished his work and gone to his reward, although that, too, were well worth the doing for its own sake. It has been said here and now because Dr. Curry's career and his well-known views convey a lesson of peculiar timeliness to the people of all sections of this country. Dr. Curry stood for two things: first, for the complete acceptance of national unity; and, second, for hard, steady, and effective work to make his own part of the country worth living in for all its people. The concrete lesson for the North just at this moment is that the South can and must be trusted in the hands of its own leaders. In most of the Southern States, new laws exclude nearly all the negroes from the

elective franchise on the ground either of illiteracy or of non-payment of poll taxes. A very large percentage of the white men are also excluded under the same laws. On their face, those laws do not, except in some temporary provisions, discriminate as to race. In the application of the tests there is doubtless danger that competent negroes here and there may be excluded. The main situation, however, which some of the Northern newspapers rail at as "the disfranchisement of the negro race," is, legally and on its face, nothing different from that which exists in the State of Massachusetts, where illiterate citizens, regardless of race, are not allowed to vote. In no part of the South are franchise conditions half as bad as they are in the Northern Republican city of Philadelphia.

Hopeful Position of the Negro.

If it can be shown that Southern States are proposing to do their best in good faith, as we know that some of them are, to provide free schools for negro children as well as for white children, and if negroes, as well as whites, have a fair chance to earn money and save it, to buy and hold property, and to take part freely in the industrial and economic life, then it ought to be plain that the negro's future is in his own hands, and that his return to the polls and to office-holding can safely be left to time. At this very moment, in spite of the alarm expressed in certain Northern newspapers, the conditions surrounding the Southern negro are the most promising and hopeful of any that he has ever known. When Secretary Root in his speech before the Union League Club of New York last month remarked that negro suffrage in the South had been a



DR. CHARLES D. M'IVER.

(President of the Normal School at Greensboro, N. C., and now the South's most indefatigable and eloquent worker for popular education.)

failure, he was not necessarily passing adverse criticism upon either race. He was merely reciting a fact in the history of our own times, than which no other fact could well be more obvious. But with a new and careful start on the basis of education, property, and good citizenship, there is no reason why negro suffrage should not gradually come to be successful and useful from the standpoint of both races. This one thing ought to be plain: if negro suffrage is not, in so far as it goes, for the good of the white citizens of the South, it can never be good for the negroes themselves. In other words, the political privileges of citizenship, if exercised wisely, must be for the good of the whole community; while if exercised unwisely, they cannot be for the good of any element whatsoever. Anybody in the North whose mind is disturbed by the Southern conditions, and who would like to help make them better, could be sure of aiding both races and receiving the thanks of both by contributing to the funds for current use at the disposal of such a body as the General Education Board.



LET EACH SWEEP HIS OWN SIDEWALK.
From the Brooklyn Eagle (New York).

A Word to Negro Leaders.

Meanwhile, if certain people in the North have been unwise in their attitude of distrust toward the South, there are also lessons that both races in the South

should take deeply to heart. The best negroes of the South, for example, should ally themselves much more closely than heretofore with their best and wisest white neighbors. The intelligent negroes, moreover, should do all in their power to suppress the professional negro agitators, whose voices have been too much heard in the past month. Furthermore, the best negroes should also make it clear that they have no sympathy with such a futile bill as Senator Hanna introduced at Washington last month to provide pensions for all surviving ex-slaves. Finally, wise negroes should see that office-holding just now in the South does the race no good, and should adopt as their motto, "Less politics, more education and prosperity."

*A Hint Also
to White
Leaders.*

The best white men of the South, on the other hand, should form a society for the suppression of false and improper statements about the President of the United States. The South has never had a better friend in the White House than Theodore Roosevelt. The South has most criticised the President for a matter the facts of which it never understood. The White House at present is a very busy place; its occupant works from early morning till late at night. Many a man breaks bread there in the middle of the day whose sole errand

is business, and who never for a moment suspects that he is there out of social consideration. We happen to know that Mr. Booker Washington, on his way from New York to Alabama one day last year, broke journey at Washington in order to urge upon the President the advisability of appointing white Democrats of the best class to federal offices in the South, and to assure the President that the best negroes would not oppose such a policy. It may be that the President detained this influential negro at the luncheon hour to continue the political talk. It is not impossible, indeed, that food and drink were offered to the hard-working and unselfish man who was there giving his time with no thought of his own social, or political, or personal advantage. It is a subject that wise men of the South will see the good sense of dropping altogether.

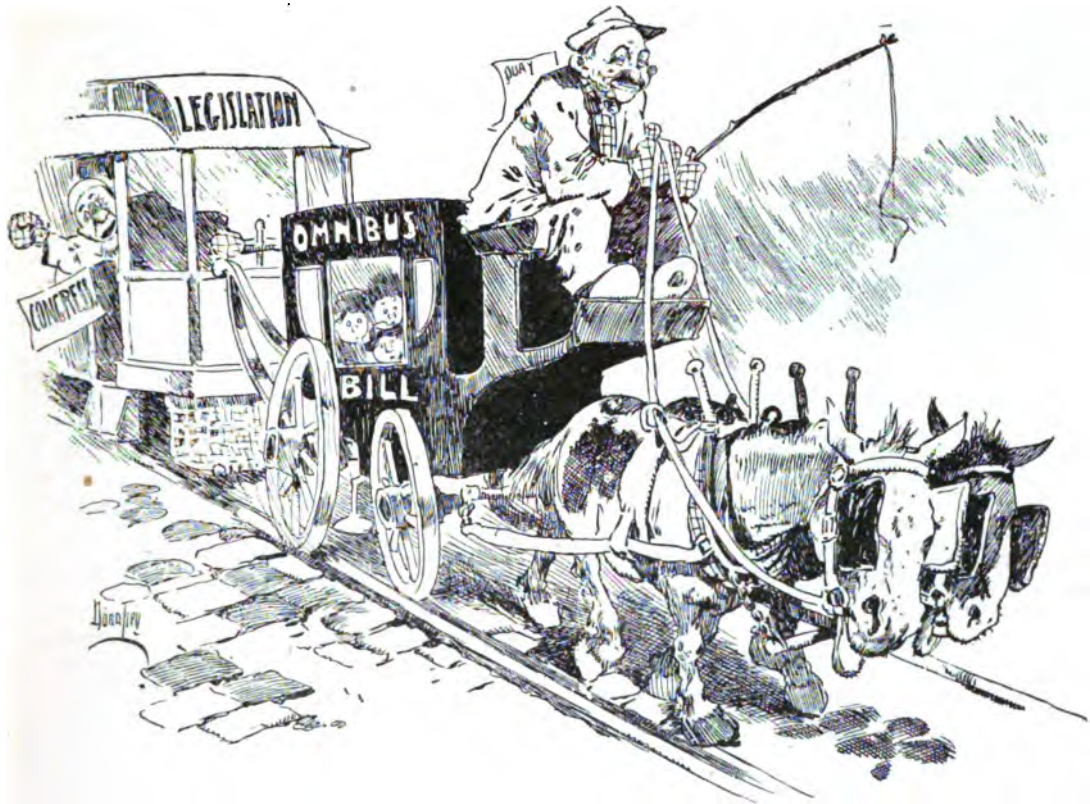
*Another
Disturbing
Incident.*

There are a few negro officials in the District of Columbia. Under Mr. Cleveland's two terms, it was customary to send out thousands of cards of invitation to certain routine, official White House receptions. Negro officials who thus received cards attended receptions in Mr. Cleveland's time; and no provision was made for excluding them by the clerks who continued to make out the lists under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt. These are not matters with which the President of the United States in his personal capacity has anything at all to do. He is far too busy with weighty affairs of state. Even so much as to allude to the fact that there were numerous attacks made upon President Roosevelt in the South last month because some of these reception cards were said to have been used by negro officials at one of the White House "crushes" seems a thing to be apologized for. The South has had so much to bear in the past forty years that we must not blame it for taking a lot of things with intense seriousness; but we must also beg it at times to fall back for relief upon its own delicious sense of humor. If there is in the whole North any man with whom it ought to get on without misunderstanding, that man is Theodore Roosevelt. He knows full well that the South will work out its own destiny under its own leadership. Even to try to defend him against the Southern charge of appointing negroes to office is only to expose more ruthlessly the fact that he is the only President since the Civil War who has *not* been making such appointments. The Crum case was conspicuous because of its being the exception that illustrated the rule. The office-jobbing Republican politicians of the South might well have been expect-



A SKIAGRAPH OF WHAT SENATOR HANNA WAS THINKING ABOUT WHEN HE INTRODUCED HIS LATEST PENSION BILL.

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



CONGRESS (as motorman, to "omnibus" driver in front): "Hi! get off the track!"—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

ed to criticise President Roosevelt ; but it is hard to see what more Southern Democrats could have expected of a Republican in the White House. Even poor Crum seems destined to miss confirmation in the Senate ; and if it thus turned out that his appointment should fail, President Roosevelt would be left with the record of exactly two negroes put in office in the entire South. The Indianola case was not a matter of appointment, but of allowing a McKinley appointee of faithful service to fill out the brief interval of an unexpired term.

The work of the Senate through the month of January and a large part of February was affected at all points by the protracted contest over the so-called "omnibus Statehood bill," this being the measure so devised as to admit as States into the Union, by a single vote, the three Territories of New Mexico, Arizona, and Oklahoma. It came to be recognized as true that a majority of the Senate was committed to the bill. There was a sense in which the opponents of the measure, in protracting debate and refusing to set a day for a vote, were "filibustering" and obstructing the

dispatch of business. While, therefore, Senator Beveridge, as chairman of the Committee on Territories, together with the majority of his colleagues on that committee and most of the leading Republicans of the Senate, were technically open to the charge that they were taking advantage of the Senate rules under which a minority may thwart the will of a majority, there was much more excuse for dilatory methods than is usual in such cases. The real obstructionists were those who had framed an improper bill, and by parliamentary ingenuity had secured for it a preferred place on the calendar.

A Vicious Method of Legislation.

An omnibus Statehood bill of this kind is objectionable on its very face. The experience of the country has abundantly shown that there is no danger that any Territory will be kept out of the Union after it has attained conspicuous fitness for admission. The danger is quite the other way. Nor is there good reason why any Territory should be admitted unless its own independent claims are clear enough to secure for it so strong a support among fair-minded men that no mere partisan argument can be effective against it. In the

old times, when the country was half slave and half free, and the tension between North and South was severe, there were thought to be reasons of political expediency why it was well to offset the admission of a Northern Territory by bringing in one farther to the Southward. But there has long since ceased to be any reason why in a matter of such gravity and importance as the creation of new States each proposition should not stand upon its own separate merits. The Democrats have for a good while made it a matter of party policy to support the idea of the immediate admission of Arizona and New Mexico. It is not with them a question of facts or of arguments, for they have committed themselves on strictly political grounds. But the opposition of Senator Beveridge and other Senators has not been based upon partisanship, but upon the facts, which show conclusively that as yet Arizona and New Mexico have not attained a development which entitles them to take rank with the States of the Union.

The Impartial View. Our own position in arguing against the admission of Arizona and New Mexico has, of course, had nothing to do with politics. It rests upon the doctrine that Statehood should follow rather than precede a certain development of population, and of varied and well-established interests and institutions. The opinions expressed in these pages have not been agreeable to some of our subscribers and friends in Arizona and New Mexico, and for this we are sorry. We should be delighted to see such growth in those two Territories as would in due time entitle them to come into the Union with credit to themselves, and with distinct benefit to the country as a whole. But that time has not yet come. As for Oklahoma, it is both mischievous and absurd that it should be bound up with Arizona and New Mexico in a bill which simply represents the "log-rolling" method of accumulating support. The case of Oklahoma, from the disinterested point of view, has been a perfectly clear one all along. That Territory will be entitled to admission just as soon as the process of settling tribal affairs in the Indian Territory can be completed. Then the temporary administrative division which has of late separated the western part from the eastern part of what was formerly the Indian Territory can be done away with. There are enough enterprising Americans well established in the farming, grazing, and mineral areas lying north of Texas, south of Kansas, and west of Arkansas to entitle those areas to be brought into the Union at the earliest convenient moment, whether under the name of Oklahoma or under some other name.

Grounds for a Veto.

The omnibus Statehood bill is an example of the most objectionable sort of coalition. It unites various unrelated interests,—most of them strictly private,—in order to secure the success of a series of propositions which have no natural connection with one another, and which could not stand successfully upon their own individual deserts. This is reason enough why the omnibus bill should not have passed, and reason enough why, if it had been passed by the Senate, it would have merited a prompt and ringing veto by the President. Mr. Roosevelt would have been fully justified in sending the measure back to Congress, saying that it did not come to him in such a form as to enable him to do his full constitutional duty, since it did not allow him to pass separately upon matters of permanent consequence which ought to have been embodied in separate bills. It was reported early in February that a compromise was to be arranged by virtue of which Arizona and New Mexico would be admitted as one State and Oklahoma would be admitted with provisos for the subsequent incorporation of what remains of the Indian Territory. But while this would have suited Senator Quay very well, and would have been acceptable to some other Senators representing special interests, it was not satisfactory to the people of the Territories themselves. Nor did it please those Democrats who regard the matter solely from the point of view of national politics and Presidential elections.

"Trust" Measures at Washington.

The great anti-trust agitation at Washington, which has supplied Congress with its principal theme during the session that ends on March 4, had some tangible, even if not wholly expected, results. The Littlefield publicity bill, as revised with the aid of Attorney-General Knox, was seemingly shelved, though it had an easy success in the House. In place of it there was adopted the so-called Nelson publicity amendment to the Department of Commerce bill. Finally, there was a brief measure known as the Elkins rebate bill. These two measures followed an earlier one which provided for more expeditious treatment in the courts of the pending and prospective litigation against illegal trusts and combinations. After all, these three measures represent a very substantial sum total of achievement from the point of view of everybody excepting those who take the more radical ground that trusts and great combinations should be strenuously assailed, and, if possible, crushed and destroyed. The new Department of Commerce and Labor must be allowed a reasonable time in which to find the

scope of its work. Included in it there is a Bureau of Corporations, with a chief called the Commissioner of Corporations at its head, drawing a salary of \$5,000 a year. This commissioner is to have power to investigate all companies excepting those that are within the purview of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The facts that he obtains will be at the disposal of the President, who may give as much or as little information to the public as he may think best. It will be a mistake to suppose that this bureau of corporations will at once accomplish anything radical, so far as the general public is concerned. It will, however, have a decided tendency to discourage the further formation of a class of unsound and dishonest combinations with which the country has to some extent been afflicted in the past three or four years.

Practical Unanimity. The Elkins bill, which had gone smoothly through the Senate, passed the House on February 13 by the remarkable vote of 241 to 6. The Department of Commerce bill had, on February 10, finally passed the House by a vote of 251 to 10, as amended in the conference committee; and upon the following day it went through the Senate in the space of a minute or two without a word of debate or dissent. Senator Nelson's so-called publicity amendment had for a few days aroused a considerable degree of interest through the reported attempt of certain large corporations to secure its modification or defeat. The report was current that the Standard Oil interests were opposed to it, and that the Steel Corporation interests were favorable to it. The opposition of the Standard Oil Company was said to be based upon its position in the great outlying markets of the world, where it has to meet the competition of the Russian petroleum monopoly. It is not necessary, however, under the Nelson amendment that the President should make public any information that would needlessly embarrass any American interest in the prosecution of its foreign trade. The bill simply puts into the hands of the President a power which may be used to such an extent as in his opinion may seem to be wise. The Elkins bill is one to strengthen the Interstate Commerce Act and such existing laws as are intended to provide against discrimination by railroads and common carriers. It is aimed at the giving and taking of rebates, whereby certain shippers obtain advantage over others. The measure which in connection with Mr. Littlefield's scheme the House had passed earlier in the session provided against rebate and discrimination by the great industrial corporations as well as the railroads; but this doc-

trine seems to have been too high for the Senate. There is nothing, therefore, in the legislation actually accomplished that bears at all upon the alleged practices of the trusts by which they "freeze out" local competition and dictate to retailers.



SENATOR NELSON, OF MINNESOTA.
(Prominent in "anti-trust" legislation.)

Mr. Cortelyou's Promotion. For some time it had been fully understood that in case of the establishment of the new cabinet portfolio of Commerce and Labor, Mr. George B. Cortelyou was to be appointed as secretary. We publish elsewhere in this number an appreciative sketch of the career of the new member of the President's cabinet. Mr. Cortelyou has been in close and confidential relation to three Presidents, and has won the universal esteem of public men of all parties at Washington. His intimate knowledge of men and affairs must make him a valuable member of the cabinet circle, and his executive ability will render it quite certain that his department will be well organized and administered. For the work of that bureau of the department having to do with corporations, technical and expert qualifications would naturally have to be looked for in the commissioner at its head, rather than in the cabinet officer in charge of a department that embraces various other bureaus,—among them being the great labor bureau which Col. Carroll D. Wright has long conducted. It was announced last month

that the Hon. James R. Garfield, of Ohio, the second son of President Garfield, would be invited by the President to become commissioner of corporations. Mr. Garfield is already in Washington as a member of the Civil Service Commission, to which he was appointed last year. He is exceptionally well qualified to fill the new post.



HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD.

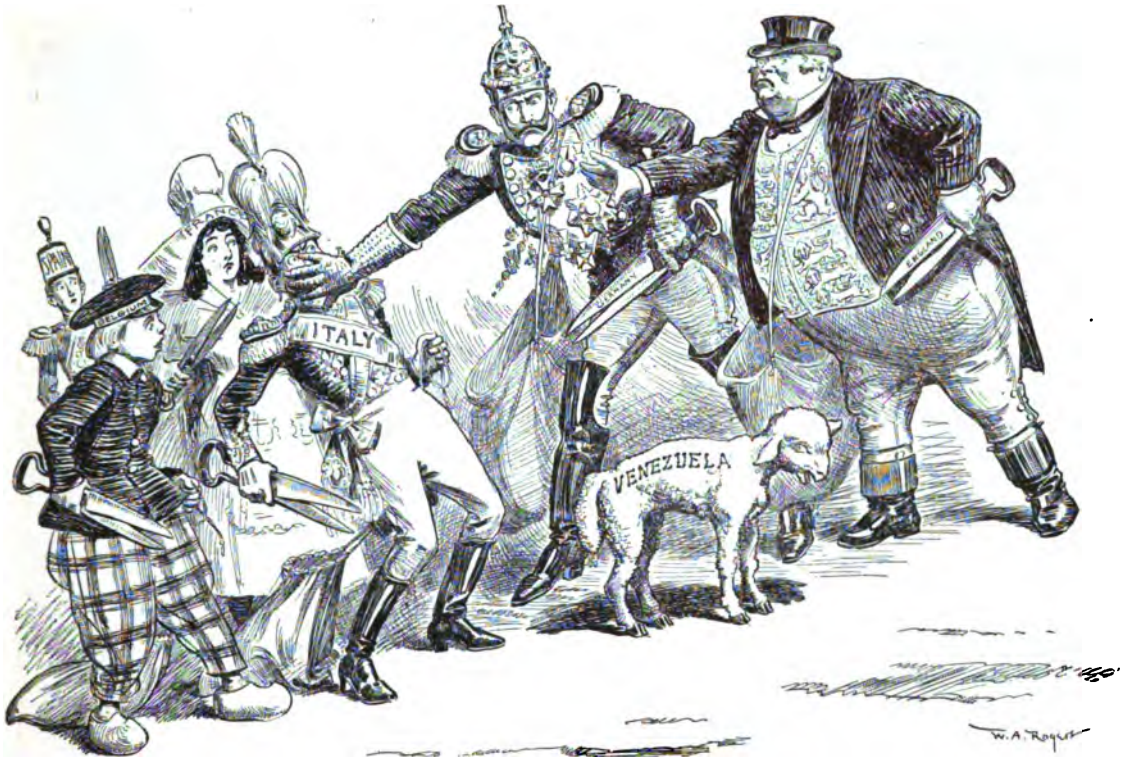
(To be head of Bureau of Corporations.)

The Venezuela Settlement. It was, upon the whole, a very gratifying thing that agreements were entered into last month, after long haggling, by virtue of which the representatives of the allied British, German, and Italian governments united with Mr. Bowen, representing the Venezuelan Government, upon a plan by which it became possible to raise the oppressive blockade of the Venezuelan coast and put all matters of dispute into an orderly process of settlement. A long delay was made in the negotiations at Washington by the demand of the aggressive allied European powers that their money claims against Venezuela should have preferred treatment,—that is to say, that the equally just claims of American, French, Belgian, and other foreign creditors in Venezuela be all laid aside until English, German, and Italian claims were paid off. It had first been agreed that 30 per cent. of the receipts at the two principal custom-houses

of Venezuela,—namely, the one at La Guayra and the one at Puerto Cabello,—should be devoted to paying the debts due to foreign creditors. When this percentage had been fixed, the allies made their demand for preferred treatment. It is to be remembered that there was no priority in their claims, and that the French, more than any other government, was entitled to consideration through having already made a definite treaty with Venezuela.

As to Preferred Treatment. It is as if an unfortunate business man, having fallen heavily into the debt of a dozen acknowledged creditors, had for a good while been discussing the amounts due, and the ways and means of payment. Whereupon three of the creditors conspire to go to his house at night, break his windows, and commit continuous and alarming depredations. By virtue of this violent behavior, they subsequently claim that they have established a plain right, both legal and ethical, to have all their debts paid before the other creditors have a chance at any of the debtor's resources. It is a question perfectly analogous to this that is by agreement to be referred to the Hague tribunal. The real parties to this arbitration are not Venezuela and the three pugnacious allies, but these allies and the other creditors, among them being France and the United States.

An American Triumph. It is well to look the facts plainly in the face, and to recognize what is true beyond a doubt,—namely, that England and Germany have agreed to apply arbitration to certain phases of the Venezuelan situation solely through a wholesome respect for the power that lies behind public opinion in the United States. It is, indeed, possible that a more energetic mode of diplomacy at Washington might have spared Venezuela the misfortunes that have come through the war levied upon her by Germany and England, and at the same time saved the English Government from the scorn and humiliation it has had to endure at home for its ridiculous joint adventure, besides protecting American commerce from the losses it has had to suffer through the blockade of Venezuelan ports. Arbitration of the claims against Venezuela could perhaps have been secured better before the two greatest powers of Europe levied war upon the little republic than afterward. And if arbitration had come in the first instance, the preferential demands would not have arisen. But American forbearance has cost us no loss of prestige, and the outcome has been regarded in Europe as another evidence that the United States will see fair play in the Western Hemisphere.



NOT ENOUGH WOOL TO GO AROUND.—From the Herald (New York).

Terms of the Settlement.

The negotiations at Washington were brought to an end by the signing of agreements,—or protocols, to use the technical title given to them by the diplomats,—providing for the settlement of all phases of the quarrel between England, Germany, and Italy on the one hand and Venezuela on the other. These protocols really constituted a treaty of peace; for, both in theory and in fact, the allies had made war upon Venezuela for the offense of being dilatory and shiftless about paying debts due in Europe, some of these debts being of an exceedingly questionable nature. By the terms of the arrangement finally agreed upon on February 13, the claims of each country are to be dealt with by so-called mixed commissions,—that is to say, in the case of the Italian claims, for example, Venezuela will appoint commissioners to meet Italian commissioners, who will endeavor to audit and agree upon all outstanding claims on the part of the government or the citizens of Italy. Where points of disagreement arise, decision is to be given by an umpire to be named by President Roosevelt. Mr. Bowen, having negotiated the protocols with the allies, promptly arranged one with the United States providing for a mixed commission to adjust the American claims; and similar arrangements were made with other claimant governments.

What Goes to the Hague.

Provision is made for paying off the claims thus audited and adjudicated by the agreement that Venezuela shall set aside 30 per cent. of the customs receipts of its two principal ports for the liquidation of the debts due to various foreign nations. Precisely in what order of preference these claims shall be paid out of the fund thus created is a question that will go to the Hague tribunal, as has already been stated in preceding paragraphs. In all three of the protocols, it is expressly stated that the United States, France, Belgium, Holland, Spain, Sweden, Denmark, and Mexico are permitted to appear before the Hague court as creditors of Venezuela opposing the idea that their claims had been weakened and made inferior to those of England, Germany, and Italy because, forsooth, these three countries entered into a league to make war and seize the assets of Venezuela. It was the so-called "international conscience" that caused the failure of the coercion scheme and brought about in the end a peaceable and orderly form of settlement that could easily have been arranged in the beginning. The question that will come before the Hague tribunal is not so important in the amount of money involved as in its principles. The decision of the court will establish an important precedent.

*Germany's
Cash Bonus.*

A very curious incident marked the final stages of the negotiations at Washington. Originally, the allies had each demanded a cash payment of about four hundred thousand dollars on the part of Venezuela as preliminary to any settlement whatever. This was finally modified, however, to a demand for £5,500 each, or about twenty-seven thousand five hundred dollars, and this had been agreed upon by the representatives at Washington of each of the allies. At the last moment, the German Government refused to sustain its Washington representative on this point and demanded a cash payment of \$340,000. Apparently, the intention at Berlin was to make a complication which would have defeated the negotiations, protracted the blockade, and prevented the reference of anything at all to The Hague. The result, however, was exactly the opposite of what Berlin had seemingly expected. The British Government had become so completely disgusted with the alliance, and was so eager to get out of its scrape before Parliament should meet and call the ministry to account, that it urged the immediate acceptance of the protocols, regardless of Germany's altered cash demands. It seems to be commonly agreed that the British claims against Venezuela are far more valid than the German; and up to a certain point the same thing is probably true of the Italian claims. Yet the arrangement concluded gave to Germany a

preliminary cash payment of about three hundred and forty thousand dollars, while England and Italy were glad to accept the paltry sum of \$27,500 each.

*A Highly
Satisfactory
Outcome.*

Since all valid claims will now within a reasonable period be adjudicated and paid in any case by virtue of the method we have already outlined, this preliminary cash payment represents nothing at all except an arbitrary exaction. At Berlin, a great victory is claimed, while the rest of the world smiles in derision at England's outcome. Germany's position is commonly regarded as that of the greedy, spoiled, quarrelsome boy at the boarding-school table who demands the largest and hottest potato, and insists upon being served first,—his better-bred and higher-spirited comrades looking on without anger, but with undisguised contempt. Of the great powers having claims against Venezuela, France and the United States have behaved with equanimity, good manners, and good sense. They have kept the goodwill of the Venezuelans and the whole world, and will in due time obtain every penny of their claims that is honestly due. The three allied governments, on the other hand, have used methods which have earned the lasting ill-will, not only of Venezuela, but of the whole of South America, besides winning the scorn of the civilized public opinion of Europe and North America,



OFF TO THE HAGUE.—From the *Herald* (New York).



SIGNOR EDMONDO MAYOR DES PLANCHES.
(Italian minister to the United States.)

and the merciless ridicule of all countries. They in the end will have obtained, meanwhile, neither more nor less than all the other claimant powers,—namely, a payment of their claims as finally adjudicated by fair umpires.

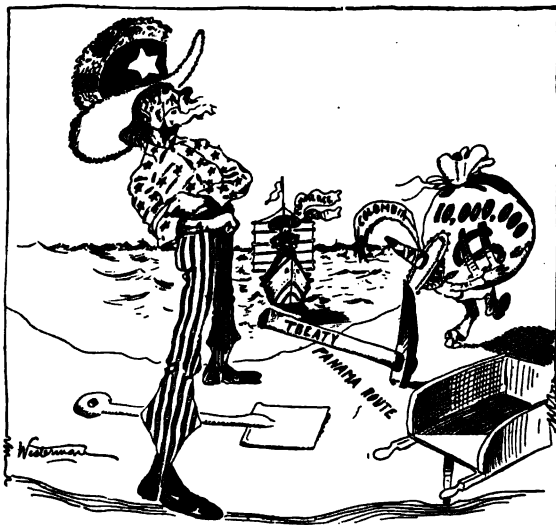
Even if the Hague tribunal should allow the allies their demanded preference in the order of approach at the paymaster's window, this advantage would amount to nothing important in the pecuniary sense, because the preferred claims of the other creditors would be perfectly safe, and, meanwhile, would draw interest at a fair rate. What is by far the most important part of all this agreement, from the business man's standpoint, has not been sufficiently noted by the newspapers. It is the part which arranges that President Roosevelt shall name the umpires to settle the validity of disputed claims. It is well known that many of the demands made by the Europeans, particularly by the Germans, are speculative and extortionate. Such claims,—German, English, and Italian,—will now have to be overhauled by an American umpire, whose business it will be to see that they are correct before they pass on for liquidation. Thus, Venezuela comes out of the situation most fortunately. She has always claimed, and with apparent sincerity, that she had no desire or intention to repudiate any just debts, and would welcome an opportunity to submit all claims to

arbitration. The claims will now have to undergo fair inspection, and the plan of creating a fund for paying them off is an excellent one for all concerned. Venezuela has, indeed, suffered grievous wrongs in the seizure of her vessels, the blockade of her coast, and the bombardment of her fortresses; but, since these things are done under the technical sanction of the laws of war, Venezuela can bring no claims. It should, of course, be understood in this country that the representatives at Washington of the three allied governments have conducted themselves most admirably throughout the negotiations, and are in no way to be held responsible by American public opinion for the errors and follies of their principals at London, Berlin, and Rome.

The Panama Treaty.

The treaty with Colombia providing for the Panama Canal was duly signed on January 22 by the Secretary of State, acting for the United States, and Dr. Herran, the Colombian chargé d'affaires, acting for his government. The protracted discussion of the Statehood bill delayed action upon the treaty in the Senate, but it was certain from the very first that it would be ratified. The treaty occasioned great rejoicing in Paris, and on the Panama Isthmus. It meant \$40,000,000 to the French Panama company out of the Treasury of the United States, and to the Isthmus it meant everything for the future that could possibly be hoped for. The giving up of the Nicaragua route, and the revival of the abandoned French enterprise by the United States Government, with its unlimited resources, was news almost too good to be believed at Colon. Besides paying the French company \$40,000,000, our government agrees to pay the Republic of Colombia a bonus of \$10,000,000 and a regular yearly payment forever afterward of \$250,000. There is created by virtue of this treaty a so-called "zone of territory" ten kilometers (about six miles) wide. The United States obtains no governmental authority over this strip, the treaty expressly confirming the sovereignty of Colombia over it, Colombia also remaining in full control of the cities of Panama and Colon, at either end of the canal. The ordinary judiciary tribunals within the canal zone are to be those of the Republic of Colombia. Somewhat on the plan of our consular jurisdiction in Oriental countries, the United States may establish tribunals for the hearing of cases involving our own citizens; but in case of a controversy between a citizen of the United States and a citizen of Colombia, the matter would have to go before a joint tribunal composed of American and Colombian judges. We assume various sanitary obligations.

Uncle Sam Promises Allegiance to the Colombian Flag. It was the instruction of Congress in the Spooner Act that, in case the President should find the title of the French company such as to justify the expenditure of \$40,000,000 in buying up that concern, a treaty should be negotiated with Colombia for the perpetual control of a strip of land in the territory of the Republic of Colombia, and also for jurisdiction over such strip, etc. But the Colombian negotiators have succeeded in putting the American Government into the position of an ordinary private commercial company. If the terms of this treaty be strictly observed, it will not be permissible to float the American flag at any point on or adjacent to the greatest public work ever constructed by this government,—or, for that matter, by any other government in the history of the world. Uncle Sam becomes a mere alien tenant. He promises faithful allegiance to the Colombian flag, in return for being allowed to invest money in a canal. We build our great canal under the sovereignty of a republic of so wretched plight that it has no legitimate government, and has had none for years past. We have been solemnly told at Washington that Colombia, under her constitution, could not alienate territory ;



A CANAL THIS TIME, AT ALL HAZARDS.

UNCLE SAM: "Another interruption and there'll be trouble."—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

and yet we are all perfectly well aware that she is not governed, and has not been for years, under any constitution at all, and that even if constitutional government should ever be resumed, it is in doubt which of two or three paper

instruments should be regarded as the valid one, so totally devoid of normal republican government has Colombia been for some twenty years past. The Isthmus of Panama, several weeks remote from the capital of the Republic of Colombia, is in a chronic state of anarchy. We undertake in our treaty to perpetuate, even inside the six-mile strip through which the canal is to go, the judicial tribunals and general municipal and police authority of Colombia.

The Better Method.

When one protests against this sort of thing at Washington, one is told, rather cynically, that we do not really mean it, but that this gives us a foothold, and, that once down there at work, we shall gradually improve our advantages and usurp what we may need. It may not work out in just that way, however. It would have been much better to purchase outright the isthmian region, which we could easily have done ; put the American flag there in its proper place ; give the people of the towns of Panama and Colon decent government under American authority ; and assume openly and honorably the exercise of that jurisdiction and control which every politician at Washington and every officer of our navy tells us in private that we cannot avoid undertaking to exercise. The only true reason why there is any propriety in having the United States Government build an isthmian canal at the cost of the public treasury lies in the strategic value of the project as providing for the better defense of our seacoasts. A canal built merely to facilitate international trade, or to compete with the transcontinental railroads, should be built, like the Suez Canal, by a commercial company on business considerations.

An Historical Contrast.

A hundred years ago, the American desire to obtain free navigation of the Mississippi River to its mouth had the same sort of hold upon the American mind as the demand for an American ship canal to connect our Atlantic and Pacific seaboard has had within recent years. We were a young and a small nation in 1803, but we faced our situation, grasped the opportunity, and got free navigation to the mouth of the Mississippi by making the great Louisiana Purchase. If that particular problem had arisen in 1903 instead, it is to be feared that the gentlemen at Washington would have solved it in a very different manner. Jefferson had the imagination and foresight to buy the river outright, and the area of a dozen great States besides—all for \$15,000,000. But our present-day diplomacy would have regarded such a scheme as crude and amateurish. It

would have negotiated, preferably, for a long-term right of Mississippi transit. It would, perhaps, have offered the \$15,000,000 as an initial payment for a limited right of navigation, and would have proposed to pay France and Spain in perpetuity an annual tribute of, perhaps, \$250,000. In addition to this, we should doubtless have agreed, at our own expense, to construct jetties and improve and maintain river navigation at our sole expense for the equal benefit of all foreign powers. What Jefferson did was to make the Mississippi an American river. And he certainly would have made an American canal at Panama,—that is to say, he would have dug it on American territory or not at all. Uncle Sam now goes to Panama as a private property holder, disavowing his attributes and character as a sovereign. And yet we are proposing to celebrate this year the centenary of the Louisiana Purchase!

*A Strong
Navy versus
Treaties.*

By one recent treaty, we have abdicated in advance the right to use our own canal for the defense of our coasts in time of war, while under the new treaty with Colombia we have expressly renounced the right inherent in a sovereign government to acquire territory by proper means in the future. But at Washington they tell us that we shall pay no attention to either of these treaties when emergencies make them inconvenient. Treaties, however, are awkward things, especially when they undertake to bind the policy of future generations. The American people are scrupulous about keeping their agreements; and they would do well, therefore, to be a great deal more particular about the sort of engagements they allow gentlemen at Washington to make for them. We have at Washington just now an immense fervor for a powerful navy; and last month witnessed a most determined demand for a colossal new shipbuilding programme, to match or excel the programme by which the German Emperor



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HON. WM. H. MOODY, SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

proposes to make his navy second only to England's. The Naval Advisory Board under Admiral Dewey is urging this new naval programme, the Naval Committee of the House under Chairman Foss is working for it, President Roosevelt takes naturally and kindly to it, and the new Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Moody, is a warm exponent of the doctrine of a big navy with a corresponding increase in our force of officers and sailors. We have already a good many ships under construction, most of which are coming on in a languid fashion in the yards of the contracting shipbuilders.

*Navies at
Home and
Abroad.*

The naval bill as introduced in the House by Chairman Foss, last month, called for the addition of three big battleships and one first-class armored cruiser. We have been developing our navy quite steadily

for a number of years past, but have not been working toward the fulfillment of a previously declared programme. In France and Germany, on the other hand, large general schemes have been provided, that of Germany looking ahead as far as the year 1916. The French programme adopted several years ago was for a period ending about four years from the present time. The Russians some four or five years ago adopted and made public a seven years' programme which is now approaching completion, and a new scheme is soon to be formulated. The Italians laid down a programme to cover the period from 1901 to 1912. Of course, our own naval board of construction at Washington has had a certain theory of a matured and symmetrical navy in mind, and successive Secretaries of the Navy and naval committees of Congress have been to some extent guided in their proposals from year to year by the theories of our naval experts. The list of battleships that we have built or have authorized now amounts to twenty, not including the three that were recommended in the bill pending last month. The number of armored cruisers built, started, or authorized is about sixteen.

*Germany's
Alleged
Rivalry.*

The Germans are showing the utmost energy in building both merchant and war vessels. The development of their merchant marine is interestingly described in an article which we publish in this number of the REVIEW by a well-known authority on the American merchant marine, Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin, of Boston. It is persistently reported that Germany is striving to outstrip the United States as a naval power. As preparatory to a greatly extended programme of warship-building, it was stated last month that the great national shipyards at Danzig, Kiel, Wilhelmshaven, and Stettin were to have greatly enlarged facilities. It is not necessary to assume that Germany's great energy has any hostile intentions. It is true, on the other hand, that in view of the vastness of American trade, commerce, and industry, we could well afford to go on with the work of building up our navy. If our ships had been more numerous and our naval power better known, we should have been spared the cost of the war with Spain, and should have succeeded in liberating Cuba without firing a shot. Our influence in securing arbitration, last month of the claims against Venezuela was largely due to an enhanced respect felt for us in Europe by reason of our demonstrated military and naval strength. A still larger navy would probably have the effect of a not too expensive form of insurance against the danger of war.

*Germany's
Aims and
Attitude.*

It has been frequently argued in these pages that the German Government contemplates only the most friendly relations with the government of the United States, and that it has disavowed any intention to acquire territory in South America. Germany has too much on her hands in the Old World to seek trouble in the New. For one thing, the German nation is in some danger of being divided against itself, so intense is the strain between the Emperor and his supporters and the Social Democrats, who now form the largest party in the empire. German population and industry are growing remarkably, and it is not strange that German ambition should look toward territorial expansion at some future time. But the domestic problems that loom large on the horizon are destined to claim Germany's chief attention for a considerable period. When Germany's new tariff schedules, many of which are at stupendously high rates, come into effect, next year, there will be renewed dissensions at home because of the increased price of foodstuffs.

*Pan-German-
ism and Euro-
pean Unrest.*

The so-called pan-Germanic ideas have had much discussion of late in all parts of Europe. The leaders of the Germanic League have become rather frank and open in the expression of their views regarding the future acquisition by Germany of Holland, Belgium, and Luxemburg. But the apprehensions of France have been more keenly aroused by the growth of the pan-Germanic idea in the German-speaking parts of Austria. The Emperor of Austria has been in unusually bad health, and there is fear lest, in case of his death, the Austrian dominion may go to pieces. In such a case, Germany would, of course, hope to make large acquisitions of territory and population. This, in the French view, would dangerously disturb the European balance of power. There has been great debating in the French Chambers over subjects of this kind, the general result being a triumph of those who hold steady-going views and demand friendly relations, ultimate disarmament, and the support of peace and the Hague tribunal. France is fortunate just now in having in public life a great number of men of remarkable brilliance, intelligence, and good sense. The greatest of French Socialists, M. Jean Jaurès, has been elected to the vice-presidency of the Chamber of Deputies with the cordial assent of the ruling Republican majority. All admit that Jaurès is a man of lofty patriotism, and he is probably the most eloquent orator in France, if not in all Europe. He stands for industrial and social progress and the welfare of the plain people, and is opposed to militarism.



M. JAURÈS, FRENCH SOCIALIST AND STATESMAN.

*The Alaskan
Boundary
Treaty.*

The British Parliament opened on February 17; and in his speech from the throne the King opened with a reference to the Venezuelan affair, adding that he rejoiced to say "that a settlement has now been arrived at which has justified the blockading powers in bringing all hostile naval operations immediately to a close." His next reference was to the Alaskan boundary matter, of which he said: "A treaty for the providing of a reference of these questions to an arbitral tribunal has been signed and ratified." The two governments primarily interested in the Alaskan boundary question are those of Canada and the United States. The English Government has only a nominal and indirect interest in the details of the matter, its chief motive and desire being to have all grounds of controversy removed. At the head of the Canadian government is the prime minister, Sir Wilfrid Laurier; at the head of the government of the United States is President Roosevelt. No arrangement for dealing with this boundary question between Alaska and the United States could be made without the participation of these two heads of the governments concerned. To the surprise of the public in both countries, it was announced toward the end of January that a treaty had

been signed at Washington for the speedy settlement of all outstanding differences about this important question. Great interest was expressed because, both in Canada and the United States, the subject is one about which thousands of intelligent people have strong convictions. It was well known that President Roosevelt had, both before and after his coming into his present high office, repeatedly expressed himself as absolutely opposed to the submission to arbitration of the right of the United States to continue in possession of its present Alaskan coast strip. About nothing had Mr. Roosevelt ever been more frank or more uncompromising than about this Alaskan question.

*The Wash-
ington Version of
the Treaty.*

When, therefore, it was announced from Washington that some kind of an agreement had been signed between the Secretary of State and the British ambassador,—on behalf of President Roosevelt on the one hand and the Canadian government on the other,—there was very lively and eager interest upon the part of the newspapers and the public as to the nature of the arrangement. A treaty, when signed, must go to the Senate for ratification: and courtesy to that body requires that its exact text should not be given to the public until the Senate has had an opportunity to consider it. President Roosevelt and the State Department, however, felt at liberty to explain that there had not been the slightest particle of retreat from the President's well-known position, and that the treaty did not in any sense jeopardize the American *status quo* on the Alaskan coast. The public was informed, indeed, that the agreement as entered into was a great triumph for our Department of State in upholding the American position, and was a corresponding defeat for the Canadians.

*The Ottawa
Version.*

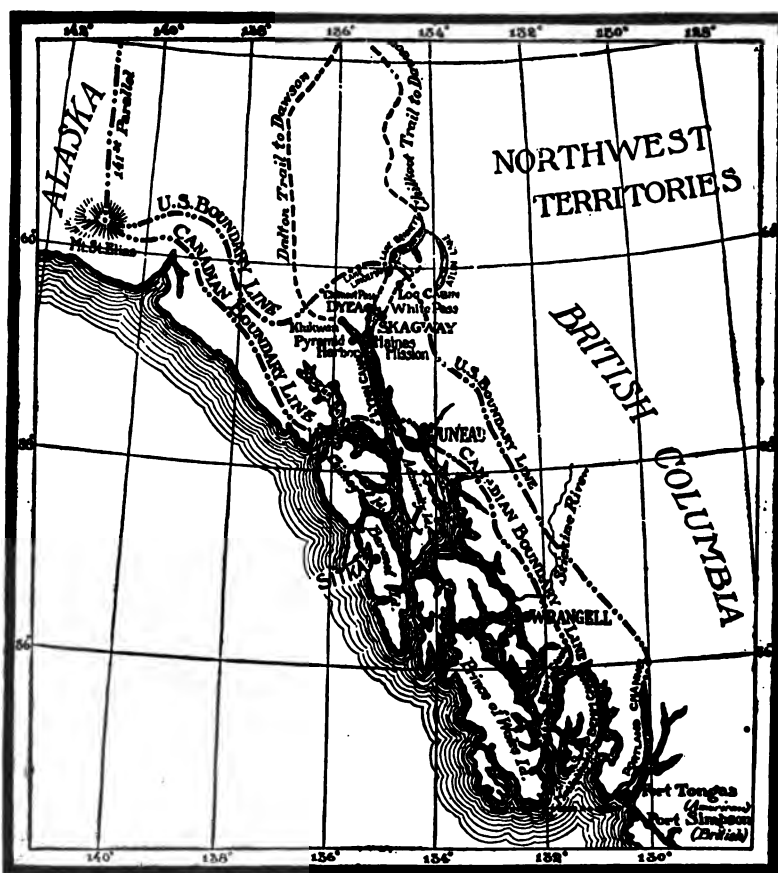
While these explanations were going out from Washington, it happened that Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the most responsible representative of the other party in interest, was making diametrically opposite statements. He was expressly declaring that every phase of the controversy about the Alaskan boundary, including all the claims and contentions urged by the Canadians, were by this new treaty submitted to unlimited and unrestricted arbitration. Thus, at the very moment it was signed, the interpretations put upon the treaty by the two men most responsible for it were as different from each other as black is from white. If an agreement designed to do away with differences and to secure final settlements can, at the outset, be viewed so differently by

the two men who above all others should understand it in exactly the same way, it can hardly be an "agreement" in any useful sense of that word. Certainly, it would seem that its ratification in the Senate should not have taken place without opportunity for the asking and answering of questions intended to promote a reasonable understanding of what was intended.

It was well known that a good many *Ratified by "Strategy."* Senators were in grave doubt, and that a number wished to ask questions, and expected to make speeches. In view of this fact, it was announced that such opposition was developing that the treaty could not be ratified. This opinion was expressed by the chief friends and supporters of the treaty; and the general public, as well as the opposing Senators, were informed that consideration would be deferred until an extra session of the Senate, to be called after the 4th of March. Under these circumstances, on the afternoon of February 11, when the time of the Senate had been allotted to a long and formal speech on another subject, and the chamber would naturally have been empty, resort was had to what was called "a clever strategy." In the absence from the room of nearly all those who would have opposed the treaty, or would at least have insisted upon a thorough discussion of it, an executive session was called, the matter was brought up for instant consideration, some perfunctory remarks were made, a vote was taken, and the treaty was declared ratified without a roll-call or a listing of the yeas and nays. The promoters of the measure in the Senate assured their colleagues that the arrangement was not for arbitration, and that it did not call in question the American position. A very proper demand for reconsideration made the next day was refused.

The Matter in Dispute.

It is to be remembered that the practical matter in dispute is the ownership of the two flourishing American towns and seaports of Dyea and Skagway, with a strip thirty miles wide behind them, and a long coast belt. The question will be better understood by reference to the map which we present herewith. The boundary line, as it exists and as it has been universally recognized for nearly eighty years, lies well inland. Since the Klondike has become important, the Canadians have much desired a seaport on our coast; and they have adopted the theory that the language of the treaty of 1825 is fairly capable of a construction which would throw the boundary line across that splendid arm of the sea known as the Lynn Channel (commonly miscalled Canal), and thus



THE CONFLICTING BOUNDARY LINES NOW TO BE ARBITRATED.

(The Canadian claim interprets the treaty as meaning the line from headland to headland of the coast. It thus includes in Canadian territory not only Dyea and Skagway, but almost the entire length of Lynn Canal, also Glacier Bay, in which the famous Muir glacier is situated, Juneau, at which the famous Treadwell mine is located, and other important points along the coast at present occupied and controlled by the United States. The United States boundary ascends Portland Channel; the Canadian ascends the northern arm of the Behm Canal.)

give them direct access to the ocean. This new treaty has been secured through the active efforts of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. The whole subject is one in which the Canadians had nothing to lose and everything to gain. It is very much as if they should begin to reassert their old-time claim to the northern part of Maine, as to which they would feel that they had gained a very considerable point if the United States had admitted that there was a question as to its rights, and had therefore made its possession and sovereignty hinge afresh upon the decision of a legal tribunal. It is to be remembered that in the Alaskan case we were in undisturbed and unmenaced possession; that the world at large did not regard us as in the slightest degree aggressors. As regards the Lynn Channel and that region in particular, it had come to be the accepted American idea that we should in any case reserve our possessions there from consideration by any joint commission appointed merely to direct a survey and to fix the monuments to mark physically the line as shown in a general way on the maps.

*We Are
Arbitrating
Everything.*

But Sir Wilfrid Laurier, whose treaty this is and who must be supposed to understand its meaning, in his declaration as given in the London *Times* in answer to the question whether the ports of Dyea and Skagway were submitted to the arbitrators by this treaty, replied:

The whole question is submitted to a commission of six jurors to decide on the definition of the boundary line as set forth in the Russian treaty of 1825. The treaty goes to arbitration without any reservations whatever. The arbitrators are to decide where the boundary between Canada and Alaska should be located according to the wording and intent of the treaty.

The government at Washington tells us that the new agreement does not provide for arbitration; the government at Ottawa tells us that it does provide for arbitration and for nothing else. If this were a mere quibble about a word, we should not waste space, even so much as to make allusion to it. Nothing could be further from our wish or purpose than to be hypercritical. But it is to be feared that there is a good deal more involved than a mere difference about the use of a word. There was printed for the aid of the Senate an explanatory statement by the Hon. John W. Foster, himself once Secretary of State and of long record as connected with our foreign affairs. Mr. Foster had some part in devising this new agreement, his views were treated by the administration as authoritative, and he has since been made our agent and chief counsel in the case. Mr. Foster says:

The treaty signed by Secretary Hay and Ambassador

Herbert, now pending in the Senate, does not submit any American territory to the adjudication of arbitrators, but creates a commission of three American and three British experts to determine where the line between Alaska and British Columbia should be drawn, as laid down by the treaty of 1825, and, if they can agree, to mark the line.

But it happens that the text of the treaty bears out Laurier, not Foster. If Mr. Foster were right, it would all be quite analogous to the peace commission that concluded negotiations with Spain at Paris in settlement of the issues of the war. Our commissioners at Paris were a group of men who acted as a body and were under constant instructions from the President and the State Department at Washington. President Roosevelt will appoint three men, who are to meet three appointed by the British Government, to pass upon the Canadian claims. But the three Americans are not to be negotiators, as the newspaper correspondents at Washington were instructed to inform the country. They are to act, in the explicit language of the treaty, as "impartial jurors." Once appointed, they are entirely beyond the control of the President and the Secretary of State, and are bound to decide the questions brought before them without prejudice. The body of judges thus created was, indeed, explicitly called an "arbitral tribunal" in the treaty itself when it was signed by Secretary Hay and Ambassador Herbert, though the word "arbitral," at the request of our government, was subsequently stricken out. A particular red apple, however, remains a red apple even if one should merely call it an apple; and this body remains an arbitral tribunal even though it be called merely a tribunal.

*In Case of a
Tie Vote.*

It is simply to be said that the Alaskan boundary has been as truly and unqualifiedly submitted to arbitration as it could possibly have been. The six appointees, once appointed, cease to represent their respective countries. They become judges of the matters submitted to them; each judge must act for himself, and all points are to be decided by a majority. Thus, if a single one of the judges appointed by President Roosevelt should conclude that the Canadian construction of the treaty of 1825 is just, we shall sacrifice valuable territory that we have long held in undisturbed possession, and that the Canadians have only lately claimed. It is true that our government holds that we do not stand the slightest chance of losing, and that the people at Washington have declared this to be a scheme for helping the British Government to get rid of the annoying clamor of the Canadian Tories.



Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts.



Elihu Root, Secretary of War.



Senator Turner, of Washington.

THE THREE AMERICANS SELECTED LAST MONTH AS MEMBERS OF THE ALASKA TRIBUNAL.

At the very worst, we are told at Washington, the court will stand three to three, and then we shall be just as well off as we were before, and shall continue to hold our possessions. But, most certainly, we shall not be as well off as before, for we shall ourselves have given the whole world reason to believe that we attach serious importance to a Canadian claim that we have heretofore pronounced to be purely speculative and frivolous. The public opinion of the world might then very fairly demand that a seventh member of the tribunal be chosen to act as umpire and give a final decision. The *London Times* declares that, in the case of an even division of this arbitration board of six, "we only obtain a striking evidence of the exceeding complexity and difficulty of the question, and can then resort to the ordinary form of arbitration—to cut a knot that cannot be untied." In other words, it is assumed as a matter of course in England that in case of an even division of the six judges the matter would go to further arbitration before a court so constituted that it would have to decide one way or the other. This, our statesmen say, they will never allow; but how it is in justice to be avoided is not easy to understand. For, if the Canadian contentions are creditable enough to be submitted to a learned tribunal of judges, they are certainly entitled to a decision, by such a tribunal.

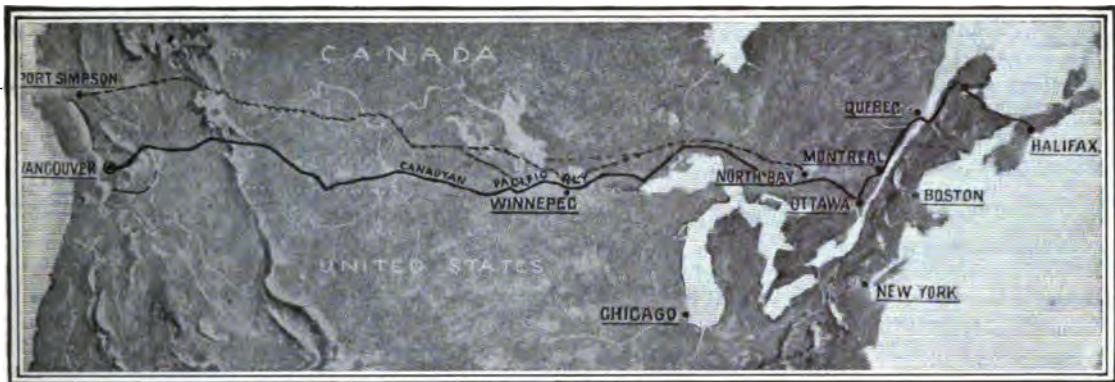
*Nature of
American
Tenure.*

When this treaty, on Wednesday, February 11, was suddenly called up for action and ratified, in the absence of those Senators who would have demanded a consideration of it, our hold upon our Alaskan coast strip was thenceforth by a wholly changed tenure. Up to that moment it was

ours by virtue of the simple fact that we had bought it from Russia, had taken possession of it, had established our flag there, had maintained custom-houses and post-offices, and had been in continuous exercise of governmental sovereignty. The treaty of 1825 might have had a hundred different interpretations, but that was of no consequence to us in this century, when our sovereignty at Dyea and Skagway was as unqualified as our sovereignty at New York or New Orleans. There was a clear understanding of what Russia owned, and of what we purchased and paid for. This understanding was equally clear in Russia, England, Canada, and the United States, and everybody knows what it was. The Canadian official maps all show it (except some of those made very recently), as still do the maps made in all other countries. If, a good many years after our purchase of Alaska in 1867, our government had cared to go to the expense of sending surveying parties to erect boundary monuments,—a matter that the English Government urged our government to do,—the line would have been established on the ground without the slightest pretense on anybody's part that the general American claim was incorrect.

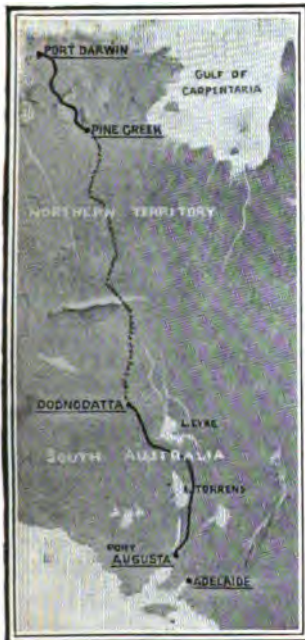
*A Compromise
Expected.* The *London Times*, which is exceedingly amiable in its discussion of all this matter, apparently assumes that

Canada is right in the geographical contention, but that in view of the present warm relations between Britain and America, as "nations who count solid friendship better than territory," there is a chance that the United States will be let off with a "political compromise." The cheerful assumption at Washington that a happy



THE DOTTED LINE SHOWS PROPOSED NEW RAILROAD ACROSS CANADA.

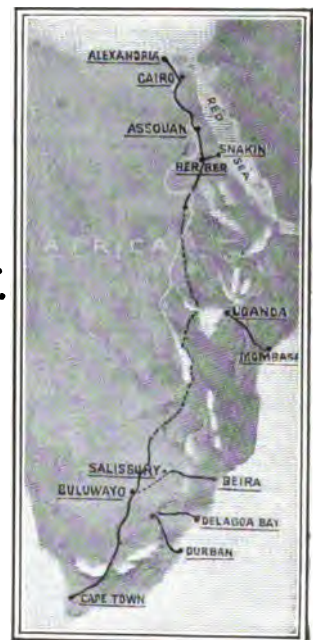
way has been found to end the Alaskan boundary question may, indeed, turn out to be true. But there is also some reason to fear that this is the beginning of a real Alaskan dispute, whereas heretofore the question has not been a serious one. Arbitration is a good thing, and has a great part to play in making the world better and more civilized. Therefore, care should be taken not to do it injury by trying to apply it in matters where it is not primarily applicable. Above all, let us be sure of resorting to it in good faith. We are in danger of being accused in Canada of taking a course much worse than the bold and frank one of refusing outright to entertain their geographical claims.



PROPOSED ROAD ACROSS AUSTRALIA.

Canadian Progress. The Canadians, meanwhile, are showing splendid energy in all directions. They are promoting immigration, and are especially pleased with the success of their efforts to induce a good class of American farmers to occupy the freely granted lands of the far Northwest. Many thousands of Western Americans are preparing to go to British Columbia, Manitoba, and the Northwest Terri-

tories this coming spring. The Canadians, moreover, are projecting a new transcontinental railroad,—parallel to the Canadian Pacific and some distance north of it, as indicated by the dotted line on the little map presented herewith. This new road, under the auspices of the Grand Trunk system, will have a total length from Quebec to Fort Simpson of 2,830 miles, and it is to have easier grades than the Canadian Pacific. The Canadian Parliament will meet on the 12th of the present month. It has an enormous programme of business before it. While New York State is in a tangle over its proposal to enlarge the Erie Canal, our Canadian friends go straight ahead with their elaborate water-way projects. Elsewhere in this number we print a short article from the pen of Mr. Thomas C. Martin on a new electrical power plant in Canada which rivals the exploitation of Niagara Falls. Americans are taking a great interest in Canadian resources as a good place for investment. Now that the Alaskan boundary treaty has been signed, there is some chance that the dormant joint commission, of which Senator



ROUTE OF "CAPE TO CAIRO" RAILROAD PROJECT.

Fairbanks is the American head, may get together again to settle other outstanding North American questions. If this commission should find a way to bring about a large measure of reciprocity between the United States and Canada, it would make for itself lasting fame.

*The British
Empire in
General.*

British-Empire matters in general are prosperous. We publish elsewhere a good article by the Hon. Hugh H. Lusk on the work of the first parliament of the great Australian Commonwealth. It is hard for us in this country to realize that the Australians themselves as yet know little or nothing about a large interior section of their great island. An important project under discussion is that of a railroad to go straight across Australia, to connect roads already built at either end. The diagram on the foregoing page will show by the black lines how much has been built, and by the dotted line the connecting link that is proposed. A vast land grant is to go to the builders of this Australian line, and the government of the Commonwealth has the option to buy the railroad upon its completion. English opinion is highly conflicting as to Mr. Chamberlain's proceedings in South Africa. The supporters of the ministry hold that Mr. Chamberlain is working wonders in straightening out tangles, and in preparing for the political and industrial rehabilitation of that great section of the British Empire. Several hundred miles more are to be built of the railroad that will eventually extend from Cape Town to the Mediterranean.

*In the British
Isles.*

It was expected that the affairs of Ireland and those of the metropolis of London would largely divide between them the time and attention of Parliament in the session which began on February 17. Our readers will have in mind Mr. Walter Wellman's important article last month on the coming settlement of the Irish land question. If Parliament should now take this matter in hand and carry it through on the basis of the programme which seems to have been practically agreed upon between representatives of the landlords and of the tenants, the Balfour administration would have achieved so great a triumph as to cover a multitude of smaller errors or failures. The Irish have not been as much disturbed as might have been expected by the result of the trial of Colonel Lynch for treason. Lynch had fought on the Boer side, and then allowed him-

self to be elected to the British Parliament. From the legal standpoint, his guilt was beyond question. Why he should have put himself in the lion's mouth when he might easily have kept away from England, it is hard to understand. His death sentence has been commuted to life imprisonment, and ultimately he will probably be pardoned and allowed to leave the country. The Nonconformists are to a considerable extent opposing the enforcement of the new education act by what is called "passive resistance." They are leaguely to refuse to pay rates, and to obstruct the local administration of the law. It remains to be seen what the outcome of their attitude may be.

*Morocco and
Macedonia.*

Most of the European powers were glad to see the Venezuelan imbroglio at an end, if for no other reason than for their deeper interest in two or three troublesome situations nearer home. The disturbances in Morocco, about which Dr. Talcott Williams writes an illuminating article for the present number of the *Review*, are of direct concern to England, Spain, France, and Italy, and of immense indirect concern to Germany, Austria, and Turkey. The disturbed condition of Macedonia is a subject of even greater European anxiety. Nearly every power in Europe regards this Macedonian situation as somehow bearing most seriously upon its own vital interests. Austria and Russia have united in an endeavor to induce the Sultan of Turkey to institute a scheme of reforms in the government of Macedonia radical enough to avert the great threatened uprising. Turkey has answered this proposal by massing four hundred thousand or five hundred thousand troops at points convenient for overrunning Macedonia, and for protecting it against invasion from Bulgaria and other outside quarters. In Russia, there is a wave of popular feeling on behalf of the Christians of Slavonic blood alleged to be undergoing persecution at the hands of Turks and Albanians in Macedonia. A large part of eastern Europe has come to feel that now is the time for finally sending the Turk back to Asia. In a situation so complicated, no predictions are of value. We can only await the course of events. As to the general facts, there is little to add to the extended and remarkably well-informed article published by us in the *Review of Reviews* for February, 1902, and written for us anonymously by a man of exceptional knowledge.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From January 21 to February 16, 1903.)



SENATOR ELKINS, OF WEST VIRGINIA.

(Whose name was attached to the anti-rebate bill passed by Congress in February.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 21.—In the Senate, Mr. Elkins (Rep., W. Va.) introduces an anti-rebate bill.... The House considers the Philippine coinage bill.

January 22.—The Senate considers the Statehood bill.... In the House, a combination of Democrats and twenty-eight Republicans succeed in substituting a Philippine currency bill for the coinage bill of the Insular Affairs Committee; the Naval Affairs Committee is instructed to investigate charges of attempted bribery in connection with the Holland submarine boat made by Representative Lessler (Rep., N. Y.).

January 23.—The House passes the bill providing for a delegate from Alaska.

January 24.—The Indianola (Miss.) post-office case is discussed in the Senate.... The House passes the agricultural appropriation bill.

January 26.—The Senate passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill; in executive session, the Panama Canal treaty is discussed.... The House passes the Military Academy appropriation bill; a resolution calling for the correspondence in the Indianola post-office case is adopted.

January 27.—The House passes the Senate bill increasing the salaries of federal judges.

January 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Quay (Rep., Pa.) introduces the Statehood bill as an amendment to the agricultural and sundry civil appropriation bills.... The House considers the Indian appropriation bill.

January 29.—The House passes the Indian appropriation bill and begins consideration of the post-office bill.

January 30.—The House discusses the passage of private claim bills.

January 31.—The Senate passes the House bill for an army general staff corps, with a retirement provision added as an amendment.

February 2.—The Senate discusses the army appropriation bill and the Statehood bill.... The House passes a bill authorizing the reopening of sealing negotiations with England.

February 3.—The Senate passes the Elkins anti-rebate bill and the army appropriation bill; in executive session, the Panama Canal treaty is favorably reported and the Alaskan boundary treaty is discussed.... The House debates the post-office appropriation bill.

February 4.—The Senate passes a bill to expedite the hearing and decision of suits brought under the Sherman anti-trust law and amends and repasses the army general staff bill.... The House completes discussion of the post-office appropriation bill.

February 5.—The Senate discusses polygamy and the influence of the Mormon Church in politics in connection with the Statehood bill.... The House passes the post-office appropriation bill and the Senate bill to expedite suits under the Sherman law; consideration of the Littlefield anti-trust bill is begun.

February 6.—The House devotes the day to general debate on the Littlefield anti-trust bill.

February 7.—The House passes the Littlefield anti-trust bill by a vote of 245 to 0.

February 10.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the army general staff bill.... The House adopts the conference report on the Department of Commerce bill; the bill to pension ex-slaves is discussed.

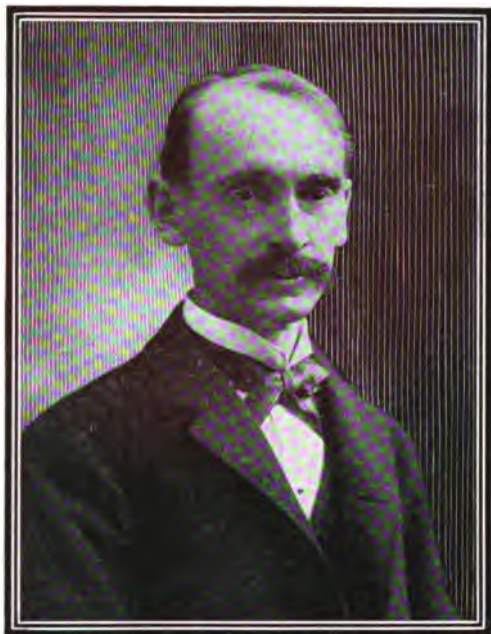
February 11.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the Department of Commerce bill; in executive session, the Alaskan boundary treaty is ratified and a new commercial treaty with Greece is considered.... The House considers the sundry civil appropriation bill.

February 12.—The Senate, in executive session, considers the Panama Canal treaty.... The House adopts the conference report on the army general staff bill.

February 13.—The Senate passes the District of Columbia appropriation bill.... The House passes the Elkins anti-rebate bill by a vote of 241 to 6; consideration of the sundry civil appropriation bill is completed.

February 14.—The Senate concurs in the House amendments to the Elkins anti-rebate bill and considers the House bill reducing the tariff on imports from the Philippines.... The House passes the sundry civil appropriation bill.

February 16.—The Senate passes the Indian appropriation and Philippine currency bills; in executive session, the commercial treaty with Greece is ratified and the nomination of George B. Cortelyou to be Secretary of Commerce and Labor is confirmed.... The House adopts an order for the consideration of the Fowler currency bill.



JUDGE WILLIAM R. DAY, OF OHIO.

(Appointed last month an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

January 21.—President Roosevelt signs the bill for the reorganization of the militia system.

January 22.—Republican members of the Kansas Legislature nominate Representative Chester I. Long for United States Senator, to succeed William A. Harris (Dem.).

January 24.—The Colorado Legislature reflects Senator Henry M. Teller (Dem.).

January 26.—Judge William R. Day, of Ohio, accepts the appointment by President Roosevelt to the United States Supreme Court.

January 28.—Republican members of the Washington Legislature nominate Levi Ankeny to succeed George Turner (Dem.) as United States Senator.

January 29.—Democratic members of the North Carolina Legislature nominate Lee S. Overman for United States Senator....The Washington Legislature elects Levi Ankeny (Rep.) United States Senator, to succeed George Turner (Dem.).

January 30.—The North Carolina Legislature elects Lee S. Overman (Dem.) United States Senator, to succeed J. C. Pritchard (Rep.).

February 4.—President Roosevelt nominates John T. McDonough, of New York, to be associate justice of the Supreme Court in the Philippines.

February 5.—J. Edward Addicks offers to withdraw from the contest for the United States Senatorship in Delaware on condition that the Republican members of the Legislature unite on candidates for the two seats.

February 14.—President Roosevelt signs the bill for the organization of a general staff in the army, and the bill creating a Department of Commerce and Labor.

February 16.—President Roosevelt names George B. Cortelyou, of New York, as Secretary of the new Department of Commerce and Labor (see page 297) and James R. Garfield, of Ohio, as Commissioner of Corporations in the same department.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

January 21.—The trial of Col. Arthur Lynch, M.P., for treason in fighting for the Boers is begun in London.

January 22.—The German Reichstag resumes debate on the budget.

January 23.—The Cuban House of Representatives appropriates \$300,000 for the construction of a capitol....Col. Arthur Lynch is found guilty of high treason in fighting for the Boers against the British Government and sentenced to death.

January 24.—The Grand Vizier of Turkey instructs the treasury to cease all payments till further orders.

January 26.—M. Jaurès presides at the sitting of the French Chamber of Deputies.

January 27.—It is announced that the sentence of death passed upon Col. Arthur Lynch for high treason against Great Britain has been commuted to imprisonment for life.

January 29.—The German Reichstag, by a vote of 195 to 86, reflects Count Ballestrew to the presidency.

January 30.—The Austrian Reichsrath ratifies the Brussels sugar convention.

January 31.—The Maharajah of Indore abdicates on account of ill-health.

February 3.—In the German Reichstag, the government proposes to revoke the anti-Jesuit law of 1872, in order to secure the passage of the tariff bill.

SENATOR-ELECT LEE S. OVERMAN,
OF NORTH CAROLINA.

February 4.—It is announced that President Sierra of Honduras has turned over the office to a council of ministers, and that Bonilla has declared himself president at Amapala.

February 5.—The Brazilian Government takes steps to occupy the disputed territory of Aere, at the headwaters of the Amazon, with both military and naval forces.

February 12.—The Cuban House approves the \$35,000,000 loan for the payment of the troops, for advancing agriculture, and for meeting legal debts of the revolution.

February 14.—The Bulgarian Government makes prisoners of the leaders of two Macedonian committees.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

January 22.—The Panama Canal treaty between the United States and Colombia is signed at Washington....The German warships renew the bombardment of Fort San Carlos, at the entrance of Maracaibo lagoon, Venezuela.

January 24.—A treaty between the United States and

Great Britain providing for a mixed commission to determine the Alaskan boundary is signed at Washington.

January 26.—An agreement for extension of the time for ratification of the Cuban reciprocity treaty is signed at Washington....The American, British, and French legations object to the appointment of Yu-Lieu-san to the governorship of Shansi.

January 28.—It is announced that Mexico and China have presented notes to the United States proposing a world-agreement for maintaining silver at the ratio of 32 to 1.

January 29.—Dr. David J. Hill retires from his post as Assistant Secretary of State at Washington and takes the oath of office as United States minister to Switzerland.

February 3.—The appointment of A. N. Beaupré as United States minister to Colombia, to succeed Charles B. Hart, resigned, is announced....The United States Navy Department orders warships to Honduras to protect American interests threatened by a revolutionary uprising.

February 6.—Brazilian forces capture Puerto Alonzo, in Aere, the seat of a Bolivian custom-house....President Roosevelt declines the request of the allied powers to act as arbitrator on the question of preferential treatment of claims against Venezuela.

February 7.—M. Jusserand, the new French ambassador to the United States, presents his credentials to President Roosevelt.

February 9.—Bulgaria invokes the good offices of the powers to procure the cessation of Turkish military preparations at Adrianople and Monastir....Italy de-



WILLIAM LOEB, JR., SECRETARY TO THE PRESIDENT.

(While Mr. Roosevelt was governor of New York, Mr. Loeb was his private secretary. He followed his chief to the White House, becoming assistant secretary to the President, and served in that capacity under Mr. Cortelyou, whom he now succeeds.)



COUNT QUADT-WYKRADT ISNY.

(Secretary of the German embassy at Washington; prominent last month in the Venezuelan negotiations.)

mands satisfaction for the ill-treatment of an Italian at the Turkish port of Preveza.

February 13.—Protocols providing for the settlement of the Venezuelan controversy are signed at Washington by the representatives of Great Britain, Germany, and Italy.

February 15.—The blockade of the Venezuelan coast is officially raised by the ships of Great Britain, Germany, and Italy.

February 16.—Chancellor von Bülow makes a statement in the German Reichstag regarding the Venezuelan settlement....President Palma, of Cuba, signs an agreement with the United States as to naval coaling stations....A protocol providing for the settlement of the claims of the United States against Venezuela is drawn up at Washington.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

January 23.—Earthquake shocks lasting several minutes are felt in Georgia and South Carolina.

January 24.—Professor Braun announces the discovery of a new system of wireless telegraphy.

January 27.—The annual convention of the United Mine Workers of America at Indianapolis completes its business and adjourns....At the Colney Hatch Asylum, in London, England, 53 insane female patients are burned to death....It is announced at Chicago that John D. Rockefeller has given \$7,000,000 to be used in research for a tuberculosis serum.

January 31.—The total receipts from the sale of the Marquand collection of art works, furniture, rugs, tapestries, etc., at New York, are \$706,019.

February 5.—The last witnesses to be called before the Anthracite Strike Commission are heard.... President Alexander C. Humphreys, of the Stevens Institute of Technology, at Hoboken, N. J., is inaugurated.



Photo by Hargrave, N. Y.

**PRESIDENT A. C. HUMPHREYS,
OF THE STEVENS INSTITUTE
OF TECHNOLOGY.**

(Inaugurated on February 5.)

February 7.—The bituminous coal miners accept the offer of the operators of an average increase of 14 per cent. in wages.... By the terms of settlement of the Montreal street railway strike the men receive 10 per cent. advance in wages and permission to form a union.

February 9.—A new compound engine on the Midland Railway of England attains a speed of 82 miles an hour.

February 10.—The steamship *Madiana* strikes on a reef near Hamilton, Bermuda, and is totally destroyed; passengers and crew are saved.

February 12.—In his closing argument before the Anthracite Strike Commission, President Baer, of the Philadelphia & Reading Company, proposes a sliding scale of wage-payment for the miners based on the price of coal.

February 16.—A monument to General Lawton, U.S.A., is unveiled on the spot where he was killed, in Luzon, P. I.

OBITUARY.

January 21.—Rev. Joseph R. Wilson, for thirty years stated clerk of the Southern Presbyterian Church, 81.

January 22.—Rev. J. H. M. Knox, D.D., formerly president of Lafayette College, 80.... Orlando Dwight Case, the Hartford publisher, 77.... Judge H. W. Bruce, of Kentucky, a member of the Confederate Congress, 72.... Augustus John Cuthbert Hare, English author, 69.... Mgr. Schaeppman, leader of the Dutch Catholic party, 59.

January 23.—Frederick Chippendale, the actor, 82.

January 24.—Rev. David Paul, D.D., formerly president of Muskingum College, 76.... Admiral Tyrtoff, 63.

January 25.—Ex-Gov. Charles Robert Ingersoll, of Connecticut, 81.

January 28.—Wilhelm Jordan, the German poet, 84.... Augusta Holmes, pianiste and composer, 56.... Robert Planquette, composer of "The Chimes of Normandy," 53.... Ex-United States Senator John Beard Allen, of Washington State, 58.... Rev. Charles S. Hoyt, a prominent Presbyterian clergyman of Chicago, 48.

January 29.—Cyrus Cobb, sculptor, painter, and musician, of Boston, 68.... Alvan E. Bovay, who formed the first organization of the present Republican party, 85.

January 30.—Dr. Morrill Wyman, of Cambridge, Mass., 90.

January 31.—Representative John N. W. Rumble, of

the Second Iowa District, 62.... Ex-Congressman Justin R. Whiting, of Michigan, 56.

February 1.—Sir George Gabriel Stokes, Master of Pembroke College, Cambridge, England, 84.... Absalom Graves Gaines, a former president of St. Lawrence University, at Canton, N. Y., 75.... Warren L. Wheaton, an Illinois pioneer, 91.

February 3.—Ex-Justice Leslie W. Russell, of the New York Supreme Court, 63.

February 5.—Ex-United States Senator Henry L. Dawes, 86 (see page 299).... Representative James M. Moody, of the Ninth North Carolina District, 45.

February 6.—Rear-Admiral Frank Wildes, U.S.N., 60.... Ex-Premier Petko Karaveloff, of Bulgaria, 58.... Ralph Milbanke, the British minister to Austria, 51.

February 8.—The Duke of Tetuan, formerly Spanish minister of foreign affairs, 69.

February 9.—Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, former prime minister of Victoria, 87.... Edward Byles Cowell, English writer and authority on Sanskrit, 77.... Edna Lyall (Ada Ellen Bayly), the English novelist, 40.... Ex-Gov. William Fishback, of Arkansas, 72.... Dr. Herman Mynter, one of the surgeons who operated on President McKinley, 53.

February 11.—Prof. Edward R. Shaw, formerly dean of the New York University School of Pedagogy, 48.

February 12.—Dr. Jabez Lamar Monroe Curry, the distinguished educator, 78.

February 14.—Col. J. Hampden Hoge, of Virginia.... Field Marshal Sir John Simmons, 82.

February 16.—Edward Perkins Clark, an editorial writer on the New York *Evening Post*, 55.... Rear-Admiral W. Robinson, U.S.N., retired, 63.



THE LATE SIR CHARLES GAVAN DUFFY.

(Eminent Irish leader and man of letters; formerly Prime Minister of Victoria.)

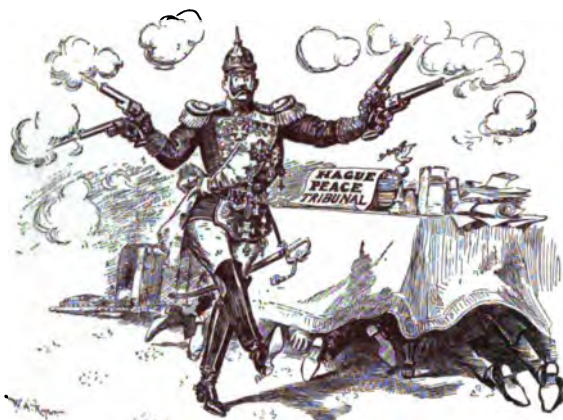


JOHN BULL: "Come out o' that, you blooming idiot!"—From the *World* (New York).

SOME CURRENT TOPICS IN CARTOONS.

IT is a somewhat curious fact that the American cartoonists last month were illustrating the almost universal sentiment expressed in the English newspapers. About nothing in many years has the influential press of all parties in England been so unanimous as in sweeping condemnation of the war alliance entered into by England and Germany to menace Venezuela incidentally, but primarily to "try it on" with the United States, in order to see how far Uncle Sam would tolerate European coercion of South American republics.

We are glad to reproduce Mr. Bush's cartoon, from the *New York World*, on this page in a bold and prominent way, for the benefit of those students of history who will in years to come refer to our bound volumes; for this picture is a faithful record of history. John Bull has actually regarded the Anglo-German alliance as a trap in which the British lion was fairly caught, and John has been most vociferous and uncomplimentary in connection with his determined efforts to disengage the stupid beast.



LET US HAVE PEACE!—From the *Herald* (New York).



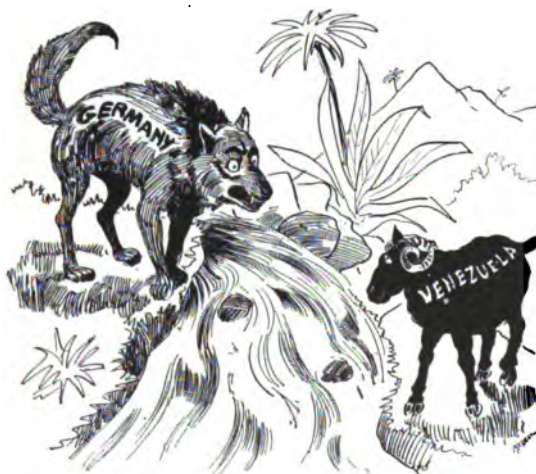
OUT OF THE FRYING-PAN INTO THE FIRE.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



ON THE VENEZUELAN PATH.
Going blind again.—From the *Westminster Budget* (London).



CHASING THE RAINBOW.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



GIVE THE BLACK SHEEP HIS DUES.

WOLF: "How dare you muddy my drinking water?"
SHEEP: "Indeed, how can my drinking here below foul your water uphill?"
WOLF: "Well, you would if you could, so I'll punish you right now."—Æsop's fable up to date.

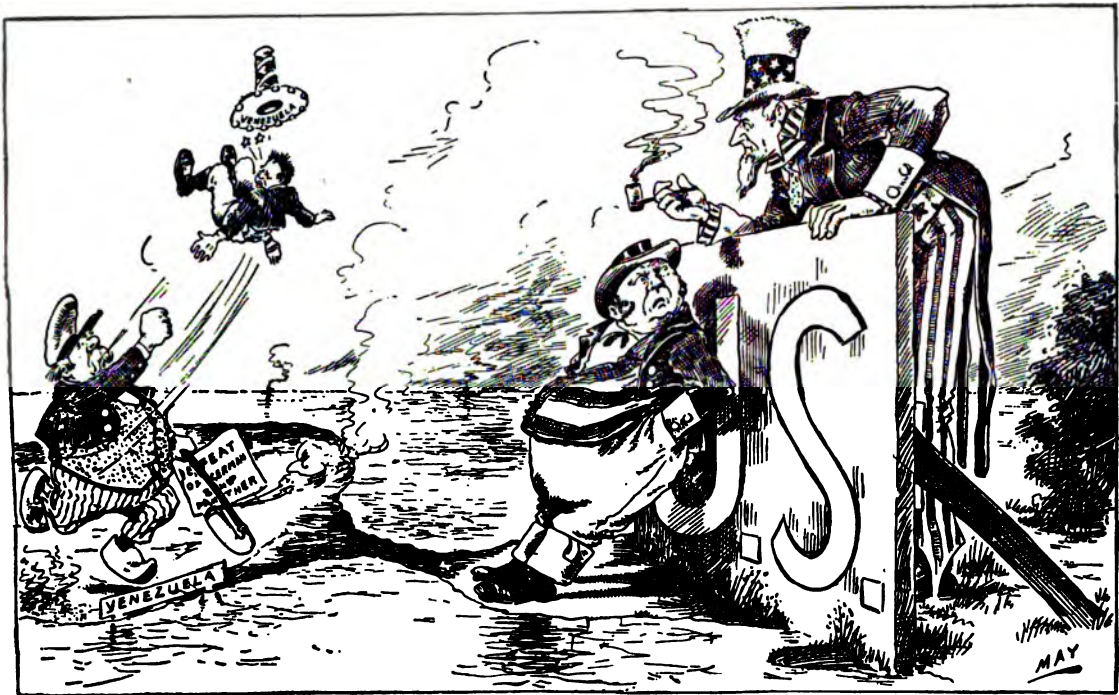
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



GERMANY AND ENGLAND AS CREDITORS OF VENEZUELA.

WILLIAM (to John Bull): "There is nothing to be got out of this bankrupt fellow; hadn't we better go packing, now this upstart has appeared?"

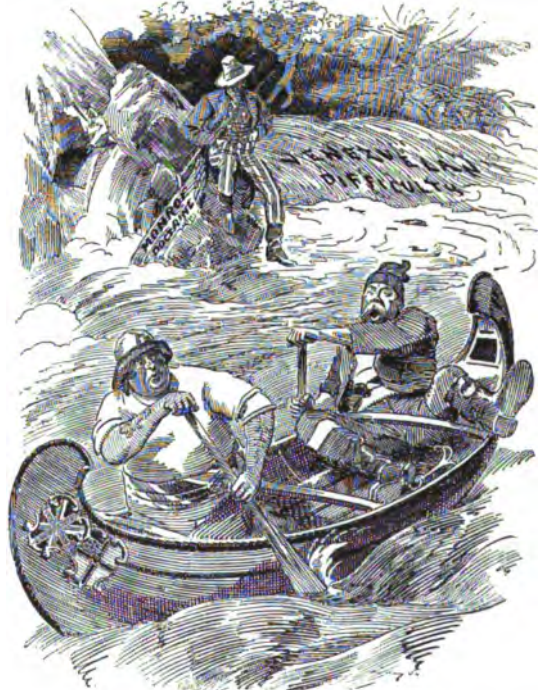
JOHN BULL: "... Yes ... we have done as much as we dare."—From *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).



JOHN BULL: "Ain't 'e got a 'orrible temper!"—From the *Journal* (Detroit).



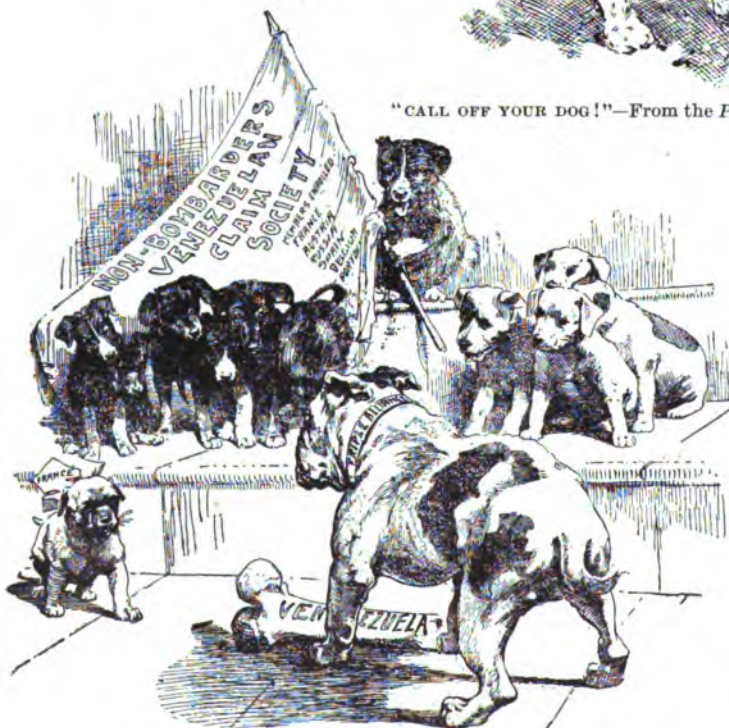
ITALY: "I'm the Kaiser's monkey; whose monkey are you?"
From the *Daily Ledger* (Tacoma).



NEVER AGAIN!
BROTHER JONATHAN: "I guess, brother John, next time you'll find it better to paddle your own canoe."
JOHN BULL (to himself): "I will."
From *Punch* (London).



"CALL OFF YOUR DOG!"—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

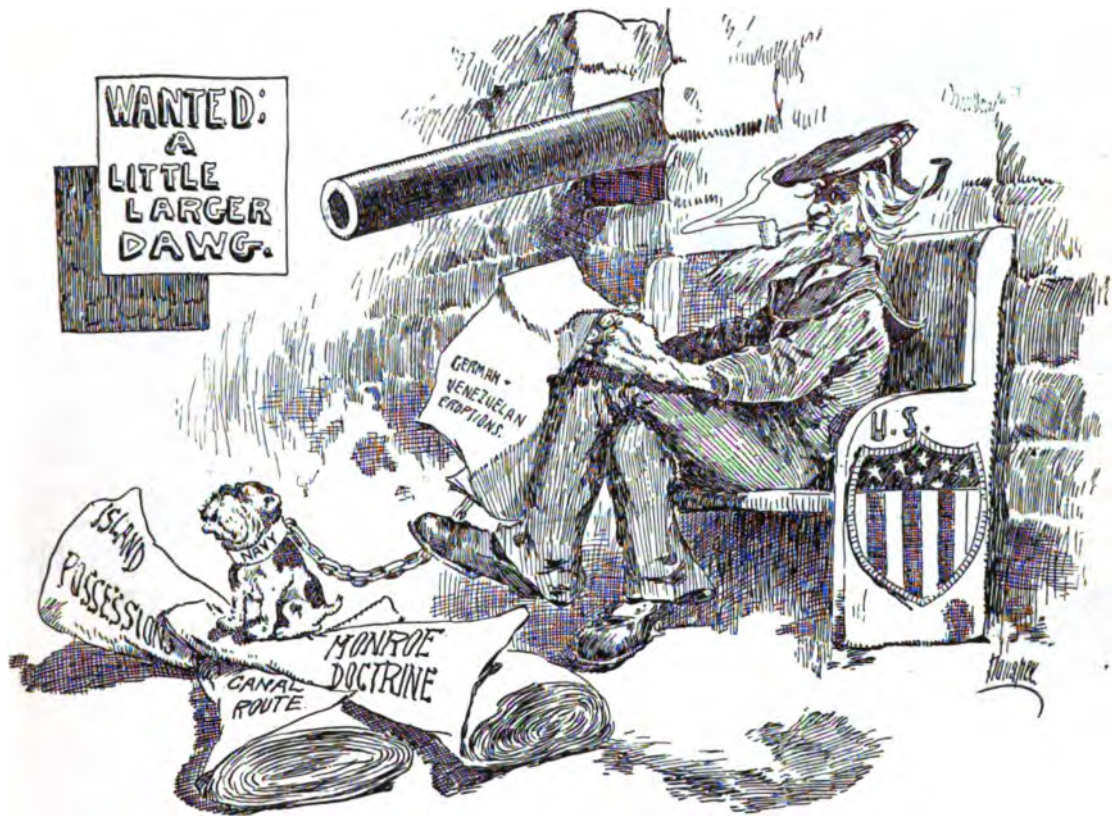


THE INTERRUPTED FEAST.—From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

The English just now are not fortunate in having cartoonists of vigor as well as cleverness to voice their feelings, Mr. Gould, of the *Westminster Gazette*, being always humorous and apt, but seldom drastic, while *Punch* is mild and inoffensive. Mr. Gould (see page 286), however, represents the British lion as "going blind again," led to the brink of a precipice by the German eagle; while on page 287 we reproduce a *Punch* cartoon which timidly indicates the prevailing British sentiment.

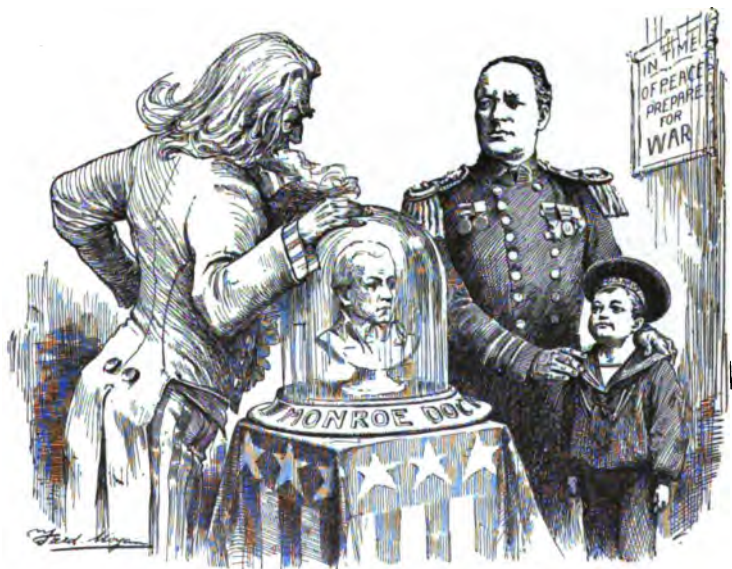
The cartoonists of Continental Europe, apart from Germany, have been unsparing in their satirical treatment of the Anglo-German adventure in Venezuela; but these cartoonists are, most of them, far inferior to their best American contemporaries in the conception and effective design of a cartoon.

Mr. Donahey, of the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*, has an amusing car-



toon (see page 288) in which John Bull is begging the fierce German Emperor to call off his war dog,—that is to say, the German fleet; while at the top of this page we present a cartoon from the same source which hints that Uncle Sam needs a little larger dog,—that is to say, a bigger navy. Mr. Morgan, of the *Philadelphia Inquirer*, has a picture based upon the recent suggestion of Lord Charles Beresford, the English admiral who has been visiting this country, to the effect that the Monroe Doctrine is a very valuable thing, but that we need a stronger navy to defend it.

Lord Beresford himself, by the way, is said by those who know about such things to have been quoted for appointment to the command of England's North Sea squadron, which is intended to co-operate with the Channel squadron. The German newspapers characterize the formation of this North Sea squadron as a counter-menace to Germany's increased naval activities.



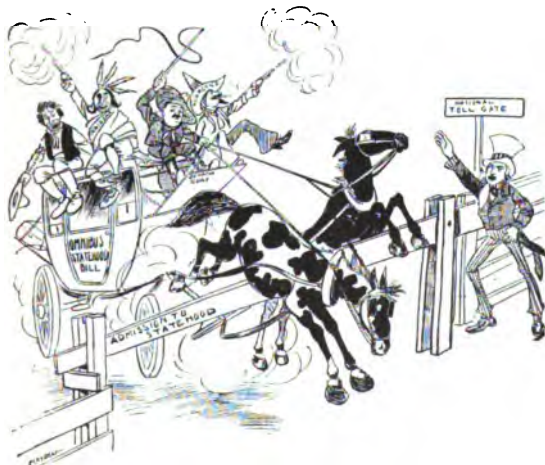
BE ON THE SAFE SIDE.

BERESFORD: "Yes, it's very valuable, but I think you need a stronger guard for it."
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

CAUGHT IN AN ICE-FLOE.—From the *Herald* (Boston).

The ups and downs of the omnibus Statehood bill, in its desperate struggle in the Senate at Washington last month, was the theme of a good many cartoons, three of which are reproduced on this page. They are meant

to be humorous rather than convincing, and need no interpretation. The subject itself is certainly a good deal more serious than these comical pictures might lead the uninformed to suppose.



WHOA! NOT SO FAST!!!
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



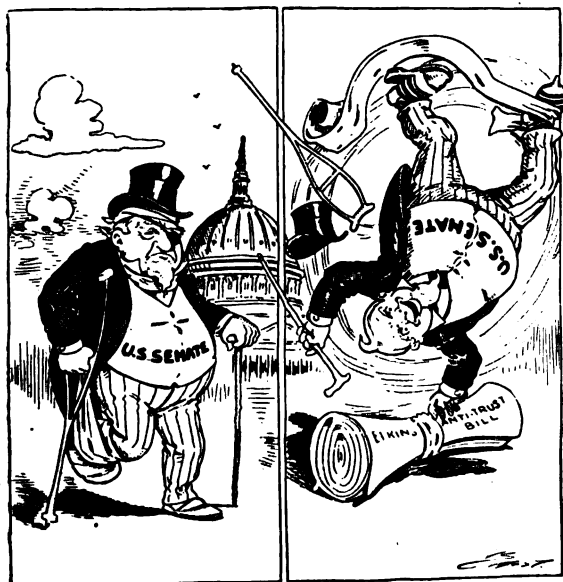
A PESKY CRITTER.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



"TOO MANY COOKS."—From the *Herald* (New York).

The trust question and the many bills relating to it that were pending in both houses in Washington last month were productive of almost countless cartoons in the American newspapers. The Littlefield bill that was so promising in January seemed to have been wholly superseded in February, and this reminds

Cartoonist Rogers, in the *New York Herald*, of an old proverb about too many cooks spoiling the broth. The sudden passage of the Elkins bill, when everybody supposed the Senate was not going to act gave "Bart," of the *Minneapolis Journal*, a suggestion for an amusing picture, reproduced herewith.



OUR SURPRISING SENATE.

Just as we begin to think he is totally incapacitated, he turns a legislative handspring.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



ANXIOUS TIMES FOR THE TRUSTS.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



SMOKING AGAIN.—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).



'POSSUM OR CHICKEN?—From the *Herald* (Baltimore).



WELDING THEIR INTERESTS.

The United States Steel Corporation will give its employees a chance to become stockholders.

From the *Herald* (Baltimore, Md.).



"LOOK OUT, TEDDY!"
From the *Times* (Denver).



BEGINS TO LOOK AS IF CANADA WERE ANNEXING U. S.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO AND HIS PRESENT TROUBLES.

BY TALCOTT WILLIAMS.

MOROCCO is the last Moslem derelict not yet cut, carved, controlled, or conquered by some European power. A century ago, independent Moslem lands stretched from the Atlantic to the Bay of Bengal. They lined North Africa. The Turkish Empire held its ancient boundaries. Persia and Afghanistan were untouched. North and central India were under Moslem rule. England has absorbed all India, and Afghanistan is a protected state. Persia is under Russian control. Turkey has lost half its

territory, and the Sultan has just mobilized his army in the vain hope of protecting his last European province, Macedonia. Egypt is English. Tunis and Algeria are French. Tripoli will soon be Italian. All the lesser Moslem principalities, Oman and Zanzibar, the central Asian khanates, and the recent kingdoms which once stretched from Senegal to Somaliland, each owns some European overlord.

Morocco alone of them all still holds its old boundaries, has no debt, owns no European pro-

tectorate, and maintains the rude independence and rude amorphous rule of the past. The other African and Asiatic lands have absorbed European ideas, weapons, organization, and administration. Withdraw from Morocco a few score European residents in the interior, eliminate Tangier, with its Spanish colony of 6,000 or 8,000, and the 219,000 square miles and 9,500,000 population of this Moslem empire in the extreme northwestern corner of Africa would still be as both have been for a thousand years,—the same in people, in government, in institutions, in transport, trade, manufacture, and agriculture. The great university at Fez, one of the very best in the Moslem world, whose graduates do better in Algerian institutions than the graduates of local schools, teaches the geography of Ptolemy, the medicine of Galen (I have heard him gravely quoted), the logic of Aristotle, and the commentaries of Bokkhari and Malek, Moslem worthies. The judge expounds the Moslem adaptation of the Justinian code. The ruler lives, judges, and beheads as did Solomon.



MULAI ABDUL AZIZ, SULTAN OF MOROCCO.



ENTRANCE TO THE SULTAN'S PALACE AND HOUSE OF THE GOVERNOR OF FEZ.

His viziers are to-day and to-morrow are not, as in the Arabian Nights of blessed memory. Nothing has changed politically, socially, commercially. This territory, the size of France, as large as New England and the Middle States, with a population as large as Pennsylvania and Ohio, or Belgium and the Netherlands, sells to Europe \$8,500,000 and buys \$8,000,000, or considerably less than half the exports and imports of a single square which holds the largest department store in the city where I write.

On its either coast, Atlantic or Mediterranean, Morocco has no good harbor for nigh sixteen hundred miles. It has in all its area no river which will float a raft, and none which you cannot, at ebb, ford in summer a mile from its mouth. Its Algerian frontier is a desolate and impassable series of passes and limestone ranges. The Atlas at the south, with its peaks of 12,000 to 15,000 feet, looks on the desert and the month's caravan track to Timbuktu. The narrow Moorish front on Europe, along the Straits of Gibraltar and eastward to the Algerian line, has on its coast blue hills whose reverse face no European has seen, and, except at Tangier, no place or port that Europeans habitually visit. For one hundred miles of Riffian (the Riffs are independent Kabyle or Berber tribes) coast, no vessel ever lands and no European

sets foot, though on clear days the shore is in sight of Europe.

This isolation has been the salvation of the Moslem and Morocco. Even at Peking, there are European envoys. There are none at the Moorish capitals of Morocco City and Fez, save as they journey for a special audience with the Sultan from Tangier. The unchanged population of the interior is sharply divided between the semi-independent Berber or Kabyle tribes of the mountains (a white race, often blonde, of unknown origin), where a European travels only with grave risk, and the cities, with their two

plains,—one at the north, with Fez, Mequinez and a group of small cities, and the other at the south, with Morocco City and its ports,—Mazagan and Mogador, with a mixed Arab and Berber population, submissive, taxed and oppressed by the rude irregulars of the Sultan. He has been, though of varying families, since the first of Mohammed's descendants, Idris, 788 A.D., came to Morocco, always a descendant of this line, now a numerous caste, spread through the land, wearing a special garb, and addressed with a term of special respect, however poor and whatever their calling. Theoretically, any member is eligible. Practically, the line is now limited to the Sherifian family of a tribal chief in Tafilet two hundred years ago.



A VIEW OF THE FORTIFICATION WALL OF THE CITY OF FEZ.



The Sultan. Minister of War. Commandant Burckhardt.

COMMANDANT BURCKHARDT EXPLAINING TO THE SULTAN AND HIS MINISTER OF WAR THE HANDLING OF A NEW CANNON.

You see Morocco on the map, and you seem to see what is on the rest of the map, Algeria or Tunis; but these are colored by this day. In Morocco, you are really looking at a territory past-dated by centuries. Its last Sultan, Mulai Hassan, 1873-94, understood all this. He was a good Moslem. He lived a sober, sedate life. His leisure he spent hearing read the Moslem law and its commentaries. He had no foreign notions. He wore the garb of centuries. He borrowed no money. He discouraged European travel. The adventurous explorer found himself headed off by polite but persistent guards. He had no European friends. He judged in the gate as his father had done. An Englishman, Sir Henry de Aubrey MacLean, once an English subaltern, drilled his troops; but the force was small, cost little, kept the hill tribes in bounds, and collected taxes on the plains.

Morocco should have wanted "progress." The Moors should be yearning for improvements. Quite the contrary. Your true Moslem is satisfied. His faith in his religion makes the average Christian belief seem trivial. Renegade Christians who have become Moslem you daily meet. The converted Moslems you can count on your fingers. The quiet of his life, its permanence, the slow course of affairs, the shop his his ancestors had, the land immemorially his, a descent which goes back through centuries, a learning that has known no additions since the Crusades,—these are all dear to the average

Moor. To the Moor of place and breeding they are so far above our Western racket, hurry, and change that when Ben Sliman, a Moor of family, said, on his return from his mission as Envoy to the coronation of Edward VII., that he was glad to be again in a civilized, more literally polite, land, he spoke words of truth and soberness to which all Moors would respond. I have myself known a Moor of means who, being able to live in London, and having tried it, preferred Fez.

In an evil hour, there entered Mulai Hassan's harem a Circassian girl, Lalla R'kia. She came in the good old way. It is an old trade—that in women. Her family was none the less good, one that furnishes the harems of the great and has for generations. She bore a son.—Mulai Abdul Aziz, the present Sultan. It is a bad cross—Arab and Circassian—known as such to all the East. Its offspring is opinionated, extravagant, given to European imitation, with no Moslem temperament. One such ruined Egypt, and such have brought disaster to other lines, through all Moslem history.

When Mulai Hassan died on the march, in 1894, the boy was fourteen.—a Moslem majority,—and his ambitious mother, versed in the harem statecraft of her race and sex, with a shrewd lord chamberlain, Si' Bou Ahmed, made him Sultan. The tribes rose and were put down,—heads on the gate, every tenth man left handless and women sold by the hundred in the slave market,—and there was peace until Bou Ahmed sick-

ened and died in 1899. His estates were confiscated and his slaves sold, and there followed a year of changing viziers,—each as he fell going off in chains and his slave household, delicate women folk and all, sold at auction. When you have seen it, as I have, you will know what the past was. A pretty girl runs up from \$330 to \$500.

The reins of rule all grew slack, and when the queen-mother died the young Sultan, even now but twenty-four, set out to tighten them. He put aside older men,—among them Haj Mokhtar Ben Abdullah, the last of his father's "honest viziers,"—and power came to a young man, late governor, Kaid M'heddi ul Menebbi. Reforms began. They are perilous. His new vizier had been minister in London and Paris. He was in touch with the West. The new Sultan got himself bicycles and cameras. A single consignment brought him two automobiles, twenty-five grand pianos, and fifty bicycles. In September, 1901, he reformed the prisons—by edict. The spring before, at the great feast, he called his governors together and told them to oppress no more. He launched a new system of taxes, and added to the simple tithe and land tax of the past a pestilent host of occupation imposts, all scientific and grating on local prejudice. He freed trade on the coast, to the general good and the individual ruin of the muleteer. He was interviewed by the Morocco correspondent of the *London Times*, Mr. Walter B. Harris, a man of great personal charm, and made him his intimate friend. Arthur Schneider, a New York artist, taught him to paint,—an abomination to every good Moslem.

Things began to happen. The French spread 15,000 troops out in 1900, and occupied, 1901, Tuat and Figuig, oases on the line the railroad must take from Algeria to Senegal, places long held by Morocco, and by 1902, with two warships out, the Sultan accepted the new line and an interpretation of the treaty of 1845 which will cost more territory. The Fez mob got out of hand and slew a naturalized Jewish-American, Marcos Ezaguin, and burnt his body. That cost something, though not as much as fooling with the French; but the *New York* and *Dixie* were needed to settle the account. In August, 1901, a Kabyle raiding party swept off from a small port, Arzila, a Spanish young woman and boy. Whites make higher-priced slaves. Mulai Hassan stopped this, as he once explained, because Europeans made such a fuss over single women. The Spanish minister, Señor Ojeda, now at Washington, collected an indemnity, but it was all a bad precedent and a worse sign.

The whole land began to seethe. In October, a Moslem fanatic shot an English missionary, Mr. Cooper, in Fez, took refuge in the most

sacred shrine in the empire, was dragged out and shot. It was just and plucky. The *London Times* praised it extravagantly; but in Moorish bazaars and mosques they do not read the *Times*. The man, by Moslem law, was a murderer. Mulai Hassan would have executed him, and none would have said aught. Mulai Abdul Aziz has outraged every Moslem sentiment. Last November, the tribes began to rise. The Zemmour rose on the road from Fez to Rabat. The Beni'der plundered up to the gates of Tetuan. In the south, the smoldering rebellion in the Wad Sus spread across the Atlas. Lastly, the unruly tribes about Teza, along the pass from Fez to Algeria, rose together. Bou Hamara (Donkey-man),—a nickname which suggests to the Eastern ear the wandering, wise, and devout,—riding the peaceful, unpretentious ass, led them. A conjurer, a fakir,—that strange compound of religion, mendacity, mendicancy, leger-de-main, and capacity for speech and leadership which heads eastern revolution,—he drove out the Sultan's tax-gatherers in November. By December, he had beaten the Sultan's army; by January, he was close to Fez. At the elevation of that lofty plateau (Fez is 1,200 feet up, and the region beyond 2,000 to 3,000, with snow-peaks even in summer) the tribes cannot be kept together in midwinter. The Sultan's organized troops, inflicted a defeat on the "Pretender," as our dispatches call him; but in the eyes of the Moslem, as he is of the royal caste, success and proclamation in the mosques would give him full title.

Spring, fair weather, and a mountain campaign only can decide the issue. Meanwhile, Bou Hamara's well-written letters are going over Morocco. No one can predict the result now. The local prediction of correspondents is all with the regular government; but all the bands of authority are unloosed. The Morocco question is brought near Europe. France has a fair claim on the hinterland, below the fertile strip along the Straits of Gibraltar. Settled and guarded, Morocco is good for 200,000,000 bushels of wheat. The ownership of this northern strip, opposite Spain and Gibraltar, halts action. There are many signs, in the freedom with which France is acting in the interior, that a secret treaty during the Boer war may have settled all.

Meanwhile, Mulai Abdul Aziz has begun the fatal step of borrowing money. For a Moslem prince, that begins European control. His own safety lies in the jealousy of Europe and the objection to a fanatic seizing the throne and excluding Europeans from the interior, where German trade is growing and German traders multiplying. But for this, past Morocco history would doubtless repeat itself.

GEORGE BRUCE CORTELYOU, SECRETARY OF COMMERCE.

BY HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND.

FROM stenographer to cabinet officer in a little over seven years is rapid promotion in the public service. This is the success of George Bruce Cortelyou, of Hempstead, N. Y., achieved at the age of forty, and, so far as I know, it is unparalleled. Moreover, Mr. Cortelyou not only comes to the cabinet table of the President of the United States younger than almost all other cabinet officers have been when appointed, but, as secretary to the President, he has been for nearly three years, in effect, the ninth member of the cabinet. Such an extraordinary official career would attract attention and excite emulation even if it were that of a politician favored by powerful political influences, but it is more remarkable because it is well known that Mr. Cortelyou is not a politician, and that he has had no "political pull," but has made his way solely on his own merits. This is what makes his success so admirable and commends it so strongly as an example for other young men. It is well attested by the practically unanimous approval given by Senators, Representatives, and other public men acquainted with Mr. Cortelyou's work, and by the press of the country, all without regard to party politics, to his selection, first by President McKinley, and then, and quite independently, by President Roosevelt, for cabinet honors.

When it became known that Mr. Cortelyou was to be made Postmaster-General by President McKinley if a vacancy occurred in that office during his second administration, the expressions of approval were as cordial as they were general. And when, upon learning that Congress would pass the bill creating the new Department of Commerce and Labor, and so add a new member to the cabinet, President Roosevelt said that when the bill became a law he would appoint Mr. Cortelyou as the first head of the new department, there was not only substantial unanimity in the expressions of approval, but no candidates appeared for the new office, notwithstanding its attractions for many men. No similar incident has occurred in our history, and it is not strange that it is being commented upon as remarkably interesting. In Washington, where the ambition for cabinet offices and the great difficulties in the way of aspirants for such appointments are especially well known, the

significance of such success is probably better appreciated than elsewhere.

The salary of a cabinet office is only eight thousand dollars, and is practically inadequate to meet the social demands upon the incumbent, so that it is not a financial prize in these days; but the honor and the dignity of such a place are as great as ever, and they are as much sought for as at any former time. Secretary Cortelyou has doubtless had attractive invitations to go into business from prominent financiers who appreciated his unusual executive and diplomatic abilities. Doubtless he might have had similar success to that of President Cleveland's first secretary, Mr. Daniel S. Lamont, in the business world, but he has preferred to remain in public life, with the certainty that he would soon receive one of its great opportunities, with the corresponding honors and the corresponding exactions.

Secretary Cortelyou would not have achieved his success if he had not had the integrity and the industry required for any degree of success anywhere; but, without diminishing the value of his example, it must be said at once that what he has accomplished could have been done only by a man of peculiar power, and with exceptional opportunities. Success in a degree will doubtless come to any young man who prepares, by hard, steady, and intelligent effort, as Mr. Cortelyou did, for whatever opportunities may come to him. But he may not have the opportunities leading to great success, or he may not have the ability requisite for them. Mr. Cortelyou has demonstrated, by the way in which he has improved unusual opportunities, that he is a man of unusual abilities. As no young man can tell, however, until after long trial, what his powers are or what his opportunities may be, there is the greatest encouragement in Mr. Cortelyou's success for every young man to make the most of what he has. Thousands of young men come to Washington to take places in the executive departments and fail of any considerable achievement because they "mark time." Mr. Cortelyou came well equipped by general education and as an expert stenographer to do valuable service and determined not to stand still, but to continue to improve his mind and to improve every opportunity that came to

him. So when his opportunities came he was ready.

He had a good inheritance of mind and heart, from a fine ancestry, but no considerable heritage of property. Born in the city of New York, on July 26, 1862, he received a good American education at public and private schools, taking a course at the Hempstead (Long Island) Institute and the State Normal School at Westfield, Mass., and mastering stenography, so that he was able to support himself immediately after graduation, and by the time he was twenty-one was able to act as a verbatim reporter of court proceedings in New York City. After two years of this work, he had four years' experience as principal of preparatory schools in New York, and then, in 1889, entered the civil service, with his stenography as a key, so that he was soon promoted to be a private secretary, serving first, at New York, the post-office inspector, and then the surveyor of the port, after which he was transferred to the Post-office Department, where he served with the fourth assistant postmaster-general.

Instead of settling down, as the great majority of men do, content with his place and his skill as a stenographer, this young man redoubled his efforts, and availing himself of the evening law schools of the colleges in Washington by hard study at night took the degree of Bachelor of Laws from Georgetown University, and that of Master of Laws from Columbian University. Then, as always, he showed the strength of character which scorns delights and lives laborious days for the sake of a worthy object. In November, 1895, a new door was opened to him, and he was able to enter at once upon the path which has led to his present distinction. As the story is told, President Cleveland said at a cabinet meeting in that month: "I wish you gentlemen to bear in mind that I want a first-class shorthand man. Some of you must have the right kind of man in your departments, and I wish you would look around and let me have one." Postmaster-General Bissell spoke right up, saying: "I believe I have in my department the very man you want. He's a handsome young fellow, as smart as lightning, and as methodical as a machine, and, above everything, a gentleman."

"That's the kind of man I want," replied the President. "Who is he, and where is he, and when can I have him?"

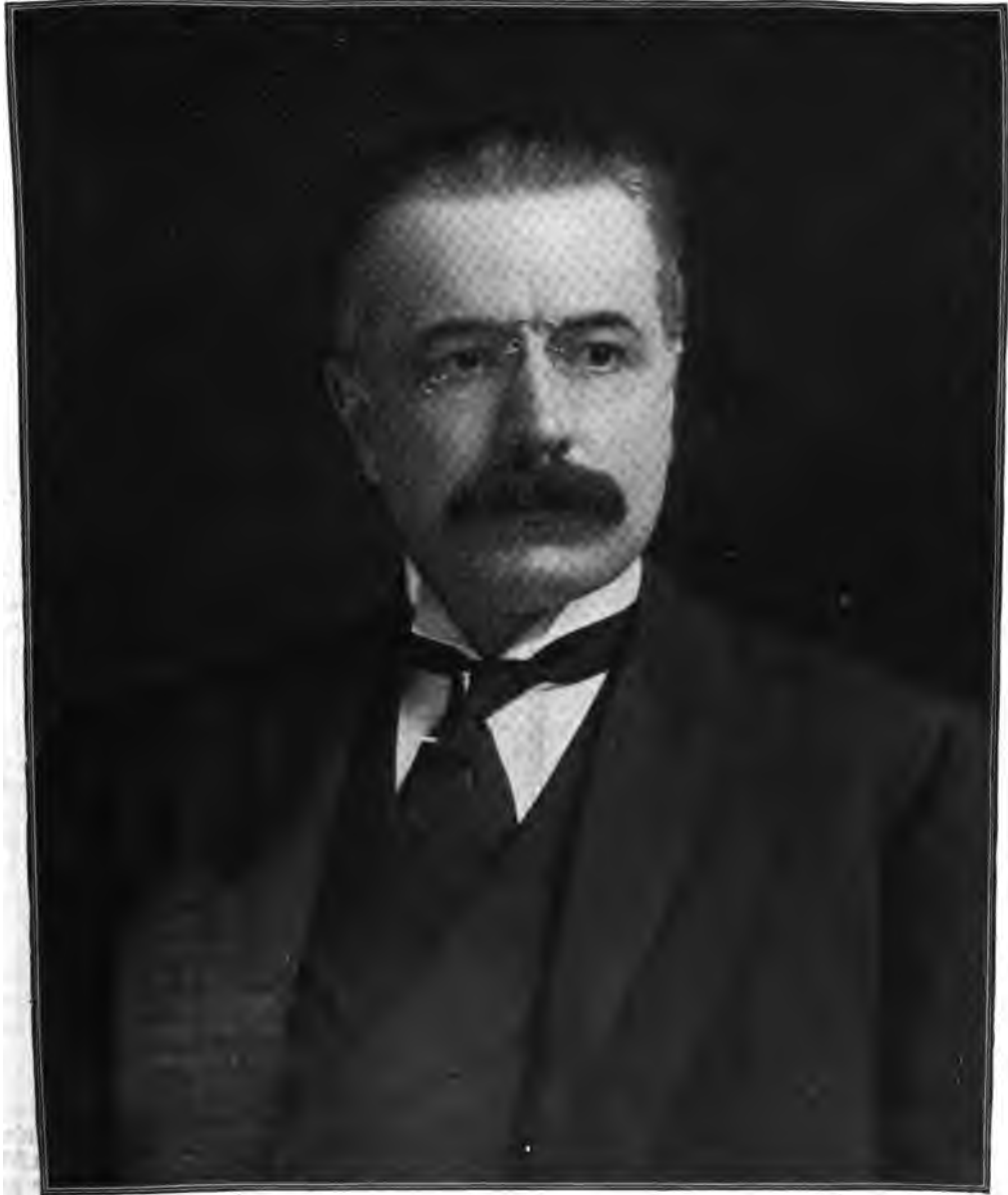
"He's a New Yorker named Cortelyou," said the Postmaster-General, "and he's now private secretary to Maxwell, the fourth assistant postmaster-general. I'll speak to Maxwell, and we will send him up to you to-morrow."

Thus, without any seeking on his own part, without any political backing, without even being asked what his politics were, a Republican under a Democratic administration, Mr. Cortelyou, at thirty-three, went to the White House, where he has moved steadily forward ever since in the same way in which he began. President Cleveland liked him from the first, as everybody does who knows him, and a year before he went out of office, and only three months after Mr. Cortelyou came into office, promoted him to be executive clerk. This place he held until July 1, 1898, when, in the midst of the Spanish War, on the recommendation of John Addison Porter, the faithful and lamented public servant who first held the office of secretary to the President, which had formerly been called private secretary, Mr. Cortelyou was promoted to be assistant secretary to the President by Mr. McKinley. Later, when Secretary Porter's health failed, Mr. Cortelyou acted as secretary to the President until April 13, 1900, when, President McKinley having reluctantly accepted Secretary Porter's resignation, Mr. Cortelyou was appointed his successor as naturally as though it were inevitable.

After President McKinley had been reelected, it was certain that Mr. Cortelyou would be reappointed, as he was, on March 15, 1901. It was equally certain that, after the tragedy at Buffalo, Secretary Cortelyou would be reappointed by President Roosevelt, as he was, on September 16, 1901, although if a different man had held the office he would probably have been superseded, in the natural course of events, by Mr. Roosevelt's own private secretary, Mr. William Loeb, Jr., an able and accomplished man, who was appointed assistant secretary, and is now to be secretary to the President, as the successor of Mr. Cortelyou.

But it had been demonstrated that Mr. Cortelyou was the man for this place, and the only question was whether he would feel that he could afford to remain at the comparatively small salary of \$5,000 a year. Three men more different than President Cleveland, President McKinley, and President Roosevelt, although their aims and aspirations were so much alike, could hardly be found in public life. The point of view, the manner of transacting business, even the method of preparing public papers or writing letters, of each of these Presidents was entirely his own and characteristic of his temperament, yet each of them found Mr. Cortelyou perfectly suited to his needs, and each of them came to call him, not servant, but friend.

The relations between the President and his secretary must be of the most intimate character. Conceivably, a President might not be on such



HON. GEORGE BRUCE CORTELYOU.

intimate terms with any member of his cabinet as with his secretary. His secretary must be with him day and night. Secretary Cortelyou, for example, in his characteristic single-minded devotion to duty, has accepted practically no social invitations during the busy season in Washington, because he might be needed at any time. The secretary's business hours are practically from the time he gets up in the morning until he goes to bed at night. When he is not

with the President, he must be, most of the time, the representative of the President, and to many people and in many important matters, his *alter ego*. At the same time, he must direct the large clerical staff and the large volume of business in the executive offices, besides keeping an eye on all that goes on in and around the White House, and especially the means for safeguarding the President from unnecessary intrusion, and from any possible danger. He

must aid the President in making engagements, political, social, and general, often far in advance, and he must plan and supervise all the details of all the President's journeys. This is not given as a complete list of his varied and exacting duties, but only to show what the secretary's relation to the President is, and how thoroughly each must know the other.



MRS. GEORGE B. CORTELYOU.

Leaving President Cleveland out of account, because Mr. Cortelyou did not rise above the office of executive clerk under his administration, we know absolutely that Mr. Cortelyou has completely met the most searching tests of that relationship, under the severest conditions. Under the strain of the Spanish War summer, which broke the health of Secretary Porter, and the double duties that then fell upon Mr. Cortelyou; in the tragic and sorrowful week at Buffalo; in the process of beginning a new administration, under a new leader, so suddenly and under such trying circumstances called to that great responsibility, Mr. Cortelyou showed the same sanity, strength, modesty, and equanimity. "Unstampedable."—Garfield's word about his noble wife,—is the word for Secretary Cortelyou. He is human, he gets weary, doubtless he makes mistakes, although I never heard of any sufficiently important to be remembered, and he

is a man of like passions with his fellows; but in ordinary days, at the White House offices, which are trying enough, through the exactions of the scores of callers and the bristling difficulties of important affairs, and in extraordinary emergencies such as actually try men's souls, no one has ever seen Secretary Cortelyou unduly excited, or unequal to the demands made upon him. The common sense which is so uncommon, the sense of humor which is indispensable, the cheerful calmness which comes of strength, and the courtesy which never fails because it is from the heart, have made Secretary Cortelyou master of every situation because he was master of himself.

None who saw what he did for President McKinley at Buffalo, and what he was doing at the same time for the Government and the country, in the hours when their interests were for the time being practically in his hands, failed to see that his qualities and powers were equal to any necessity. When McKinley fell in his arms at the Temple of Music, Cortelyou had to act for the President, and also to act as the President, and he showed equal wisdom and courage in both relations, besides that tenderness and loyalty which only his closest friends fully know. And all with such modesty of heart reflected in such simplicity of manner! No wonder that Secretary Cortelyou is so popular in the best sense of that word.

In an office where fidelity to his chief and to the great interests of his charge requires him to disappoint many people every day, where he must deal with all kinds of politicians, of all grades and of all shades of character, each important in his way, or at least in his own estimation, and with the most intelligent, cultivated, and experienced people of all sorts, including some of the best and most representative newspaper men, not only of the United States, but from abroad, with whom he may be frank but must be discreet, Mr. Cortelyou has so conducted himself that all speak well of him. In his relations with the Washington newspaper correspondents he has shown how a secretary to the President can keep official secrets without making enemies, either for the President or himself, and how he can communicate news most tactfully and efficiently, and without self-advertising. The secretary to the President can do his administration infinite harm, simply by tactless or foolish treatment of newspaper men. Secretary Cortelyou has done nothing better for the Presidents he has served than in his wise performance of his duties with respect to the press.

Nothing appeals more to newspaper men in public men,—except, perhaps, honesty,—than

modesty. Nothing in Secretary Cortelyou has appealed to them more than that habit of mind which prompted him to withhold from the newspapers the perfectly just but eulogistic remarks President Roosevelt made about him last summer when visiting Westfield, Mass., the seat of the State Normal School, where Mr. Cortelyou was graduated.

It might seem from this rough outline of Secretary Cortelyou's public career that he had no private life at all. This has been almost true at times during the past five years. But, except in the very busiest days, he has always found time for his family. He has continued to live, since he became secretary to the President, as he did before, in comfortable but simple fashion, in an unfashionable neighborhood, three blocks north-east of the Capitol. He has the happiest kind

of home life, with a wife who has been a perfect companion, and four bright and active children. We would not, of course, intrude upon that privacy which has been so sacredly guarded, but it is not improper to record the fact that Secretary Cortelyou's wife, who was Miss Hinds, of Hempstead, the daughter of the principal of the institute there, where Mr. Cortelyou met her while a student in the institute, has had much to do with her husband's success. In all his aspirations, in all his efforts, he has had, not only her sympathy and support, but her active coöperation. At the same time, she has neglected no home duty and no social obligation. There is no more popular woman in official society, for very much the same reasons that there is no more popular man than her husband in Washington official life.

HENRY LAURENS DAWES.

BY GEORGE PERRY MORRIS.

JOHN ELIOT, William Penn, Helen Hunt Jackson, Henry B Whipple, U. S. Grant, and Henry L. Dawes,—these are the outstanding figures in American history nobly and permanently identified with increasing the Red Indian's physical and spiritual well-being.

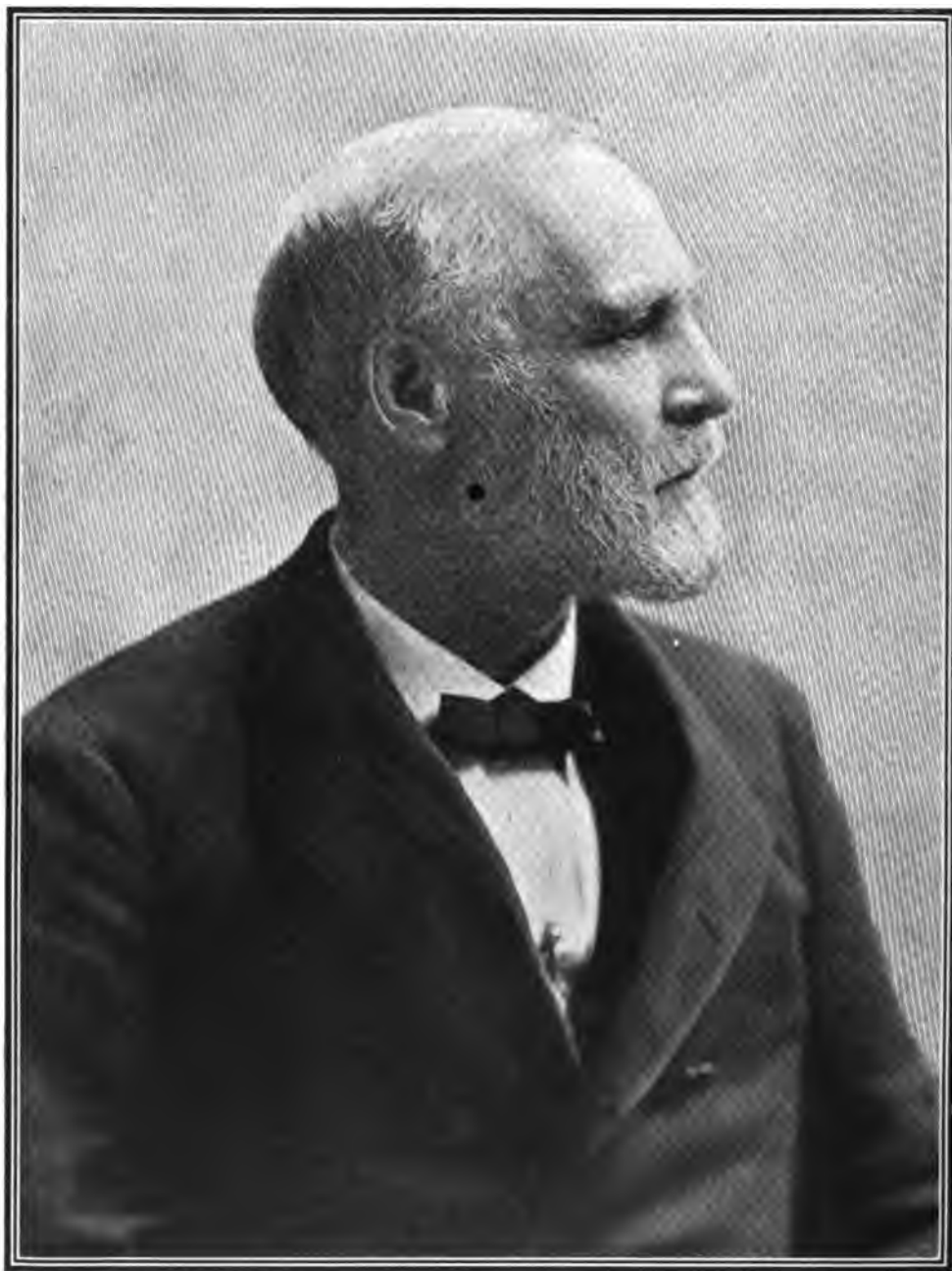
What John Eliot, in the New England of the seventeenth century, was to his time, that Bishop Whipple was to his. What William Penn, in the seventeenth century, was to the Indians of the middle Atlantic States as a treaty maker and keeper and a Christian state-builder, that Henry L. Dawes was to the Indians of his time. Mrs. Jackson, with her book "Ramona," did for the Indian what Harriet Beecher Stowe did for the negro with "Uncle Tom's Cabin." She had no predecessor and has had no successor. President Grant, though a man of war, saw the futility of the immemorial policy of strife with the Indians, and turned a leaf in our national policy toward them which none of his successors have cared or dared to turn back.

The long public career of ex-Senator Dawes, who died at his home in Pittsfield, Mass., February 5, began in 1848 with his election to the Legislature of Massachusetts, and it ceased with his last illness, for at the time of death he was still chairman of the Commission to the Five Civilized Tribes in the Indian Territory. His was a career notable for its variety of service,—journalist, lawyer, legislator,—and for its inde-

pendence of thought and action, within party lines. As a young Whig he bolted Webster in favor of Scott in the national party convention in 1850, he being the only Massachusetts man to do so. He refused to be swept into the "Know-nothing" movement. While in the House of Representatives (1856-74) he opposed the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, as chairman of the Committee of Appropriations he was the unbribable "watchdog of the Treasury," as chairman of the Ways and Means Committee in 1872 he brought about a reduction of the tariff. When Mr. Dawes was defeated for the Speakership in 1869 by a questionable deal between Mr. Blaine and Benjamin Butler, the defeat did not embitter him, though doubtless it much altered the course of party and national history.

After his election to the Senate, in 1875, as Charles Sumner's successor, the same personal traits which had made him influential and much respected in the House soon gained for him a high place in the counsels of the upper body.

These personal traits were "inherited and disciplined industry," which gave him capacity for a prodigious amount of toil; thorough mastery of the principles and details of parliamentary procedure and of such legislation as it became his duty to champion and carry through; modesty; lack of all envy; inflexible will in matters of conscience, but tact and shrewdness in gaining victory and swiftness to seize an opening



THE LATE HON. HENRY L. DAWES.

(From a recent photograph.)

due to an opponent's neglect of precaution ; and last—loyalty to high ideals of personal conduct and national action.

Consequently, his name is identified with much of the important fiscal legislation growing out of the Civil War and during the Recon-

struction period ; with the establishment of the Fish Commission, the Weather Bureau, and of the College for Deaf Mutes at Washington. Far more than some of his brilliant, eloquent contemporaries in the House and Senate from Massachusetts, he was a constructive statesman.

He had considerable power as a stump speaker, unusual gifts as a debater in the rough-and-tumble of debate, but he was a lawmaker rather than an orator. His discipline at Yale had given him a capacity for "team work" and a disposition to get things done which some of his Harvard associates, with their gifts of eloquence and their riper culture but "splendid isolation," must have envied.

There was a rugged simplicity and genuineness, an old-fashioned courtesy, and indifference to wealth about Mr. Dawes which made him an admirable model whether moving in the full glare of Washington light or in the quieter surroundings of Pittsfield.

Massachusetts has a way of breeding lovers of humanity, and it is not at all surprising that just as Charles Sumner had come to the front as a champion of the negro, and just as later George Frisbie Hoar has arisen to champion the Filipino's cause, so Mr. Dawes should make splendid the last days of his career by unflagging devotion to the best interests of the Red Indian, whom the Caucasian had ousted from the vast territory over which he once roamed unchallenged. It is not a pleasant record to contemplate,—the one that intervenes between the days of John Eliot and William Penn and the day in 1877 when the nation took from its own treasury the first dollar which implied that the Indian was to be educated and civilized. It is mostly a record of robbery and neglect, of crowding the Indians upon reservations in the hope that they would die out, of treaty-breaking, and of costly wars.

When once the idea took root that the Indian deserved to be treated like any other human being, that he should be educated, fitted for citizenship, elevated from the station of ward to citizen, that instead of being pauperized by grants of land, rations, and other gifts he should be made to stand on his own feet, then a new day dawned for the Indian race, which had refused to die out and to-day is nearly as numerous in this country as it was when the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth and the Cavaliers at Jamestown.

With all the legislation which records this altered attitude toward the Indian by national officials—executive and legislative—and philanthropists, Mr. Dawes' name is connected more or less closely,—of late, very closely. From the time that he became chairman of the Senate Committee on Indian Affairs down to the time of his death, he has been the most conspicuous figure in national life dealing with Indian affairs.

When Mr. Dawes retired from the Senate, in 1893, President Cleveland appointed him chairman of a commission to the five civilized tribes

of Indians in the Indian Territory. With patience, tact, yet steady pressure, the commission has done its work during the intervening decade. Slowly but surely, the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, Cherokees, and Seminoles, after prolonged and delicate negotiations, have been partially, if not wholly, won to the new point of view as one conducive to their welfare as well as to that of the Government. Tribal courts have been given up, the common lands divided in severalty, citizenship in the United States has been sought, and subjection to federal laws such as govern white men has been proffered. In turn, the commission has protected the Indians from their greedy enemies, the white cattle men; it has been conscientious in dividing the common wealth so as to do no injustice; in unraveling the conflicts between tribal and federal law; and in determining and defining the status of the Indian, qualities of the highest legal order have been necessary.

The task of the friend of the Indian of to-day, viewed in the large, as expressed by Mr. Dawes, is this: "To fit the Indian for civilization and to absorb him into it." Prior to 1877, the Government's expenditures for Indians were due to the activity of the army in putting down outbreaks. In 1877, the first appropriation,—\$20,000,—of a different sort was made, and, supplemented by gifts from private citizens, went to support the first of the government schools. Now, in addition to educating the Indian in the schools, he is to be educated through the exercise of all those capacities of his nature which self-support, ownership of land, the use of the ballot, etc., imply.¹ And the vast appropriation for the Indian service in 1902,—\$9,747,471,—does not imply an increase of expenditure due to war or to pauperization, but the carrying out of those schemes for making the Indian a citizen and not a ward which Mr. Dawes has so much favored both as legislator and as commissioner. Hereafter, the home and not the tribe will be the unit with the Indian, and though protected under the law for a quarter of a century from alienating his freehold right, he sooner or later must stand on his own feet, and, like the negro, struggle side by side with the Caucasian for the right to live.

It is a fine record of achievement that the farmer boy has made who entered Yale College with a sound body, an excellent mind, high ideals,—and only nineteen dollars of money. His place is secure among the constructive statesmen of his time, and among those public men who have used their talents and opportunities to lift to higher levels peoples less fortunate than their own race, and generally despised.

THE "TWENTY-MILLION-DOLLAR FUND" OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

BY DR. J. M. BUCKLEY.

METHODISM dates from the year 1739, when, in England, John Wesley began to preach "experimental religion," attesting its reality by an account of the sudden, strange, but delightful warming of his heart when "he felt that Christ had died for him," and that "through faith in His name . . . his sins were blotted



REV. EDMUND M. MILLS, D.D.

(Corresponding secretary of the Twentieth Century Thank Offering Commission.)

out." The history of his preceding struggles and seven years' preaching is as absorbing as a romance, but only the date of his emancipation is needed here ; for that determined the time of the first centennial thank offering made by Methodists. All Methodism celebrated in 1839 the centennial of its birth with gifts expressive of its estimate of the blessings which God through Methodism had bestowed upon its votaries.

In 1866, the centennial of the first appearance of Methodism on this side of the Atlantic, a second thank offering was made in the United States and Canada. Above ten million dollars

was then given by the Methodist Episcopal Church alone to its various institutions and benevolent enterprises. Other branches of the Methodist family celebrated the event in similar manner.

As the close of the nineteenth century drew near, certain ministers of influence in the Methodist Episcopal Church directed attention through the denominational press to the importance of recognizing the birth of the new century. In the summer of 1898, the Wesleyan Conference, then in session at Hull, England, resolved to ask the Church for one million guineas, to be a memorial of the gratitude of the Church to God, and to be used for the advancement of His kingdom as understood by Wesleyan Methodists. One of the bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and another prominent connexional officer, since elected bishop, having been sent as fraternal delegates to the Wesleyan Conference, were present when this subject was discussed, and on their return to this country advocated the proposition that the Methodist Episcopal Church should make a special effort in the same direction. Meanwhile, the presidents of Methodist colleges and universities took up the matter and appointed a committee to wait on the bishops at their semi-annual meeting. However, before the committee arrived, the bishops had considered the question and reached a unanimity of affirmative sentiment.

At first, some of them thought that it would be wiser to ask only ten million dollars ; but the majority, recognizing that, though the average wealth per member of the Wesleyan denomination in England probably exceeds that of the Methodist Episcopal Church, the latter has nearly four times as many members as the former, believed that it would be safe to appeal for the larger sum. In the course of the discussion, those who doubted became convinced, and the bishops sent forth a stirring appeal. When twenty million dollars was specified in their statement many in the Church thought it too much, and some newspapers echoed their sentiments, saying that the country had not yet recovered from the fearful panic and depression which began in 1892, and intimating that the denomination must have "lost its head," and that no general effort would be made.

More than a year and a half remained before the meeting of the General Conference, which assembled on the first Wednesday in May, 1900, in that center of energy and index of financial prosperity and adversity, Chicago. During this period, the condition of the country had improved and the spirit of the people become confident. For the first time in the history of the denomination, an equal number of laymen and ministers composed the General Conference. Such an opportunity for discussion and illumination had never before existed. In their quadrennial address to the conference the bishops stated what they had done, and the reasons therefor. Their communication was referred to the appropriate committee, which reported unanimously in favor of undertaking to raise twenty million dollars. This action was vital, for in Episcopal Methodism,—outside of the right of appointing and ordaining pastors,—the power of the bishops as such is limited to recommendations. Under the constitution, the General Conference has power to make the rules and regulations for the Church, and no other body can veto its action. This movement was not enacted into the form of law, but had the moral force of law. No church respects its bishops more than the Methodist Episcopal, and when their opinion and desire are expressed as a unit and approved by the General Conference the effective force engendered is equal to that of the coherence and loyalty of the Church.

For the purposes of such an achievement, no ecclesiastical body is more efficiently organized. The clergy are organized into conferences; these meet once a year, and every member able to do so is required to attend. Methodist Episcopacy is not diocesan. Were it so, the bishop would have no power outside of his own diocese; theoretically, Methodist bishops have all power at all times. They divide the work of superintendence among each other, so that each of the one hundred and fourteen conferences at its annual session is presided over by a bishop. Each of these conferences is subdivided into districts, over each of which a member of an Annual Conference previously appointed presides.

In order both to instruct and awaken the Church, as well as to constitute a center of communication and to secure the keeping of proper accounts, a commission was appointed, of whom Bishop Andrews, whose episcopal residence is in the city of New York, was chairman, and a connectional secretary was appointed. In harmony with Methodist usage, this secretary became the executive head of the movement, and choice was made of the Rev. Edmund M. Mills, at the time presiding elder of an important district in one

of the largest conferences. He had been secretary of his own conference for many years, is an alumnus of the oldest university in the Church and secretary of its board of trustees, and also a member of the Board of Control of the Epworth League, the young people's society of the Church, which, according to the figures commonly given out, numbers more than a million and a half members. From the commission, through him, proceeded the various official statements made to the Church. He speedily published the conditions upon which offerings were to be received, and made it clearly understood that nothing was to be counted in the results of the movement which was not undertaken under the inspiration of the Twentieth Century Thank Offering. What was begun or performed before this enterprise was launched was excluded from the table. Also, he made known that none of the ordinary "fixed charges" of the Church were to be included, such as the support of pastors, the keeping of church property in repair, the erection of new churches, the support of annual missionary, educational, Sunday School Union and Church Extension, and other collections of a similar character. During the four years from 1899 to 1902, inclusive, he traveled in every State and Territory except Texas, attending conferences and holding meetings in the interest of the offering. The presiding elders, in their quarterly visitations to the churches, cooperated with the pastors, and assisted in the holding of district conventions, many of which they organized. The presidents of colleges and seminaries were also concerned to see that under such a universal system of appeal the interests over which they presided were properly exploited. Various superintendents of philanthropic movements were similarly interested.

Much is said, and justly, of the amazing organization of commercial enterprises, and much about astonishing political activity. In many parts of the country, these were fully equaled in the canvassing for the twentieth-century thank offering. Had the whole Church been equally well cultivated, it is reasonable to believe that thirty instead of twenty millions would have been the result; but the vastness of territory, the absence of many members from home at the time the appeals were made and collections taken, and many other impediments prevented this. Only such an organization as is herein described, and a secretary preëminently fitted for the position, made possible such a result. Neither could he nor the organization have accomplished it had not the bishops and the editors of the Church press throughout the whole of the vast field enthusiastically and with much tact and persever-

ance promoted the *esprit du corps* of the denomination:—and these could not have succeeded had not leaders among the laity, both men and women, been intensely interested, and a multitude of the people accepted the appeal in the spirit in which it was made.

To colleges and universities, about \$7,000,000 was given; to theological seminaries, \$85,730; to seminaries and academies, \$1,132,100. The largest sum given to any single university was \$1,203,800, to Syracuse University. Ohio Wesleyan University received \$1,092,806; the American University at Washington, D. C., \$525,000; Cornell College, Iowa, \$405,000; Allegheny College, Pennsylvania, \$310,000; Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., \$287,750; De Pauw University, Indiana, \$267,000; Hamline University, Minnesota, \$250,000; Boston University, \$260,000; the Woman's College of Baltimore, \$244,000; Morningside College, Iowa, \$136,500; Baker University, Kansas, \$110,000. To ten other colleges and universities were given, each, sums of \$50,000 or more, but less than \$100,000; and to eight, sums of \$25,000 and upward, but not \$50,000; to others smaller sums.

Thirty-four seminaries and academies, including \$200,000 to schools in India, were recipients of gifts under this cause. New Hampshire Conference Seminary received \$200,000; Grand Prairie Seminary, Illinois, \$114,200; West Virginia Conference Seminary, \$100,000; Centenary Collegiate Institute, New Jersey, \$75,000; Wyoming Seminary, Pennsylvania, received \$62,000; Beaver College and Musical Institute, Pennsylvania, classed among the seminaries, \$58,000; Pennington Seminary, New Jersey, \$45,000. Others received smaller sums.

For various philanthropies and charities, \$2,519,761 was contributed, and for a permanent fund for the support of worn-out ministers, \$604,000. To this must be added \$379,000 given to establish churches in destitute communities outside the ordinary work of church extension.

The rule of the Methodist Episcopal Church with regard to building new churches is this: An "estimate of the amount necessary to build shall be made; and three-fourths of the money, according to such estimate, shall be secured or subscribed before any such building shall be commenced." There will always be many churches which are indebted to the amount of one-quarter the cost, which is often more than was estimated and may be increased by delayed payments of interest. Various circumstances also lead to the ignoring of the rule. Fires have destroyed edifices insufficiently insured, and it has been necessary to rebuild at once, or a better church was demanded than could be erected

by the insurance; hence, in an expanding body, dealing extensively with the South and the far West, at all times there will be many church debts. These are reported annually to every conference.

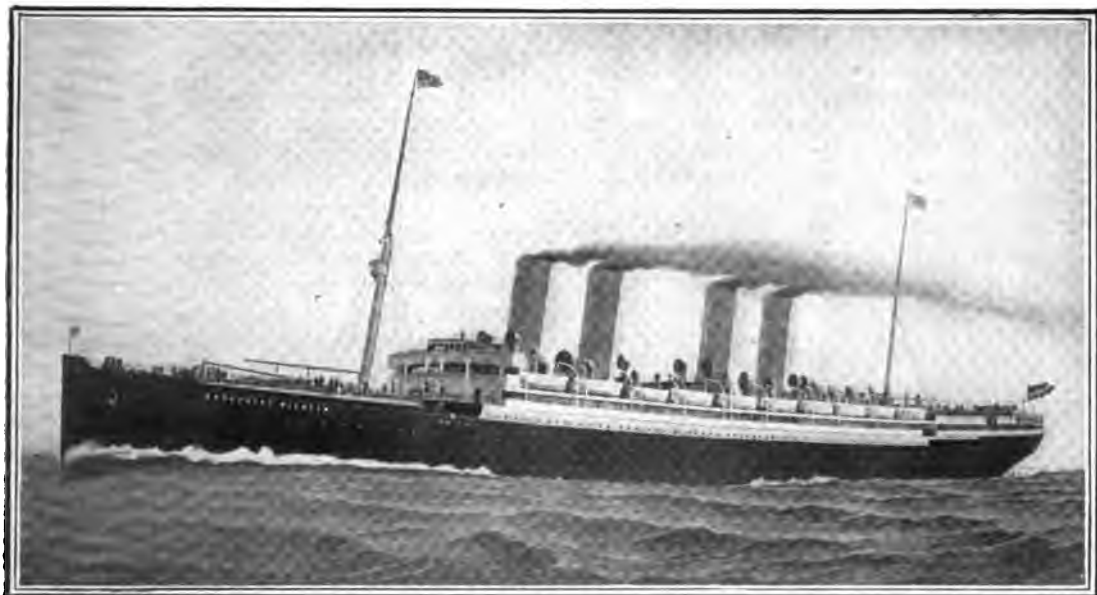
Only such debts as have been paid under the impulse of this movement have been included in the accounts. The proposition appealed strongly to many localities that would perhaps have postponed the payment of their debts for a long term of years, and \$9,003,596 of the twenty-million-dollar thank offering thus accumulated was devoted to the work of providing things honest in the sight of all men.

The exact amount received from all sources cannot be ascertained until after the assembling of the spring conferences; but up to January 15 of the present year, \$20,897,270 was duly accounted for and certified to by the secretary.

In addition to this, the regular fixed charges and benevolent collections of the Church, amounting to more than twenty million dollars per annum, showed an advance rather than a decrease. This means that in the last four years this one denomination of evangelical Christians has, without aid from the State, under the influence only of personal interest and persuasive arguments, expended above one hundred million dollars for its faith.

The primary work of Methodism was to revive and spread spiritual religion. For some decades, its energies were devoted chiefly to this end. Awakened religious interest, however, created a strong desire for education among the common people, hence the extraordinary progress made by the Church in this department of civilization. Homes for the aged, hospitals, orphan asylums, naturally came later. Temperance,—meaning by this total abstinence from intoxicating liquors,—has been strenuously insisted upon, as well as abstinence from all amusements tending to make the youth of each generation indifferent to the appeals made to them by parents, pastors, and teachers for a higher life than that which seeks chiefly sensuous enjoyment or material prosperity, or forgets in "the life which now is" "that which is to come." Whether the financial achievements of the denomination will permanently distract its attention from its primary work is a question of vital importance, not only to Methodism, but to American Christianity.

Since all these gifts have been voluntary, and the people are entitled to all the privileges of the denomination, social, intellectual, moral, and religious, whether they give much or little, it may reasonably be assumed that the original impulse which gave rise to Methodism has by no means expended its force.



THE "KRONPRINZ WILHELM," OF THE NORTH GERMAN LLOYD LINE.
(Built at Stettin in 1901; length, 663 feet 4 inches; breadth, 66 feet; depth, 43 feet.)

GERMANY ON THE SEA.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

WHEN, last year, Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan was gathering into his gigantic ocean trust a group of British transatlantic steamship companies, and their veteran officials were glad and proud to become lieutenants of the great American financier, it is said that Mr. Morgan offered to Herr Ballin, director-general of the largest German line, a salary of a million dollars if he would bring the German ships into the combination, and that the stalwart Teuton promptly refused!

This, at least, was the story exultantly told at the time by the German newspapers. It may be true or untrue, but it is entirely consistent with the splendid tenacity and devoted patriotism which, in the short space of two decades, have brought the German Empire up from maritime insignificance to its present position as the second sea power of the Old World. The German steamship companies have not gone into Mr. Morgan's trust. They proved strong enough to say "No" to even his masterful proposition, and to make an independent bargain with him by which they preserve absolutely intact their Teuton nationality and separate existence and secure all the benefits of the combination without incurring its full responsibilities. Moreover, their example, in building ships of huge size and high speed, has aroused the British Govern-

ment to increase the Cunard subsidy to a million dollars a year, for the express purpose of constructing two vessels that can hold their own with the great German liners.

A power mighty enough to do this certainly deserves the respectful attention of the American people. How is it that Germany, in the face of the fierce rivalry of Britain, has managed to set her merchant flag afloat on every sea? This triumph did not immediately follow the consolidation of the German states into the empire. In 1873, Germany, according to the Bureau Veritas, had 1,098,846 tons of merchant shipping; in 1881, she had gained only to 1,243,285 tons. The German Government during this time had permitted what is known as a "free ship" policy,—that is, it had allowed German merchants to build or purchase vessels in foreign countries and place them beneath the German flag. Under this policy, German shipowners procured some steamers in Great Britain and sailing vessels in America.

But by 1880 it had become manifest to the German statesmen and their people that "free ships" only are, as all the rest of the world has found them, absolutely impotent to create a great, active, prosperous merchant marine. Germany had hitherto practised this policy because she could not do otherwise. She had no

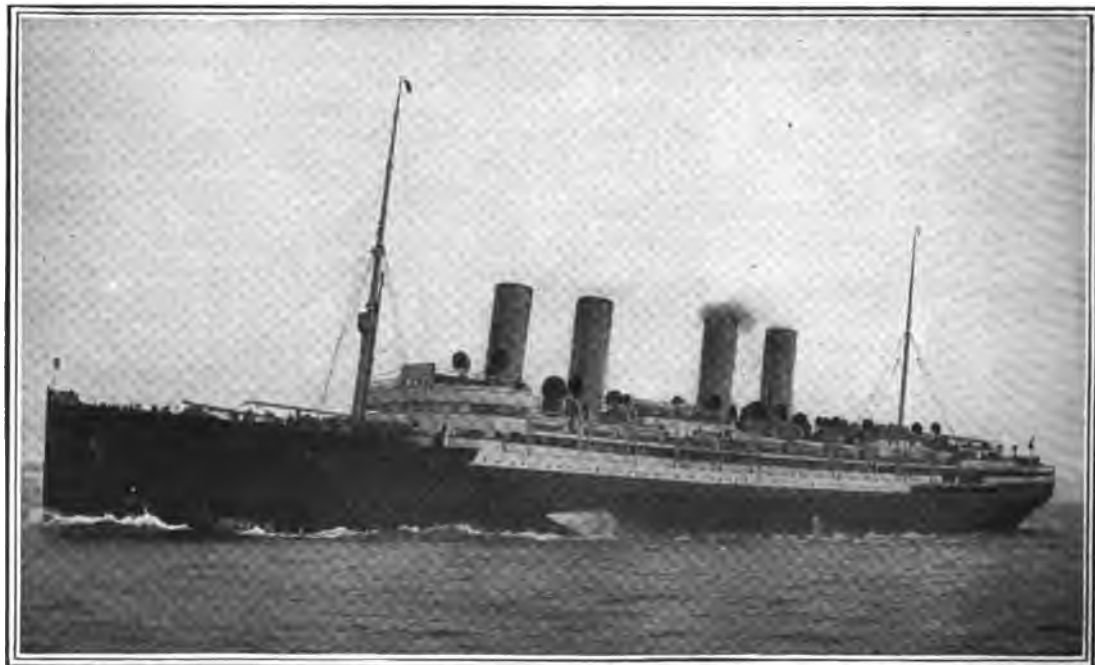
large modern shipyards; no adequate forces of skilled workmen; no means of fabricating the essential iron and steel. As an observer has said, "There were then no machine works of higher character than blacksmith shops in any of the North Sea ports of Bremen, Hamburg, Lübeck, or Stettin." Even the earlier German ironclads were constructed in British shipyards, and the dependence of the empire upon her great mercantile rival was complete and ignominious. The North German Lloyd and Hamburg-American steamship companies, which in 1880 were mere pygmies as compared with their present magnitude, went to the yards of their British competitors for their steamers, not because they desired to, but because they were forced to,—they could not secure ocean-going iron vessels at home.

Germany's first steps toward maritime independence were exactly like those taken a few years later by the United States. She resolved to modernize her navy, and to make her new ships thoroughly German in construction. The Vulcan yard at Stettin was intrusted with the beginnings of this task, and, under liberal and persistent government encouragement, it has done its work so well that it now "builds steel cruisers and battleships not only for the Fatherland, but for Japan, China, and the republics of South America."

THE NEW DEPARTURE.

By the year 1881, the indomitable patriotism of Bismarck, having compacted the political organization of the empire and established its domestic trade and industry, began to turn toward the sea. In a significant memorial to the German Parliament, Bismarck's master-mind analyzed the maritime policies of Germany's near neighbors, Great Britain and France, which were expending millions of dollars upon direct subventions to their great lines of steamships. Bismarck pointed out that Germany was ceasing to be a merely agricultural and was becoming a manufacturing and trading nation, and that new markets for her surplus goods were indispensable to her prosperity. She could not gain those markets, he insisted, unless there were German ships to convey German commerce, and there could be no German ships for distant traffic unless the government offered the same protection and encouragement which Britain and France gave to the great steam lines that were the real backbone of their merchant marine.

To this appeal of the great man, who was both brain and soul of the empire in those years, the Reichstag responded with an important measure of maritime legislation, granting a subsidy of 4,400,000 marks (\$1,047,500) for a German steamship service to China and Australia. The



THE "DEUTSCHLAND," OF THE HAMBURG-AMERICAN LINE.
(Built at Stettin in 1900; she is 686 feet long, 67 feet broad, and 44 feet deep.)

contract for this service was secured for a fifteen-year period by the North German Lloyd Company, of Bremen, which already had a well-established steam line to the United States. The North German Lloyd had come into existence in 1857, following the Hamburg-American Company, which had begun its work ten years earlier with sailing vessels, carrying freight and passengers from Hamburg to New York. These two German lines were developed to large proportions by the German immigrant traffic to the United States, which became enormous after 1850. Prudent management always characterized these enterprises, and in 1881, when Bismarck began to make his country great upon the ocean, they formed the best part of the German merchant marine.

The first of the East India subsidized steamships sailed from Bremerhaven on June 30, 1886, amid truly national rejoicing. A wave of enthusiasm for the sea, its trade, and its power now began to roll over the empire from the Baltic to the upper Rhine. This newly aroused maritime patriotism of the German people made itself felt

German shipyards. It was a close approach to the navigation policy of the United States, which for more than a century has limited the privilege of American registry to American-built vessels.



HERR ALBERT BALLIN.

(Director-General of the Hamburg-American Steamship Company.)



HERMANN HENRICH MEIER .

(Founder of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company, 1857. He died in November, 1898, at the age of ninety.)

in the terms of the subsidy arrangement. Instead of purchasing its steamers in England or Scotland, the North German Lloyd was now compelled to perform its new service with ships built in Germany by German workmen, and, as far as possible, of German materials. This was made an express condition of the subsidy, and it gave a great impetus to the development of

There were long-established British and French lines that would have been glad enough to carry German mails and German freight and passengers to Hongkong and Hiogo, to Sydney and Alexandria, that would have cost the German government and people no additional subsidy. But government and people were moved by a profoundly patriotic impulse. They were determined to have their own ships to convey their own goods, and they were not merely willing but eager to make some sacrifice in order to achieve their purpose.

At first the patronage of the new imperial steamship service was insufficient to meet the expenses. Just as these fine steam lines to the far East would never have been started without the stimulus of a subsidy, so without the support of that subsidy they would soon have been abandoned. But slowly and surely there came the expansion of German traffic, which Bismarck's statesmanlike vision had foreseen. In 1888, the goods transported in the subsidized steamers amounted to 58,477 tons, of a value of 74,515,000 marks. In 1895, this commerce had risen to 166,575 tons, valued at 160,430,000 marks.* In 1887, Germany's exports to Asia

* Report of Prince Hohenlohe to the Reichstag.

and Oceanica were valued at 41,256,000 marks ; in 1896, they had advanced to 176,246,000 marks, —a fourfold increase, which far more than repaid the cost of this splendid reinforcement of German commerce and the German mercantile marine.

STILL ANOTHER STEP.

In May, 1890, the imperial government took another step in direct encouragement of German trade and shipping by arranging with the North German Lloyd Company for a monthly line of steamers to Zanzibar and South Africa for an annual subsidy of 900,000 marks (\$214,000). In October, 1898, the successful contract for the Asian and Australian service was renewed for another fifteen-year period, with increased speed, more numerous voyages, and a larger class of steamers. At the same time the imperial subsidy was raised to 5,590,000 marks (\$1,330,420), and the Hamburg-American Company was admitted to a portion of its benefits.

These imperial mail subsidies, though interesting and important, are only one of the agencies by which the German Government has aided the growth of its magnificent merchant fleet. Since 1879 all materials for shipbuilding have been imported free of duty,—a privilege which, as to ships for foreign trade, has been allowed since 1890 in the United States. The German Government railways have transported steel, iron, lumber, etc., to the shipyards at the mere cost of handling. This, of course, has had the practical effect of an indirect bounty upon German shipbuilding. In some German states such a

bounty seems to have been directly bestowed, for the United States consul at Hamburg declares, in a report to the State Department : *

In 1891, the government, upon the suggestion of the Chamber of Commerce, concluded to pay premiums to shipowners for promoting the interests of the merchant marine. Over 10,000,000 marks (\$2,380,000) have been paid as premiums for new-built ships, and about the same amount has been paid to shipowners and steamship companies to aid their efforts in increasing the efficiency of mail carriage by steamships.

Nor is this all. As Mr. Frank H. Mason, our able consul-general at Berlin, states in a report to Washington : *

Not only has the German merchant marine been thus liberally and consistently supported by subsidies of money from the public treasury, but it has been encouraged, applauded, and honored by the entire influence of the imperial government, which in a country like this, where royal favor is so potent and eagerly sought for, is an important element of success. The Emperor is not only an enthusiastic yachtsman and sailor, but he is under all circumstances an ardent and powerful advocate of expansion and improvement of the German fleet and merchant marine. No capitalists or business men are more honored in Germany than those who have contributed to these results. When, in November last, Consul Meier, founder of the North German Lloyd Company, died, in his ninetieth year, the honors bestowed upon his memory were of princely splendor and solemnity. When Captain Schmidt brought home the lame and battered *Bulgaria* from her long, perilous battle with wintry seas, the Emperor's thanks and medals met him at the gang plank, and he and his men became heroes in the recognition of their government and countrymen.

It is not strange that with such a noble spirit

* Special Consular Reports. Vol. XVIII. 1900.



THE HARBOR OF BREMERHAVEN, SHOWING ADMIRABLE DOCK AND

of devoted patriotism behind it* the German steam fleet has increased fourfold in sixteen years,—has grown more rapidly, in fact, than any other merchant fleet in Christendom. There is a hostile element, it is true, which has fought Germany's advance upon the sea, but it is a small faction and shrinking. As Consul-General Mason says, "There are not lacking conservatives—mainly Agrarians and socialist reactionaries—who have opposed this policy, as they oppose improvements in the canals and internal water routes of this country; but they do not control the policy of Germany, and in all probability never will."

NEW PORTS AND DOCKS.

German liberality to merchant shipping is manifest also in the expenditure, since 1888, of \$125,000,000 on harbor improvements. No less than \$75,000,000 of this went into the channel and docks of Hamburg alone, and the rest, instead of being wasted on creeks and goose-ponds in the remote interior, was used where every dollar of it counted directly for the enhancement of commerce,—at Bremen and other genuine ocean ports. Germany has built dry docks for both the navy and the merchant service. Besides the great, solid masonry structures at Wilhelmshaven and elsewhere, there were twenty-seven large floating steel docks in 1900. German foresight has also provided schools for the training of young seamen, and physicians to guard their health.

* In 1886, it was 566,617 tons; in 1902, 2,430,206. There are also 596,744 (net) tons of sailing vessels.



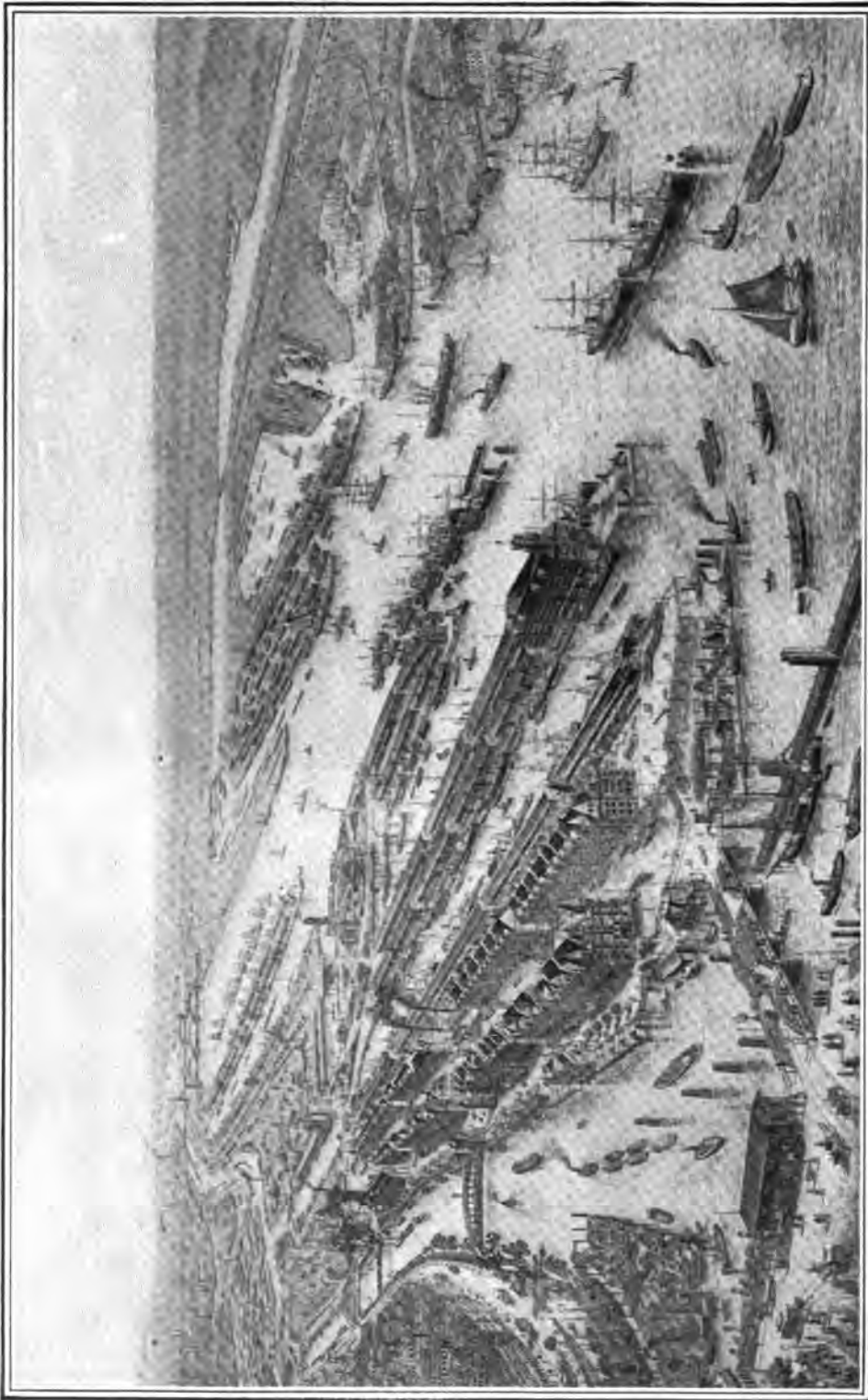
Photo by Pirie MacDonald, New York.

MR. GUSTAV H. SCHWAB, OF NEW YORK.

(American agent of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company.)



TERMINAL SYSTEM OF THE NORTH GERMAN LLOYD STEAMSHIP COMPANY.



HARBOR OF HAMBURG, SHOWING MAGNIFICENT MODERN SYSTEM OF DOCKS, WHARVES, TERMINAL WAREHOUSES, AND RAILWAY TRACKAGE,—THE CHIEF COMMERCIAL FOCUS OF CONTINENTAL EUROPE.

The German policy of maritime protectionism, while a consistent part of the general imperial policy, has, therefore, not been restricted to subsidies for mail service or bounties for shipbuilding. Indeed, it is doubtless true that the Hamburg-American, the older of the great German steamship companies, has grown until recently with very little aid from direct subventions. This is only a part of the truth, however. The Hamburg-American, like the other German shipping lines, has profited by the aroused maritime ambition of the German people and the favor of the imperial government. It was not until the enforced building of the subsidized North German Lloyd liners in German yards had developed native skill and industry that the Hamburg-American management saw its way clear to place in Germany a contract for its first thoroughly German ocean greyhound. After the *Auguste Victoria* came the *Fürst Bismarck*.

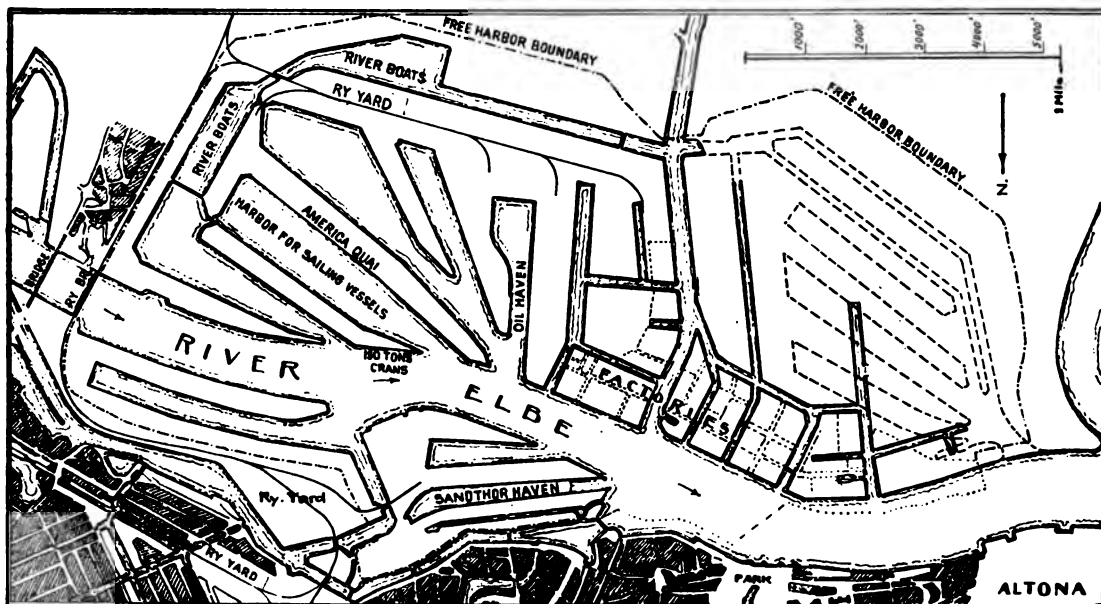
The other great German shipping corporation, the North German Lloyd, also gives marked preference now to home builders. In the first half of the period between 1885 and 1898 the North German Lloyd spent 31,000,000 marks for shipbuilding in Germany and 36,000,000 marks in Britain. But in the second half of this period 63,000,000 marks were expended in Germany and only 6,000,000 marks in Britain. The privilege of German registry for foreign ships for general commerce has not yet been withdrawn, but the powerful influence of the imperial government is quietly exerted against the



MR. EMIL L. BOAS, OF NEW YORK.

(American agent of the Hamburg-American Line.)

practice. The Emperor himself is well known to be a stout believer in German-built ships for the German flag, and although cargo vessels are still purchased abroad, Germany has become



PLAN OF NEWER PORTION OF HAMBURG HARBOR.

practically independent of the Clyde and the Tyne for first-class construction.

THE GERMAN GREYHOUNDS.

Of steamships of over ten thousand tons launched between 1892 and 1896, and of over twelve thousand tons launched between 1896 and 1898, five were British and ten were German. The three ocean monarchs that hold the record between England and New York sail under the imperial ensign. The *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* came out in September, 1897, lowering the best time from Southampton by two hours. The *Kaiser* was then the greatest as well as the fastest ship afloat,—648 feet long, or 28 feet longer than the *Lucania*, 66 feet wide, and 43 feet deep, with a gross tonnage of 14,000, or about a thousand more than that of the giant Cunarder. The *Kaiser* on her maiden voyage ran at an average speed of 21.29 knots an hour from land to land, covering a 3,050-mile course in 5 days, 22 hours, and 35 minutes. She also beat by two knots the best single day's run,—the 562 knots of the *Lucania*.

This superb North German Lloyd ship came from the Vulcan yard, at Stettin, which had been developed into a great plant by the construction of the China and Australian liners. Prince Hohenlohe's report to the Reichstag stated, "All

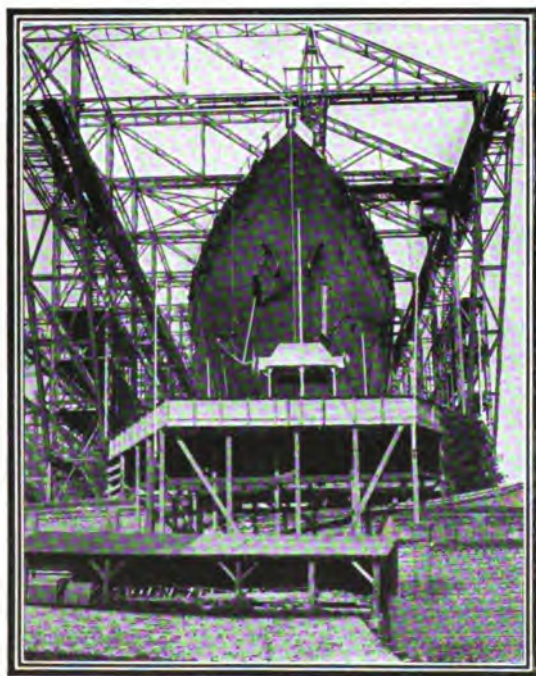
experts assert that without the influence of the government mail service (the North German Lloyd subsidies) such a steamer as the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* could not have been built."

But the *Kaiser Wilhelm* did not long remain the champion of the North Atlantic. The same Vulcan yard at Stettin launched, on January 10, 1900, a still greater and swifter steamship for the Hamburg-American New York service, the celebrated *Deutschland*. This leviathan is 686 feet long, or 38 feet longer than the *Kaiser Wilhelm*, with a tonnage of 16,200, and a horse-power of 35,000. In August, 1900, the *Deutschland* ran from New York to Plymouth, England, in 5 days, 11 hours, and 45 minutes, equivalent to 4 days, 23 hours, and 6 minutes from New York to Queenstown. In this passage, extraordinary for so new a ship, the *Deutschland* ran from land to land at an average speed of 23.32 knots an hour. The best record thus far made eastward by the *Kaiser Wilhelm* had been 22.79 knots an hour.

In September, 1901, a third German champion appeared—the *Kronprinz Wilhelm*, of the North German Lloyd service. It is significant that the very names of these huge vessels bespeak the intense German national pride in the country's merchant shipping. The *Kronprinz Wilhelm* is larger than the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*, but smaller than the *Deutschland*. She is 663 feet long, 66 feet wide, and 43 feet deep, with a tonnage of 14,800 and a horse-power of about 30,000. This new-comer has, for the time being, wrested the supremacy from the *Deutschland*. Like the imperial mail liners, and her two giant rivals in the Atlantic trade, the *Kronprinz Wilhelm* was launched from the Vulcan yard at Stettin. Now a fourth German champion appears, also from the famous Vulcan yard,—the *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, of the North German Lloyd Company, 706½ feet long, 72 feet wide, and 52½ feet deep, larger still than the *Deutschland* and *Kronprinz Wilhelm*, and intended to be even swifter. She will make her first voyage from Bremen to New York in the early spring. The great German passenger ships are not, however, all record breakers. Both the North German Lloyd and the Hamburg-American possess large new ships of great cargo capacity and moderate speed, of which the *Grosser Kurfurst*, 15½ knots and 13,000 tons, and the *Graf Waldersee*, 13½ knots and 13,000 tons, are good examples,—fine, useful steamers of a type more profitable, doubtless, in the long run than the coal-hungry ocean greyhounds.

WAGES LOW, SKILL HIGH.

Although the North German Lloyd and, to a much less degree, the Hamburg-American Com-



THE NEW "KAISER WILHELM II."
(Now being completed in the shipyards at Stettin.)



Photographed for the *Scientific American*.

THE "KAISER WILHELM II.," AFTER HER RECENT LAUNCHING AT STETTIN.

(This great recruit of the North German Lloyd Company is the largest vessel ever built, and will make her maiden voyage to New York in April. She is 706½ feet long, 72 feet wide, and 52½ feet deep.)

pany are liberally subsidized for their new East India service,—and this indirectly helps their North Atlantic traffic,—they receive no large direct subventions for their express service between Germany and New York, where they have been long established, and are so strong as to defy competition. The German mail pay for this service to the North German Lloyd in the fiscal year 1900 was \$120,982; to the Hamburg-American, \$52,948. Our own government in the same year gave for carrying eastward mails \$100,823 to the former and \$35,187 to the latter company. The German North Atlantic subvention is considerably less than the sum paid by the United States to the American and by Great Britain to the Cunard and White Star lines.

However, in one other point the German companies have an important practical advantage,—that is, in the cost of manning and maintaining their steamers. The *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*, for instance, is a very much larger and somewhat swifter ship than the American liner *St. Louis*. The German has more passenger and freight room, and, therefore, a greater actual earning capacity. But the 500 officers and men of the *Kaiser's* crew receive only \$7,715 a month in wages, while the 380 officers and men of the smaller *St. Louis* receive \$11,306. The American rate of pay, which is fixed by the rate in the absolutely protected coastwise trade, and by the

requirement that at least 50 per cent. of the crew of a mail ship shall be American citizens, is as near as may be twice the German average. Thus the chief officer of the *St. Louis* earns \$120 a month; the chief officer of the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*, \$66.64. Able seamen on the *St. Louis* earn \$25 a month; on the *Kaiser*, \$14.75. Firemen on the American liner earn \$40 a month, and trimmers \$30; firemen on the German liner earn from \$16.66 to \$21.42; trimmers, from \$13.09 to \$15.47.

Yet the great German steamer, even with these low wages, is well manned and skillfully handled. That is undoubtedly one secret of Germany's swift advance in mercantile sea power,—the possession of labor which is cheap, intelligent, and efficient. This advantage, however, is enjoyed by Germany's northern neighbors of Scandinavia in a still more marked degree, and they have made no such progress upon the ocean. Scandinavian sailors man the fleets of half the world, but not one first-class steamship line flies the flag of Norway or of Sweden, and a large part of the steam "tramps" and sailing craft that do wear Scandinavian colors are really British-owned. The main influences which have given Germany the second greatest merchant fleet in Europe are the patriotism of her people and the wise and persistent efforts of her government.

In shipyards and on shipboard German wages for skilled labor are not merely lower than American wages, but British wages as well. It costs \$9,891 a month to man the *White Star Oceanic*, as compared with the \$7,715 of the faster *Kaiser Wilhelm*. This is one reason, doubtless, why German liners have wrested from their British rivals the blue ribbon of the North Atlantic, and why German shipping has increased more rapidly than British shipping in other of the great oceans of the world.

SECOND ON THE HIGH SEAS.

Here is the relative strength of the great merchant navies (comprising steamers of above 100 and sailing vessels of above 50 tons) as given for 1901-1902 by the Bureau Veritas :

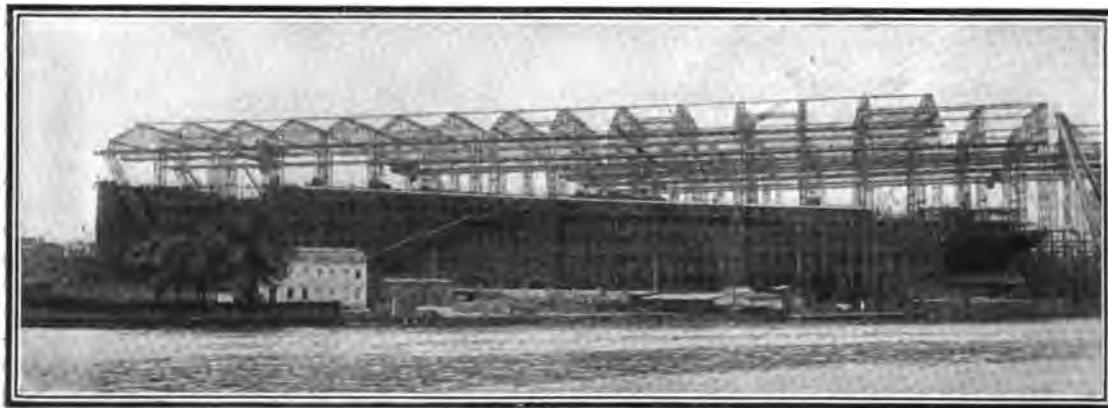
SHIPS.		
Flag.	No.	Tons.
British.....	12,755	14,809,489
German.....	2,081	2,986,950
American.....	4,478	2,767,275
French.....	1,986	1,481,036
Norwegian.....	2,780	1,663,332
Spanish.....	1,080	836,900
Italian.....	1,882	1,182,691
Russian.....	3,283	1,052,730
Japanese.....	1,868	689,683

These figures include for the United States

much of our splendid coastwise shipping.* Only 1,048 American vessels, of 906,264 tons, were engaged in deep-sea carrying in the calendar year 1900, and only 146 of those vessels, of 327,284 tons, were steamers. The North German Lloyd alone in that year had 103 steamers, of 424,475 tons,—so that this one single German corporation performed a larger business and earned more money in 1900 than the entire deep-sea steam fleet of the great republic !

Germany's natural position as a seafaring and trading country is far inferior to that of the United States. She has a short and rather dangerous coast line, few good harbors save those which man's patient industry has deepened or wrought, and few mines of iron or coal comparable with our own enormous resources. Yet because her government and people have been determined to create a merchant marine, and have been willing to sacrifice much to achieve this object, they have succeeded. The specific methods by which this noble fleet has been launched are, after all, of less moment than the great fact of what has been actually accomplished. There ought to be instruction in this, and inspiration too, for the government and the people of America.

* Report of the United States Commissioner of Navigation for 1901.



THE "KAISER WILHELM II." IN THE YARDS OF THE VULCAN SHIPBUILDING COMPANY, AT STETTIN, GERMANY.



A FOREST DINING ROOM LOGGERS AT THEIR NOON MEAL.

THE LUMBER INDUSTRY OF THE PACIFIC COAST.

BY ALVIN HOVEY-KING.

THE lumbering industry is so intimately connected with all of the various industrial pursuits of modern life that it holds a most important position in the economic policy of the country. For many years the timber supply of the world has been drawn on at a rate which bids fair to exhaust it within a hundred years. This condition has caused serious apprehension in the minds of those men whose attention is given to the problems of the future. The Agricultural Department has recently established a Bureau of Forestry, with a view to the creation of forest reserves in various portions of the country, and to the problem of restocking the exhausted forest lands. The man who ceases to live on the interest of his capital and encroaches upon it, gradually reducing it year by year without adding to it, is considered by sound-minded people as a fool and a spendthrift. Such is the policy with which we have treated our forests. Year after year we have cut far more timber than could be replaced, and at the present ruinous rate the United States will be destitute of forests at the close of the present century.

France, Germany, Belgium, and England are all obliged to import more than half of the wood used in their confines. Austria-Hungary, Russia, and the United States and Canada are the only countries which to-day export any appreciable amount of lumber.

In the United States the heart of the lumber belt has moved westward. At the beginning of the last century almost the entire wood supply came from the then untouched forests of the Penobscot River region of Maine. As the woodsmen cut deep into the heart of the wood the industry was forced to find other fields from which to draw its supply, and the virgin forests of the South and of the States bordering on the Great Lakes were cut into. Although these regions are by no means depleted to-day, the Pacific Coast is rapidly becoming the heart of the lumber trade. And what wonder, for in the three States of California, Oregon, and Washington there is at least one-third of the entire supply of standing timber in the United States. In figures, it amounts to more than 600,000,000,000 feet of uncut wood.

The forest reserves and national parks set apart by the United States Government within the limits of these three States aggregate an area of 32,428 square miles, or more than 22 per cent. of the total wooded area of the States. In the State of Oregon alone, where a careful examination has been made, the national census officials have estimated the standing timber on these reservations at 55,000,000,000 feet, or one-fourth of the State's total supply.

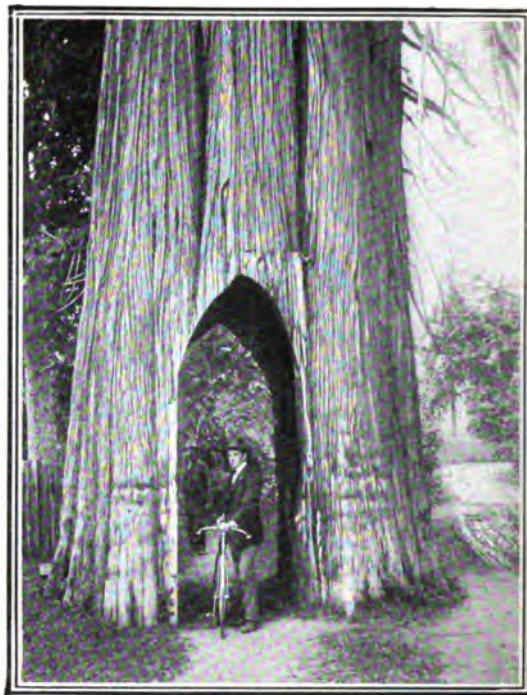
Thus it is in this territory that there is stocked the future lumber supply of the country. The more characteristic species of trees in this section are the redwood, which abounds in upper California, the yellow and sugar pines of the Sierra slope, and the fir trees of Oregon and Washington. In addition to these species, there are smaller tracts of larch, oak, hemlock, and other trees.

The Pacific Coast has had many factors to aid it in the establishment of an immense lumber business. One of the most important of these is the climate. In the lumbering regions of California, Oregon, and Washington there is hardly more than a week's snow falling each winter. This leaves the loggers free to work the whole year round, and what snow does fall acts as a hamper on the business. The sheltered situation of the lumber tracts of the Northwest, cut up by the Sierra slope, keeps the temperature high throughout the winter.

The development of the lumber industry in the Northwest reminds one of the transition of the dry goods trade in the cities from the innumerable small stores to that great and thoroughly American idea, the modern department store. The small logger was for many years the most important factor in this section of the country. He was the pioneer. It took but little capital to secure small tracts of timbered land adjacent to the river or the coast, and to clear them of their standing timber. In many cases the lands were acquired under the Homestead laws of the United States, which allot 160 acres to each settler. Working at a small outlay, the small logger was enabled to put his timber into market at a cost which enabled him to realize a large profit on his investment. In the financial panic of 1893, a great number of these small operators were wiped out, leaving the field clear for the larger concerns, which now control it.

TIMBER-CUTTING ON A LARGE SCALE.

To-day operations are carried on upon an entirely different basis from that followed by the pioneers. The business is conducted on a Titanic scale, and the companies which are engaged in the lumber business are capitalized into the mil-



SNOHOMISH BICYCLE PATH THROUGH CEDAR AT EVERETT, WASHINGTON.

lions, and think nothing of building miles of private railways in order to transport their cut timber to the nearest route to market.

The passing of the small operators who survived the panic of 1893 was due not to the competition on the part of the larger firms, but to the fact that all the small tracts of forest contiguous to river and coast have been worked out, and that the timber now lies inland, in large tracts, requiring heavy investment in order to accomplish anything. The majority of the small loggers have gone in with the big companies, either as managers or as stockholders.

As an example of the stupendous scale of organization on which the business is now conducted I may cite the instance of one firm, which controls 1,000,000 acres of heavily timbered ground. Yet another concern has an operative capacity of 500,000 feet of logs each working day in the year. The equipment necessary to carry on this business consists of 80 miles of railroad, 10 locomotives, 20 logging or "donkey" engines, a large number of railway trucks, and employs about 400 men and 80 horses.

The immensity of the trade is further shown by the following comparisons: If a building were erected which would cover the Pacific Forest Reserve, which covers an area of over 212 square miles, its roof could be shingled with the

annual output of the shingle mills of the State of Washington alone. Again, if the year's lumber product of that State were loaded on railway cars and placed end to end, it would form a train of over 1,500 miles in length, or more than the distance from Seattle to Denver.

The markets for which this output is manufactured are scattered all over the world. Australia, Hawaii, China, Japan, England, Germany, and, of course, our own country share in the trade. The shipbuilding plants of America turn to the



8 SHAKE CABIN ON A CLEARING.

Northwest for the sturdy fir masts and spars. The Navy Department's specifications for war vessels recommend the use of fir for all wood purposes, except the decorative finish of cabin interiors, owing to the fir's great strength and durability. The wooden standards from which float the flags at Windsor Castle, and at the palace of the Emperor of Japan, are both made from Douglass fir, shipped from the Pacific Coast. Emperor Wilhelm's speedy yacht, the *Meteor*, at whose christening Miss Roosevelt presided with her tactful grace, with Prince Henry of Prussia as a witness, is fitted with Puget Sound fir masts and spars. There were shipped to England spars and masts of this same wood, to be used in the construction of King Edward's speedy racing yacht, built on the banks of the Thames. One of the illustrations shows a bark laden with lumber, bound for Honolulu.

MODERN METHODS OF HANDLING LOGS.

In the early days logging was done almost exclusively by long teams of oxen and horses. Skid roads were built, over which the logs were dragged by teams of four to a dozen oxen. The

logs were fastened together by means of large steel hooks,—“dogs,” the lumbermen called them,—driven into either side of the log near its end. From these dogs heavy steel chains were stretched from log to log until a continuous chain of logs was formed. The art of driving the oxen was one held in high repute, and a first-class teamster could command any reasonable wage. These methods were in vogue in the days when the timber lay near to the water. Now that the forests have been cleared away within a radius of from 20 to 30 miles of the water, it has been found necessary to use narrow or standard gauge railways to drag the logs to the water, when they are made up into big booms, and floated downstream to the mills. It is necessary even now, in some places, to use animals to drag the logs from the forests to the railways. Oxen have been entirely supplanted by the more intelligent Clyde and Percheron horses. Even these will eventually be done away with by the use of heavy stationary or “donkey” engines, now in use by many of the camps. These handle the logs by means of steel wire cables wound on the drums of the engines, which have an operative radius of from 500 to 3,000 feet. All land within such



AN OUTWARD BOUND VESSEL WITH LUMBER CARGO.

a radius is called a yard. When a yard has been worked out, the heavy chains which anchor the engine in place are loosened, and the end of the cable is fastened to a distant stump or tree and the steam turned on. The winding of the cable on the drum hauls the heavy engine over the ground like some clumsy but powerful monster. This process is repeated again and again.

A logging crew consists of a foreman, an engineer, two fellers, two sawyers, a skid-maker, ten laborers, two under-cutters, two barkers, two swampers, two buckers, three hook-tenders, two cable and signal men, two teamsters, one skid-greaser, one cook and cook's helper, or a total of thirty-five men. A crew of this size will cut 45,000 board-measure feet of logs a day during the entire year.

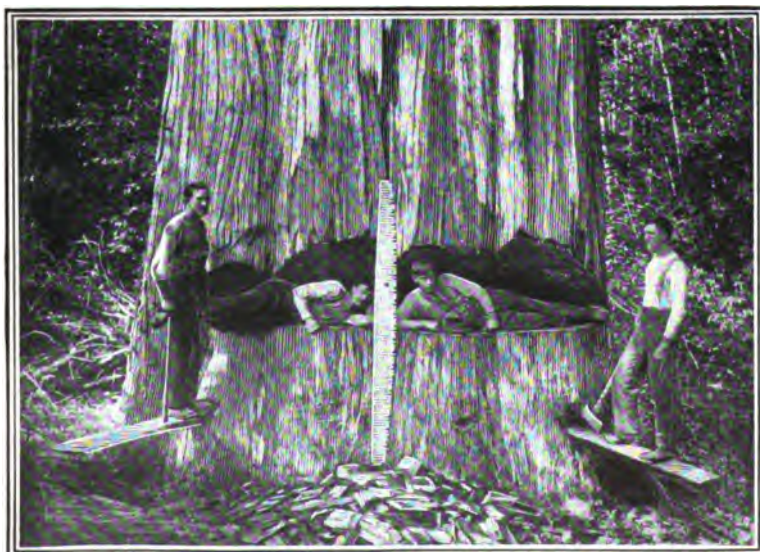
The discipline necessary for the carrying on of this work is as rigid as that of a military system. To each man is allotted his duties, and he must be at work constantly and be ever alert. The feller is the first to reach the tree. He chooses the place where the tree is to fall, and cuts notches on each side of the tree to hold the ends of the springboards on which the fellers stand at their work. These may be seen in one of the illustrations. A kerf is then chopped in the side at a true right angle with the line of direction which the tree is intended to take when it falls. The width of this kerf is governed by the diameter of the tree, in order to act as a true fulcrum in guiding the fall. With a long, narrow blade the fellers set to work on the side of the tree opposite to the kerf. When it has been sawed not quite half through, the chopping is



HAULING TIMBER WITH HORSES ON A SKID ROAD.

commenced on the other side. When the tree has been sawed nearly to the middle on both sides steel wedges are driven in the kerf, and by driving these in with their axes the fellers control the tree with such accuracy that they are able to drop it within a foot or two of the exact location they wish. This is frequently necessary in order to prevent the shattering of a trunk, or to land it in an accessible place to be attached to the donkey engine.

The sawyers, each working single, and armed with a long stiff-bladed saw, filed to a razor-like sharpness, come after the fellers. The boss instructs them as to the lengths into which the trees are to be cut, and the sawyers set to work. So true do the saws cut the wood that they go through the thick trunk as evenly as though held in place by guides, though this is never the case. When the sawyers have completed their work, the swampers follow them and clear away the underbrush and obstructions from around the fallen tree, so that the logs may be dragged out. The barkers come next; so thick and strong is the bark of the Douglass fir that it is next to impossible to drag the log when lying on such a rough surface. The bark varies from 6 to 8 inches in thick-



A BIG CEDAR TREE, SHOWING METHOD OF FELLING.



SAWING THE BUTT OF A BIG TREE.

ness. From that side of the log which the law of gravitation will make the underside the barkers clear away the bark, so that it may run smoothly on the ground. The last man to handle the log is the hook-tender, who fastens his tackle to it. Then it starts on its journey to the nearest landing on the railway.

are made into immense booms and floated down the rivers to the coast. There they are hauled from the water and fed into the vast lumber-consuming machinery of the mills, to be turned out in the form of a finished product.

Almost all the great cities on the North Pacific Coast owe their prosperity, if not their foundation, to the lumber industry. In the redwood

LUMBER-MAKING AS AN INDUSTRY OF THE NORTHWEST.

The manufacturing of lumber and shingles employs far more men than the actual logging. Sawmills were first put into operation in the Northwest more than fifty years ago, and to-day the industry is on a basis where the most improved methods of manufacture are in use. Without exception, the saw and shingle mills are built either on the side of the water or on foundations of piles built in deep water. This is a necessity, as the logs, after leaving the railways,



HAULING TIMBER WITH A "DONKEY" ENGINE.



A LOG TRAIN.

trade San Francisco and Eureka, Cal., are the principal ports. At the former city the greatest amount of business is done, and the great mill companies have agencies there, through which they handle their cargo and shipping trade. In Oregon, Portland is the lumber metropolis, and produces an annual output of about 300,000,000 feet of lumber. In Washington, Tacoma, Seattle, Fort Balkely, Ballard, Whatcom, and Everett are the leading cities. The latter city is a wonderful example of the growth of a municipality whose entire prosperity depends on the lumber trade. In a little more than ten years the city has grown from nothing to a large population and to the distinction of being the largest producer of lumber and shingles on Puget Sound. This is due to the fact that it is in the very heart of the richest timber belt of the country, and that it is the most natural outlet for the production of the lumber district of Washington. It is on the Snohomish River, a stream whose surface is continually covered with immense booms of logs floated down from points high on the stream.

That the lumber industry of the Pacific States, great as it is, has only made a beginning, is made clear by the census reports, which show that the cut of those States in 1900 was only 9.5 per cent. of the country's total lumber product—less than the output of the single State of Wisconsin.

SOCIAL LIFE OF THE LOGGING CAMPS.

The life of the men engaged in the actual felling of the trees is a hard and exacting one, yet



A LUMBER MILL, WITH CEDAR CUT INTO BOLTS AS BIG AS A MAN.

it has its compensations, and there is a certain rough, crude poetry and romance about the lives of these men. The constant companionship with the great trees, and the keen appreciation of the strength and power of nature at its best, combine to create a character as broad and as hearty as the great fir trees, whose bases measure 50 and 60 feet in circumference.

Over three-fourths of the loggers are of Scandinavian birth or extraction, and the balance is made up from French-Canadians and native Americans. In the higher branches of the work, which require more than ordinary executive ability and intelligence, to say nothing of the skill of gauging the nature of men, almost all the men are native-born Americans. Some of these men,—the “bosses” of the lumber camps,—have been born in the Northwest, and have followed lumbering from the time when, as boys of fifteen and sixteen, they were employed in greasing skids or in the other light work of the camp. Others have been drawn from the fast-failing lumber regions of Maine, and from the camps of the northern Mississippi Valley.

The working life of a lumberman lasts from twenty to thirty-five years. In the latter case

the man has started as a boy of fifteen at skid-greasing. The common logger, as a rule, starts in to work at about twenty. Unless disabled by accident, for disease is so rare as to be almost wholly unknown, the men work at their trade until they are fifty or fifty-five years old. Even then they are still hale, active men, and fit for steady employment in less strenuous occupations.

Labor unions have existed for some years, yet strikes are almost unknown. Employers generally have their camps in charge of “bosses” who have themselves worked as laborers at some time in their lives. These bosses know the nature of the men under them, and regulate conditions with a fairness both to employer and employed. The scale of wage varies from two to four dollars a day, the average rate being two dollars and a quarter. This, of course, is in addition to food and lodging. Thus the logger of the Northwestern camps earns a much higher rate of wage, everything considered, than does any laboring man in any other portion of the country. He is, indeed, far better off financially and physically than nine-tenths of the clerks who spend their lives in the confining atmospheres of stores and offices.



A DANCE ON A BIG CEDAR STUMP.



A GENERAL VIEW OF THE SHAWINIGAN FALLS ELECTRIC PLANT.
(Showing concrete bulkhead or dam, and power-house.)

LONG-DISTANCE POWER-TRANSMISSION IN CANADA.

BY THOMAS COMMERFORD MARTIN.

A FEW years ago, when the British colonial premiers were visiting Canada to take the first steps for establishing the Pacific cable, a dinner was given them at Toronto by the Chamber of Commerce. One of the speakers from the Antipodes said that the great thing which had impressed him in the Dominion was its marvelous superabundance of water; and he expressed the whimsical but pathetic wish that a pipe line rather than a cable could be laid to his own parched continent of Australia from the shores of British Columbia. It is not alone the water in the rivers and lakes that catches the visitor's attention, if he happen to be an engineer, but the amount of motive power that their energy could be made to develop.

The trouble with the Canadian water powers has been their location in regions destitute of population and industries. Even at Niagara, nearly the whole development up to the present

time has taken place on the American bank; and the work now going on around Queen Victoria Park is also directed by American skill and capital. But, thanks to modern electrical methods of power-transmission, a new departure is to be made; and steps are now being taken actively to carry current from the Dufferin Islands straight across country to Toronto, seventy miles away.

Meantime, the longest power circuit on the Atlantic seaboard has been put in operation in Canada, from Shawinigan Falls to Montreal, 84 miles, and very shortly Quebec will be reached, about 90 miles. These distances may seem great, but readers of the REVIEW will remember that about a year ago it described the work in California, with circuits of 216 miles from the Sierras to the Golden Gate. Montreal has for some years been busy developing its own adjacent Chambly and Lachine water powers, but welcomes heartily this supply from the St. Maurice



THE BULKHEAD.

and Shawinigan rivers to the north, with a drainage area of 18,000 square miles and a capacity of delivering at least 200,000 horse-power. With the St. Lawrence thus supplemented from sources far away, Montreal should enjoy a great industrial development; while at Shawinigan Falls itself, a large local utilization of the power has already begun. This lonely region in the Laurentian Hills has gained a population of 5,000 in three years.

The current to Montreal is sent over the long circuits at a pressure of 50,000 volts, on nearly five thousand poles from the adjacent forests, and the wire cables are of aluminum instead of



A SECTION OF THE CANAL.

copper. The circuits now up will carry 8,000 horse-power, and at least 30,000 horse-power is thus to be flashed from Shawinigan to the receiving station at Maisonneuve. The aluminum it-

self is being extracted by this power up in those remote woods, and other products are already being made or are in contemplation. The big electric generators, transformers, etc., are of American origin; and the chief engineers, Messrs. Wallace C. Johnson and Ralph D. Mer-shon, are men who have won their reputation in the United States. As noted above, Quebec is at about the same striking distance from Shawinigan as Montreal, and hopes also soon to see the resources of its own beautiful Montmorency Falls reinforced by this remarkable development, so far and yet so near.

One other large electric power-transmission affecting the industrial future of Canada remains to be noticed,—viz., that of the St. Lawrence



ONE OF THE PENSTOCKS LEADING FROM BULKHEAD, NINE FEET IN DIAMETER.

Power Company, at Massena, on the Grasse River, a tributary of the great outlet of the Lakes to the sea. This is literally one of the last great steps in the long continental stair or spillway which broadens out as it loses height: so that at Massena a fall of barely 40 feet is available, or only one-quarter that afforded at Niagara, to the westward. At this point upon the St. Lawrence millions of dollars have already been spent on development and thousands of electrical horse-power are already under contract. This courageous American enterprise has still to justify itself financially, but is most promising in days of long transmissions and dear coal. Ogdensburg, N. Y., is but 38 miles off, and Montreal, again, is only 98 miles to the north-east. The possibilities are therefore most encouraging. The power-house already in operation will be not less than 700 feet long when finished.

THE STEEL CORPORATION POINTS THE WAY.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

AN occurrence of tremendous and far-reaching importance is the success of the United States Steel Corporation's wage-earners' investment and profit-sharing plan. When this plan was announced, January 1, every thoughtful man in the country gave it close attention. Here was an experiment which any one could see drove straight at the roots of the interwoven problems which have been brought acutely to the front by the development of modern industrialism in America,—the problems of actual ownership of the great industrial corporations, of the relations of such corporations to the predominant opinion of society and therefore to the lawmaking power, of the relations of labor and capital, and the bearing of all these upon the rise of socialism. The deep significance of the experiment all could understand, though of course some minds had a truer appreciation of it than others. With all, the question of questions was, Will it succeed? To many lips came the expression: "It is a clever, an artistic, an ingeniously contrived plan; but, will it work? Will the wage-earners take hold of it in earnest? Is it anything more than a delightful dream?"

We have not been compelled to wait long for the answer. The directors of the Steel Corporation offered 25,000 shares of stock to their 168,000 employees. The books were to be kept open thirty days. No one dared believe that within this month, while the plan was so new, while all sorts of prejudices or fears might deter subscribers, and while the great mass of employees would still be studying and thinking about the offer which to them must have seemed somewhat novel and complicated, all or even one-half of the proffered stock would be taken up. Yet, when the books closed Saturday evening, January 31, it was found that the 25,000 shares offered had been subscribed for more than twice over. Twenty-seven thousand six hundred and thirty-three employees had subscribed for 51,125 shares. This was success,—success complete and surprising.

Almost exactly one-sixth of the vast army of employees of the corporation had declared that they wished to become owners of the securities of the company for which they work. Best of all, the very men who, it had been feared, would not take kindly to the project,—the men who stand bare-bodied in front of the furnace-fires, or like magicians handle the glowing rails or

bars of molten metal, or delve in the gloomy mines, or watch the myriads of machines, or keep the books in the offices,—have most eagerly responded to the company's offer. Those who thought that the real workingman, the man who works with his hands for daily or weekly wages, would not participate in this plan, must be agreeably disappointed by the returns. Look at the facts:

Fifty per cent. of all the subscribers (14,260 men), taking nearly 60 per cent. (29,013) of all the shares subscribed for, belong to Class E, which is composed of men who receive salaries of between \$800 and \$2,500 a year each.

Forty-four per cent. of all the subscribers (12,170 men), taking nearly 30 per cent. (15,038) of all the shares subscribed for, belong to Class F, which is composed of men who receive salaries of less than \$800 a year each.

Ninety-four per cent. of the subscribers earn from \$2,500 a year downward, and their subscriptions amount to nearly 90 per cent. of the total. Only six per cent. of the subscribers, taking only about 10 per cent. of the shares, belong to the classes of employees in which may be found managers, superintendents, and the higher-salaried officials of the company. These men wanted many more shares, but, under the limitation set, were unable to get them.

When the directors of the corporation met early in February to receive the reports of the success or failure of their project, they found themselves embarrassed by the opulence, not annoyed by the meagerness, of the results. Gratified beyond measure, they voted to allot a total of about forty-five thousand shares among the subscribers. The 12,170 men from the lower ranks of the army, in Class F, were allotted all the shares they subscribed for; the 14,260 men in the class just above them were allotted 90 per cent. of their subscriptions. The higher classes, D, B, C, and A, composed of large-salaried officials, had their subscriptions, aggregating about 7,000 shares, scaled to 80, to 70, to 60, and 50 per cent., respectively. Every man who subscribed got at least one share of stock.

Nearly one-sixth of all the employees of the Steel Corporation have thus become purchasers of the preferred stock of the company, to the extent of \$4,500,000 par value. Of this sum, \$4,000,000 is taken by employees whose earnings range from \$500 or \$600 a year upward to \$2,500.

If such a result as this can be attained at the first trial, within a single month,—if the restraint of prejudice and of lack of acquaintance with a new project can be overcome to so great an extent in so short a time,—thoughtful men are asking, What may not be done in the future? What are the ultimate possibilities of the plan in this single corporation? And as applied to all great industrial corporations? If \$4,500,000 of good dividend-paying securities may be disposed of to the actual workers for one corporation in one month, is it not possible to dispose of hundreds of millions of such safe and standard securities to the employees of hundreds of industrial corporations in the course of a year? And if this can be done,—if ownership of our great industrial combinations can be spread out among the men who work for them, if aggregations of capital may thus be democratized, or what Federal Judge Grosscup called the other day “peopleized,”—are we not finding herein a natural and easy solution of the industrial, political, and social problems which to many keen eyes appear to be rising like a cloud above the national horizon?

Nothing succeeds like success. Now that the employees' investment and profit-sharing plan of the United States Steel Corporation has so quickly demonstrated what may be done, men are everywhere saying that there may be, should be, and probably will be, an enormous extension of the principle throughout the country. It has long been a cause of wonderment to many observers that so few of what is called the working or the wage-earning class in this country put their savings directly into the stocks or bonds of transportation or manufacturing corporations. As a rule, the men who work for wages never think of buying a share of stock or a bond. They do not know how to go about it. The idea is wholly foreign to their philosophy. In their minds, stocks and bonds are associated with large accumulations of capital, with Wall Street, with speculation, with the world of finance, which is not their world, and which they would be foolish to try to enter. The facilities for buying one or two shares of stock or one or two hundred dollars' worth of bonds are not within the reach of the average workman,—or he thinks they are not, which amounts to the same thing. It is the almost invariable rule that men who work for wages invest their savings in real estate,—homes for themselves, and occasionally an extra building lot or two,—in life insurance, or in savings-banks or building associations. In the United States, nearly seven million depositors have in the savings-banks the vast sum of \$2,800,000,000. Probably two-

thirds of these deposits are in the name of wage-earners. The average interest-increment upon these enormous savings is small,—two or three per cent. a year.

If the wage-earners could be induced to put their money into industrial securities,—and the experience of the Steel Corporation shows that they can be,—it is not easy for the mind to grasp the ultimate possibilities of the ensuing popular ownership of great corporations. Once the movement is started, once wage-earners learn the *modus operandi* of buying such securities and discover that they can net a much higher rate of interest for the use of their money, the aggregate amount of their yearly investment may reach surprising figures. The change cannot come at once, as by a sudden inspiration or quick revolution of ideas and methods. It must be brought about gradually. Indispensable conditions are:

1. Facilities for buying stock should be offered by the managers of the corporations, so that the business of selling such securities shall not fall into the hands of brokers who might prey upon investors by “working off” upon them paper of doubtful value.

2. The stock offered employees must be first-class, safe, of assured permanent value and dividend-earning power.

3. The operations of the corporations, in great detail and perfect frankness, should be placed yearly before the public, after the manner now observed by the life insurance companies, most of the railway companies, and a few of the industrial companies, the Steel Corporation itself being a conspicuous example of the last-named class.

4. Offerings of stock should be made to employees by all high-class corporations, not benevolently, not with any altruistic or sentimental notions, but purely as a matter of business. The standard of self-respect and of pride and dignity is quite as high among the wage-earners as among people who employ, and the workers for salaries quickly and keenly resent, and view with a most natural and proper suspicion, any effort to “do something for them” or “help them along.” They do not want charity, but a chance to invest their savings prudently and advantageously, as business or professional men invest their surplus.

5. Credit should be granted, with the stock as security for deferred payments, on a purely business basis, just as the credit principle is applied to so many of the other activities of business.

6. Corporations should offer their own stock upon equitable terms, thus making their em-

ployees joint owners with other stockholders of the properties they serve, attaching them to the company with the bonds of self-interest.

7. Profit-sharing could well be associated with stock-investment, the latter affording a most excellent basis for the former, upon the principle that the thrifty and careful man who works well and saves his money and invests his surplus in the securities of the concern is a more valuable employee than the one who does not do these things, and is properly entitled to some reward beyond his wages and his dividends. Profit-sharing can thus be made a method of increasing wages to those who are most worthy of it and who give the best service to their employers.

The success of the Steel Corporation's experiment has shown that no good reason exists why the sterling stocks of the country should not be largely placed in the hands of the people. It is true that under present conditions wage-earners do indirectly invest their savings in industrial securities. They put their money in the savings or other banks, or in the life insurance companies, and these companies in turn buy and hold vast sums of bonds and stocks of various sorts. It is true, in this sense, that all the great railway and steamship, insurance and manufacturing, corporations, some of which are known as "trusts," are owned by the people at large, by hundreds of thousands and millions of stockholders, and not by a few rich men, as is generally supposed. But this is quite a different thing from the direct ownership which is proposed by the new movement. Depositors in savings-banks or holders of policies in insurance companies as a rule know or care nothing about the ultimate investment of their deposits or premiums. They look only to the bank or to the insurance company. They have not the slightest sense of proprietorship or of personal interest in the corporations whose securities may be in the vaults of the insurance company or bank. The moral effect of direct ownership and direct and distinct personal interest is entirely lost. The corporation whose securities lie in the vaults of his savings-bank or insurance company is to the depositor or policy-holder a distant, shadowy, perhaps unknown entity. But the corporation whose stock or bond he has in his bureau drawer, or deposited for safekeeping elsewhere, which he has partly or wholly paid for with his own hands out of his hard-earned savings, and the dividend which he and his family reckon upon as a part of their income, becomes to him a living reality, a part of his life and hope. If it chances to be—as it should be—the very corporation for which he is working day after day and year after year, if he

feels as he toils that he is a part owner of the establishment and has a stake in its success and prosperity, then we are reaching the best possible substitute for the abolition of small individual ownership which modern industrial development has decreed. We are doing quite as much for the corporations as for the wage-earner who has thus become a joint proprietor in his small way. We are attaining a condition which will reconcile the masses of the people to the existence of giant corporations, if anything can reconcile them, and while we are doing something for the wage-earning investor and profit-sharer and the corporation which has taken him in and given him a stake in the company, we are also doing very much for society and government and for the wholesome regulation of public opinion. It needs no vivid imagination to follow out the possible and probable social and political effects.

It has been the pride of Americans that we have no classes in our country,—at least, not in the European sense. No greater misfortune could happen than class development. Nor could that misfortune assume more sinister form than in the upbuilding of a small class of corporation owners and managers who remain distinct and apart from the great mass of the people,—a condition in which the vast majority would be naturally imbued with a spirit of antagonism to the little minority who controlled employment, production, and, to some extent, at least, the prices of commodities, this antagonism becoming acute and perhaps threatening under special circumstances. It may be said, with much truth, that there is little real danger of such development in a country like ours, where public opinion is still in such wholesome state, and where, in the absence of true classes, society is in a condition of flux and of sympathy and interchange from the very top almost to the very bottom. And yet, during the past few years we have seen the rise of the anti-trust spirit, in some minds assuming a virulent phase; we have seen in certain strata an outcropping of fierce hatred of wealth; we have seen,—at least, those who have cared to look beneath the surface have seen,—a considerable though not as yet alarming growth of socialism. A recent episode at Washington, wherein the mere name of the head of a great monopolistic trust signed to a telegram created a furore from one end of the country to the other, served to indicate a tendency of the public mind which prudent men will take into consideration in their reckonings for the future.

Clearly, there could be no better means of strengthening our social and political system

and warding off whatever danger this tendency may present than by diffusion of the ownership of public corporations throughout the warp and woof of society. The remarkable young business man who designed the Steel Corporation's plan and was aided by a broad-minded and far-sighted board of directors in putting it into operation fully understood the philosophy of this question. Mr. George W. Perkins had come to this understanding through a good school. All his life he had been mingling with the people, and in this he has a decided advantage over many of his New York contemporaries, for he had mingled with the people of the great West, among whom the present and future of America are best studied. All his life, too, he had been managing men. As one of the active forces of a great life insurance company, he had been engaged in strenuous competition for business. He soon discovered that a successful fight for business means something more than having so many agency managers, sub-managers, and solicitors. It means that the spirit of enthusiasm must be breathed into the men; that they must be made to feel that the interests of the company are truly their interests; that their stake in the general success is as great as that of the heavy shareholders; that they all belong to a happy and sympathetic family, in which there is a sure and ample reward for faithfulness and efficiency; that there is more in the work for them than the usual commissions and salaries; and that once they demonstrate their usefulness the company will take care of them in adversity and provide for their dependents should they fall by the wayside.

Though it would be most interesting and instructive to describe in detail the profit-sharing method by which the life insurance company in question worked out this problem, it must suffice here to say that the success achieved was unmistakable and far-reaching. The men seemed transformed. They were imbued with a new spirit. They came to look upon the affairs of the company as "ours," not "theirs." They talked of what "we" were doing and hoped to do. In short, they were bound to the corporation by new ties, stronger and closer than any that had theretofore existed. In an incredibly short time, the company found itself in possession of an agency system which was the envy of all its rivals. Competitors attempted to cut in and lead away some of these men,—these more strenuous, more efficient, more successful workers,—but without avail. Liberal offers of larger commissions and higher salaries were without effect. The family was too happy, too content, to be broken up. Not a man succumbed to tempta-

tion; and to-day the company is getting its full share of business at less proportionate cost than any of its rivals, and with the tremendous satisfaction of knowing that it has a staff full of loyalty and determination which may be depended upon at all times and in any emergency.

This success of the life insurance manager who knows men and had made it his life-study to win their confidence and get from them the best of which they were capable was the fore-runner of the Steel Corporation's plan. Mr. Perkins believed human nature was much the same in the steel business as he had found it in the insurance business. He believes now that the managers of other corporations will find it about the same everywhere, no matter in what part of the industrial field they may be operating. In devising his plan of the Steel Corporation, Mr. Perkins had in mind this central idea:

The chief danger threatening a vast corporation whose work is carried on by an army of 168,000 men is lack of individual interest. It is the danger of heaviness and inertia, of ruts and stagnation. Men must be stimulated to individual initiative and greater efficiency. The way must be found to bind them to the corporation with stronger ties than those of mere salary—or wage-earning. Men must have a stake in the success of the company higher and better than a simple desire to hold their places. We must make a great democracy of this business, not an autocracy, nor even an oligarchy. We need the warm interest and hearty coöperation of every employee, from the president down to the boy who drives a mule in a Lake Superior iron mine.

How to weld this army together and put *esprit du corps* into its ranks, was the problem. The solution decided upon, and now tested with such gratifying results, will probably serve as a model for many other corporations. It is not supposed to be a perfect plan, and in its details it may not be adaptable to all corporations. But the principle is there, and the proportions are symmetrical and harmonious. Henry C. Frick, H. H. Rogers, P. A. B. Widener, Norman B. Ream, Robert Bacon, Albert H. Gary, and Mr. Perkins, the members of the Finance Committee, saw at once that their plan must be divided into two main branches. One was to interest a large number of employees by inducing them to become permanent stockholders. The other was to engage the services of presidents, officers, managers, and superintendents, and all others charged with responsibility, on a profit-sharing basis. It was early perceived that at the present time it would not be practicable to apply profit-sharing directly to the great number of

men who work with their hands throughout all the ramifications of the corporation's activities. But profit-sharing was indirectly included in the offer made to these employees, and of which such a large number have already availed themselves. In other words, the company's proposal was to share profits with all employees who would demonstrate their interest and thrift by buying the company's stock. Consequently, the great bulk of the stock set aside for purchase by employees was offered to the men who earn the smallest salaries. This was done by dividing the 168,000 employees into six classes, according to their salaries—Class A, over \$20,000 a year; Class B, \$10,000 to \$20,000, down to Class E, \$800 to \$2,500 a year, and Class F, under \$800 a year—and then by limiting the amount of stock employees could take to the following proportions of their annual salaries: Class A, 5 per cent.; Class B, 8 per cent.; Class C, 10 per cent.; Class D, 12 per cent.; Class E, 15 per cent.; and Class F, 20 per cent. It will thus be seen why 90 per cent. of all the stock subscribed for in January goes to the two classes of mechanics and workmen whose salaries are under \$2,500 a year.

The method is really a very simple one. Employees subscribe for stock, one or two shares apiece. The shares cost \$82.50, or less than the market value. Each employee pays in monthly installments, taken from his wages, and he may have the payments made small or large, as he likes, save that not more than 25 per cent. of his wages may be so used in any month, and he may not be more than three years in completing payment. Dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. a year go to the subscriber from the date of his first payment. Interest at 5 per cent. is charged on the deferred payments. In other words, the corporation sells stock below the market price, on credit, and pays the holder 2 per cent. a year in dividends more than he has to pay in interest. Here is a direct inducement to the investment of savings. But this is not all. Inducements are offered the employee to complete payment for his stock and to hold it. As soon as he has fully paid for it, the certificate is issued in his name, and he is free to dispose of it. But to make it worth his while to hold it and at the same time keep his place as a working partner in the company's service, the corporation says to him: "If you hold your stock, and beginning with January next year you show it to the treasurer of your company, and present a letter from the proper official that during the preceding year you have been in the employ of the company, and have shown a proper interest in its welfare and progress, and you do this each January for five

years, we will give you, in addition to the dividends paid you, a bonus of five dollars per share for each year. During the second period of five years, we will pay you a further yearly bonus, as a reward for your continuous faithful service." The amount of the second bonus cannot now be fixed, but it will doubtless be larger than the first one. Ample provision is made for the protection of subscribers who from one cause or another are unable to complete payment. Subscribers who discontinue payments get their money back and keep the difference between the 7 per cent. dividends and the 5 per cent. interest. In the case of subscribers who die or are disabled while faithfully serving the corporation, after having paid for their stock, the five dollars per share yearly bonus is not lost, but is paid over to them or to their estates.

It would be worth the while of any reader of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS to sit down and figure out the profits of a rolling-mill worker who subscribed for, say, two shares of stock and undertook to pay for them in one year. The shares would cost him \$165. His monthly payments would be \$13.75. Five per cent. interest on these deferred payments would be about \$3.75. At the end of the year he would own his stock outright, and get the \$14 in dividends, or \$10.25 over the interest. If he remained in the service of the company for five years, he would in that period draw in dividends \$66.25, and \$50 in yearly bonuses of \$5 a share. His total outgo for the five years would be \$165; total income, \$116.25. And he would then have, as his own, free of all charges, an investment bringing him perpetually \$14 a year, and at least \$24 a year as long as he remained in the service of the Steel Corporation.

It is the announced intention of the corporation to make another offer of stock next year, and the outlook is that the shares will be subscribed for many times over. The broad-viewed men who are guiding the destinies of this, the greatest corporation in the world, have caught the spirit of the democratization or "peopleizing" of our industrial combinations. At the present time, there are about ninety thousand holders of Steel Corporation shares. It is probably safe to predict that within five years there will be a quarter of a million stockholders. Ultimately, the great bulk of these securities will be diffused among the people.

One of the directors of the Steel Corporation, in speaking of the programme to secure popular or widely distributed ownership of its shares, pointed to the fact that in France hundreds of thousands of workmen and peasant farmers are owners of the stock of the Credit Foncier, Credit

Lyonnais, and other banking and industrial corporations. "There is a widely prevalent impression," he added, "that the bulk of the Steel Corporation shares are owned by Mr. Morgan and a coterie of men about him. This is not true. Mr. Morgan's relations to the reorganization of the steel properties have never been properly understood. Let us assume, for the sake of a simple explanation, that two or three years ago the managers of the various steel companies had gone to Washington and asked the Government to take over their properties for the sake of conserving industrial prosperity. Assume, also, that the Government had accepted the trust, and that Congress had authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to issue bonds to pay for the properties. In such a case there would be no question that the people of the United States owned the steel plants. The title would be in their name, their money would have been used in making the purchase. It is precisely in this light that we of the United States Steel Corporation look upon the relations of the company to the people. It is their property, they have made it what it is, and they should have possession of it through diffusion among them of the stock certificates which represent its ownership. Mr. Morgan's relation to the transaction has been precisely the same as would have been that of the Secretary of the Treasury in the impossible case we have supposed of direct popular purchase through government agency."

The second or direct profit-sharing part of the Steel Corporation plan is also based upon the principle of democracy. When the various companies were merged into one gigantic corporation, the subsidiary concerns were managed, usually, by men who had a very large personal pecuniary interest in them, and who gave to the affairs of the companies not only their time, but the best efforts of which they were capable. In devising this plan, the aim was to maintain the same important incentive, but, instead of having it center in comparatively few men, so to distribute its effect throughout the corporation that every man would feel he had again become a

partner and would work from that point of view. In other words, the purpose is to stimulate individual initiative and to overcome that tendency to inertia and stagnation which many have feared may ultimately work the destruction of such vast organizations. The company proposes to distribute among its responsible men 1 per cent. of the net earnings if the net earnings during the present year shall exceed \$80,000,000 and be less than \$90,000,000, and to increase the sum distributed one-fifth of one per cent. for every ten million dollars added to the net earnings. If during this year, as is not unlikely, the net earnings reach the total of \$140,000,000, the sum distributed among the men who have helped make that great success will be \$3,150,000. This is profit-sharing on a great scale. The corporation reserves the right to make the distribution according to the judgment of the Finance Committee, as a reward of merit and not *pro rata*. At the present time, there are in the employ of the Steel Corporation and its subsidiary companies approximately 1,750 men who receive salaries in excess of \$2,500 a year, divided as follows:

Twelve with salaries of \$20,000 a year and over, including the \$100,000 salary of the president of the corporation itself.

Fifty from \$10,000 to \$20,000 a year.

Two hundred from \$5,000 to \$10,000 a year.

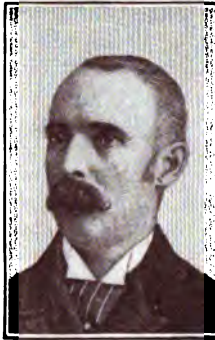
Fifteen hundred from \$2,500 to \$5,000 a year.

By giving its employees opportunity and inducement to save their earnings and invest them in the shares of the company, by making even the humblest workman an indirect participant in the profits of the concern for which he works, by setting aside a share of the profits for annual distribution among the men whose skill and judgment, whose yes or no, enter so largely into the economies and successes or failures of the giant organization, and by taking the public into confidence through full and frank reports of all operations, the United States Steel Corporation has pointed out the path which it is believed many other industrial companies will be glad to follow.





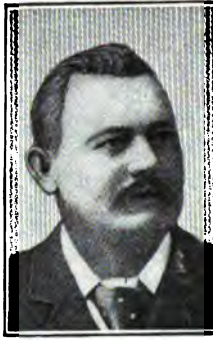
W. H. IRVINE.
(Premier and Attorney-General.)



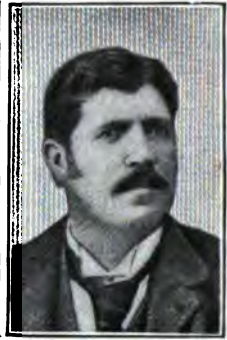
W. SHIELS.
(Treasurer.)



R. REID.
(Education and Public Health.)



J. W. TAVERNER.
(Agriculture and Public Works.)



JOHN MURRAY.
(Chief Secretary and Minister for Labor.)

A TYPICAL GROUP OF AUSTRALIANS.

THE ten faces on this page are those of the recently constituted cabinet that governs the Australian province of Victoria. They are presented here, not for any reason of exceptional timeliness or interest, but because Americans naturally like to be reminded once in a while of the men of their own speech and of kindred stock who are developing the progressive industrial and political communities of Australia and New Zealand.

These ten, then, are portrayed simply as forming a typical group. They are in charge of the government of an English-speaking state at the Antipodes. Their offices indicate significantly the scope of governmental activity in Victoria. Mr. Irvine, the prime minister, acts also as attorney-general. Mr. Shiels, the treasurer, is presumably a finance minister. Mr. Davies, the solicitor-general, holds a legal office that one finds in all British colonies. The other

cabinet ministers, apart from Mr. Kirton, who belong to the executive group without special portfolio, all hold offices that indicate the high development of public functions in Australia.

Thus, the interests of Public Education and Health are grouped and given the dignity of cabinet rank. We have not yet got so far in the United States. Agriculture and Public Works are associated together, while Labor has a full cabinet officer of its own. That Mines and Water-Supply should have a cabinet office points both to the importance of the mining interests of Victoria and also to the vital relation that water-supply bears both to that industry and to the public welfare. Victoria has a minister of Railways because there is in that province public ownership and operation of railway lines. The Land department is also of cabinet rank because of its great importance under the public-land policy that the Victorians pursue.



J. W. KIRTON.
(Without portfolio.)



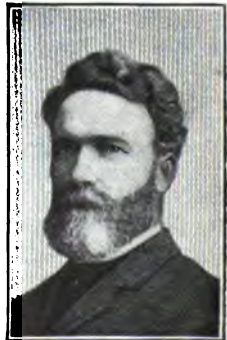
E. H. CAMERON.
(Mines and Water Supply.)



MR. BENT.
(Railways.)



J. M. DAVIES.
(Solicitor-General.)



MR. M'KENZIE.
(Lands.)

THE FIRST PARLIAMENT OF AUSTRALIA.

BY HUGH H. LUSK.

THE first Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia has been prorogued after a session which has lasted, with two or three short adjournments, fully seventeen months. It may be doubted whether, since the days of the Long Parliament, there has ever been an instance of a parliamentary session of such a record length as this, but it must be remembered that the work thrown on the legislature of the new federation was necessarily heavy, and also that the conditions under which it had to be done were somewhat exceptional. As all the departments of the government,—whether new, as in the case of the Defense Department of the commonwealth and its electoral machinery, or merely taken over from the various state governments, as in those of the customs and post-office,—demanded a new organization, and proper legal machinery to provide for their efficient administration, it is manifest that the work could not be shortly or easily disposed of in any case. When to this there had to be added the difficulty that the work had to be performed by an executive which could count upon the support of a very limited majority of votes in one chamber of the Parliament, and of no majority at all in the other, it cannot be wondered at that the session was a tedious one.

STATE AND FEDERAL FINANCES.

The difficulties with which the Australian cabinet had to grapple in the first session of the federal Parliament were largely financial in their character, and arose partly from the conditions under which the federation itself was brought about, and partly from the constitution of the first legislature. The conditions under which the federation of the six states now forming the Australian Commonwealth took place were somewhat peculiar. For perhaps the first time in the history of such federations of states there was no external pressure, either actual or anticipated, to render union almost a necessity of existence. The colonies had managed their own affairs, each for itself, for nearly half a century, and in every case they had done it with success. They had built up their own fiscal and other policies as suited themselves, without interference, and mainly on the strength of the revenues derived from their fiscal arrangements they had borrowed very largely for public works. The time

had come when they were willing to forego some of their independence of action, chiefly on grounds of sentiment, but the reasons prompting the desire for union were by no means strong enough to render them—or at any rate some of the more important colonies—willing to sacrifice very much to secure a federal union. A federal government manifestly implied a federal revenue, and this practically involved the existence of federal custom-houses and a federal tariff.

It was equally clear that unless the commonwealth should assume the state debts, the interest on which was largely provided for by import duties, the states could not surrender this most important part of their revenue without conditions. There were great difficulties in the way of the assumption of state debts by the new commonwealth, and after much negotiation the idea was finally abandoned by the convention on the ground that the indebtedness of the various states bore such different proportions to their revenues that it was hopeless to try to induce the wealthier colonies to agree that in the future their taxation should bear the burden of their neighbors' extravagance. The difficulty was at last got over by the framers of the constitution agreeing to the somewhat clumsy expedient of imposing on the commonwealth, so long as the debts remained a charge against the state governments, the duty of raising through customs and excise duties a sufficient revenue to enable them to refund to each state a sum as nearly as possible equivalent to what it obtained in this way before federation, less the cost of the department and the proportionate share of each state in the maintenance of the federal government. As this meant, for the present year, the imposition of customs taxation amounting to nearly \$10 a head on the inhabitants of the whole commonwealth, the problem was by no means a simple one.

PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE.

As might have been expected, it was here that parties, and to a very great extent states, found their natural point of political cleavage. It was admitted that the money must be raised by a customs tariff; the question remained on what principle the tariff should be constructed,—with a view to revenue only, or to revenue im-

posed with special reference to the protection of Australian industries? The question of free-trade *versus* protection is no new one in Australia. For fully thirty years it has been fought in the two wealthiest and most populous colonies of the group, with the result that Victoria,—which, thirty years ago, was by far the wealthiest and most populous colony of Australia, became and has continued to be the champion of high protection,—while New South Wales,—which, thirty years ago, had only two-thirds the population, and only a slightly larger proportion of the wealth and commerce of Victoria,—became the acknowledged champion in Australasia of a policy of free trade. Each of the colonies has been prosperous, and for years Victoria could boast that she alone of the colonies had built up native industries to any considerable extent. On the other hand, New South Wales, under her free-trade policy, has gradually gained ground, till within the last ten years she has first equaled and then surpassed her neighbor both in population and in wealth of every kind. It was natural that the representatives of each of these states, containing between them almost exactly two-thirds of the population of the commonwealth, should carry with them the fiscal views of their people into the federal Parliament.

The Victorian policy had the advantage that the first premier had been selected, not on grounds of local policy, but as the champion of federation in New South Wales, the mother colony of the group, and the one whose adhesion had been the most difficult to secure, and he had secured as his colleagues men who were without exception protectionists. While New South Wales had only reluctantly agreed to federate, Victoria had from the first been the most enthusiastic advocate of the commonwealth idea, mainly, it was said, because her leaders believed that they could thus secure a larger protected market for their manufactured goods, and so might regain the supremacy they had lost. The other four states of the commonwealth have hitherto had no strong opinions on the fiscal question. The necessities of all had compelled them to resort to high customs duties, but none of them had as yet developed any considerable manufactures of their own, and they were hardly prepared to take any stand on the question as one of principle. Of the 72 members who form the representative chamber of the Commonwealth Parliament 26 represent New South Wales, and 23 Victoria, the remaining 23 being divided among the other four states. It was found that, on the whole, the members favoring each set of views on the tariff question were about equal in numbers, while there was a compact body of 14

votes representing labor, and willing to support the cabinet in return for special concessions in the tariff to the interests of the workers.

THE NEW FEDERAL TARIFF.

The tariff originally proposed by the government was framed on lines of extreme protection, with special reference to the languishing industries of Victoria; it was inevitable that the opposition, mainly representing New South Wales, should fight tooth and nail to prevent its becoming law. The result of the struggle, which lasted almost without a serious interruption for nine months, has been a compromise which leaves the tariff of the commonwealth neither one thing nor the other. There can be little doubt that in debating power and political generalship the victory lay generally with the opposition; but after all the result, so far as it was a victory for the party of free trade, was due to the action of the Senate.

To many, and apparently not least to the cabinet, the prompt and effective interference of the Senate in a question of taxation, which was generally supposed to be practically placed by the constitution almost as much beyond their control as custom has placed it beyond that of the House of Lords in England, was a great surprise, and as the first test of the respective powers of the two chambers of the legislature it can hardly fail to be of great political importance. It was provided by the constitution not only that all bills involving the taxation of the people, directly or indirectly, should, as in this country, originate in the representative chamber of the legislature, but further that such bills should not be altered or amended in their passage through the Senate. As a concession to the less populous states, it was agreed when the constitution was framed that while only the chamber, elected on a strict basis of population, should impose or control taxation, the Senate, in which all the states enjoy, as in America, equal representation, should have the right to suggest, for the consideration of the other chamber, any amendments it thought desirable in any money bill sent on for its assent. This provision, mild and inoffensive as it was supposed to be, has now been used in a way to upset the policy of the government, and practically to compel the assent of the representative chamber to the views of a Senate majority. The tariff bill as passed by the government majority was subjected to an exhaustive criticism by the Senate, and finally fully fifty items of the schedule imposing duties were referred back to the representative chamber, with a request for their reconsideration and reduction or excision.

The government attempted to meet the difficulty by agreeing to a few trifling amendments on the lines suggested, and got the chamber peremptorily to reject all the others, sending the bill back in effect as it was. To this the Senate replied by calmly adhering to the views it had already expressed, and sending the bill back again for further consideration, allowing it to be pretty plainly understood that, in the event of their views being ignored, they would place their reasons on record and reject the bill altogether, thus preventing any uniform tariff being established during the session. Face to face with so grave a difficulty the cabinet gave way, and agreed to a compromise which they would not have dreamed of doing but for the action of the Senate, with its free-trade majority of two votes.

The immediate result of the long struggle has been the passing of a tariff act which pleases neither party, but will apparently raise the required revenue of \$40,000,000, needed to meet the wants of the federal and state governments. On all hands the settlement is admitted to be only temporary, and it is probable that its alteration will form the one great issue at the next elections, which will take place of necessity within a year from this time, and may take place sooner as the result of a dissolution, should the cabinet find its position too difficult when the Parliament meets for its next session, in a few months. A more important result of the fiscal conflict will be found in the fact that it has practically divided public opinion in Australia into two well-defined sections, so that hereafter, and probably for a long time, protection and free trade are nearly certain to be the badges of party in the commonwealth. It is a little difficult to predict the result of the next appeal to the electors on the fiscal question, but most of the indications at present point to a victory for the present opposition party. There can be no doubt that feeling in New South Wales, which has a population of nearly 1,500,000 out of the four millions of the commonwealth, is strongly adverse to the government, and may very likely send at least twenty out of its twenty-six representatives into the opposition camp, while feeling in Queensland, which sends nine representatives, is also very strong, and may lead to a nearly unanimous opposition vote from that state. These two eastern states contain at present very nearly one-half the population of Australia, and their almost unanimous agreement would inevitably be fatal to any administration to which it was opposed, as in every one of the states, with the exception of Victoria, there is a strong minority in favor of a free-trade policy and opposed to the present government.

IMMIGRATION AND CONTRACT LABOR.

The other legislation of the session, while it has neither consumed the time nor engrossed the attention given to the tariff, is likely to prove more satisfactory, as well as more permanent. The acts passed have been very few in number, but each of them may be regarded as being of considerable importance to the future of Australia. The first measure, with the exception of a temporary supply bill, which the Commonwealth Parliament passed, was the act to regulate immigration. It was introduced in deference to the general feeling of the people in favor of what is known as "a white Australia," and its main object is the practical exclusion of Asiatic races, more particularly the natives of China and India. The exclusion of Chinese immigrants has long been attempted by the various colonies, but with only partial success, as the treaty relations between Great Britain and China have rendered direct legislation forbidding their admission impossible. The comparative nearness and accessibility of northern Australia to southern Asia has also been a factor in the problem, which, in connection with the existence of alluvial gold fields at various points on the northern coast, makes the country attractive, and will always render the task of excluding them a difficult one. The Indian immigration is of a different kind, and has been the natural consequence of the establishment of tropical and semi-tropical industries in Queensland under conditions certainly not favorable to white labor. Labor for the sugar, cotton, and other plantations was at first drawn from the nearest of the South Sea islands, the natives of which are known under the general name of Kanakas, until the demand exceeded the supply; since then the planters have obtained contract laborers from southern India, under agreement with the Indian Government.

The act proposed by the cabinet and agreed to by the Parliament is indirect in its action on Chinese and Japanese immigration, but sufficiently peremptory in relation to the question of contract labor both from India and the islands. The device hit upon to exclude free Asiatic immigrants is at present wholly an educational test, which nominally applies to all immigrants who are not British subjects of European origin. It requires that every immigrant above a certain age must be able to write a sentence, to be prescribed by the immigration officer, in one or other of several specified European languages which the applicant professes to understand. The provision has been severely criticised as likely to be easily evaded, but in view of the difficulties surrounding the subject the Parlia-

ment agreed to give it a trial. So far as "contract labor" is concerned the act is decisive, and provides that the introduction of such immigrants shall cease at once, and further that within three years all laborers imported originally under such contracts shall be sent home. The latter provision has given rise to much strong feeling in Queensland, where it is denounced as an attempt to ruin the special industries of the state, and a wholly barbarous outrage against some thousands of colored laborers, both Kanaka and Indian, who had freely consented to waive their legal right to be sent home under the original contract of service, and had settled—some of them for a good many years—in the country as free laborers. It cannot be denied that the new departure, desirable though it certainly was in many respects, must inflict severe loss on the people of Queensland; and it is hardly remarkable that many persons, including even the members of the state government, have threatened that in case nothing is done to mitigate the effects by the Commonwealth Parliament steps will be taken to secede from the federation. The influence of white labor is sufficiently powerful in Queensland to render such an extreme step as this unlikely, but there can be no doubt the opposition will take advantage of the situation to offer some terms to the planters, by way of compensation, which may firmly attach them to their interests at the next elections.

THE NATIONAL CIVIL SERVICE.

A second, and hardly less important measure, was that which organized the civil service of the federal government. The act disposes entirely of the question which has given so much trouble in time past in this country as to the conditions of appointment and promotion in all branches of the civil service of the commonwealth, by taking both entirely out of the region of political patronage, and placing them, subject to definite regulations, in the hands of a permanent board of commissioners, in the appointment of whom the civil servants themselves have a powerful voice. The measure is mainly taken from the civil service law in force in New South Wales, where it has worked satisfactorily, on the whole, for some years past. The two points mainly aimed at by the system are, first, to remove as far as possible from all civil service appointments, from the highest to the lowest, the possibility of advancement unaccompanied by merit and efficiency owing to any external patronage or influence; the second, the establishment of a permanent and independent tribunal to which any member of the service, or of the public, can appeal in case of supposed injustice in the one case, or of

neglect of official duty in the other. The federal judiciary and the officials of the federal courts are not intended to be affected by the act, but will be dealt with under the special measure for the establishment of the federal judiciary which was brought before the Parliament but was not proceeded with during the session. In the meantime a temporary provision has been made to enable the supreme courts of the various states to deal with certain pressing questions of federal administration which do not involve the relations between the states and the Commonwealth Government. Should the bill proposed by the cabinet become law at the next session the effect will be to constitute the federal high court of justice almost exactly on the model of that of the United States, which has evidently been taken as a pattern by the draughtsman.

MILITARY DEFENSE.

A marked feature of the Australian constitution, and one of those in which it diverges most widely from our own, is that which transfers the entire control and management of the defense forces of the country—permanent, militia, and volunteer,—from the states to the federal government. These forces have consisted of the militia and volunteer forces of each colony, and also of a small permanent force—mainly of artillery and engineers—in three of them. In addition to these there were both in New South Wales and Victoria bodies of naval volunteers, and a small permanent naval force, forming skeleton crews for several small men-of-war that had been purchased from the British Government, and were used as training ships for the volunteers. The act passed by the federal Parliament is largely concerned with the arrangement of a single system, to apply to the forces of every kind throughout the commonwealth, under the control of a single commander in chief. It provides for the organizing of a special Department of Defense under a cabinet minister, who is empowered to arrange from time to time with the imperial government for the services of suitable officers of the British army for the commanding, organizing and training of the defense forces of the commonwealth, but with a distinct intimation that the entire ultimate control rests with the minister.

The act contemplates the embodiment and regular training of militia forces in each state, in a settled proportion to the adult male population, and also the permanent embodiment of a small force, which may fairly be regarded as the nucleus of a regular army, though in the meantime it will consist mainly of artillery and engineer corps. In the meantime no change is

proposed in the arrangements at present existing for naval volunteers. This separation of the questions of land and naval defense arose from the position in which the cabinet and Parliament were placed by the arrangements which were actually in progress, while the defense act was under consideration by the Parliament, for an increase of the imperial naval squadron on the Australian station, including a plan by which three of the additional ships shall serve as training ships for volunteers from Australia and New Zealand on a three years' service. This, which may be regarded as one of the most important results of the coronation conference of colonial premiers, will, no doubt, be assented to by the Parliament at its next session, but rather as a matter of experiment than because it is looked on generally as an ideal system. The prevailing feeling throughout the commonwealth—and the one which was given plain expression to by the opposition when the matter was discussed in the Parliament to some extent, was that the commonwealth should embody and maintain a naval as well as a military defense force for itself. It was admitted that no better training could be had for its naval volunteers than that offered, but it was evidently felt that in the event of a naval war the case might arise of Australian volunteers being withdrawn to some other part of the ocean at the very time when their presence might be of most importance at home. The cost of the Defense Department of the federal government for the first year of its separate existence will amount to something short of \$4,000,000,—a reduction of nearly one-fourth upon the estimates as originally proposed,—and while the amount seems to be economical, it is impossible, looking at the provisions of the act itself, to doubt that the cost will largely increase if the system is fully carried into effect.

A GOVERNMENT TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE.

By far the most extensive, and almost, if not quite, the most important, department of the government service transferred by the constitution to the administration of the federal government was that of the post office. In the case of Australia,—as in that of its neighbor, New Zealand,—the postal service includes also the telegraph and telephone services of the country, which have from the first been incorporated with the post-office. From the first establishment of a telegraph system in all the colonies of Australasia, the telegraph had been regarded only in the light of the most modern development of the postal system, and as such had been treated as a branch of the department. In this form they

were handed over to the federal government, and it became necessary to pass an act to reorganize and unify the various systems that had grown up in the original colonies. The statute by which this is done is interesting in many ways, and not least in the evidence it supplies of the characteristic free-handedness shown by the people of Australia in supplying the needs of the community and of the economy with which it may be done.

LOW RATES FOR TELEGRAMS.

The statistics on which the Australian postmaster-general founded his telegraph rates showed conclusively two things,—that the facilities already supplied in Australia to the public for the use both of telegraph and telephone far exceeded those supplied, either by governments or by private enterprise, in any country of Europe or America in proportion to the number of the population; and further, that the charges for these services were much lower in Australia than in any of those countries. They showed that both in post-offices and telegraph stations the people of the young commonwealth were far better provided for than either in England or America, and, apparently as a consequence, that they made more use of the conveniences, enabling all telegraph rates to be reduced to a point far below those charged elsewhere without any loss to the revenue. The new commonwealth rates provided for in the act illustrate the truth of his boast. For city messages, which includes a suburban area of a radius of 10 miles beyond the city limits, the rate is 12 cents for messages of 10 words and the address; for messages of the same length to any point within the same state,—and the states are generally very much larger than any American State,—the charge is 18 cents, while for similar messages to any station within the commonwealth,—and from Rockhampton, in Queensland, to Perth, in West Australia, the distance of wire is more than 4,500 miles,—the uniform charge is 24 cents. It is calculated, on the basis of past experience, that these rates will return a revenue sufficient to pay operating expenses of every kind, including the cost of maintenance, and in addition interest on the original expense of construction,—amounting to fully \$18,000,000. This apparent anomaly, when compared with American experience, is at least in part explained by the fact that Australians send more than twice as many messages over the lines at the lower rates as Americans do at the present charges, and that where every post-office is also a telegraph station, and every country postmaster a telegraph operator, the cost is greatly reduced.

THE TELEPHONE SERVICE.

The telephone is a convenience of much more recent introduction in Australia than the telegraph, and for a time it appeared doubtful whether it would be taken in hand by the government, or left, as elsewhere, to private enterprise. Finally, however, it was taken in hand by one colonial government after another, and there is now probably not a town possessing a population of 3,000 persons or upwards which is not supplied with a telephone exchange. There are at present, it would appear, fully a hundred more or less important centers of population in the commonwealth supplied with this convenience, and hitherto the cost has differed materially in the different states. This is one of the anomalies which can be done away with as a consequence of the federation, and hereafter the charges will be on a uniform scale, which, compared at least with some of the experiences of older and far more densely peopled countries, would seem to be moderate. There will be three different kinds of telephone service provided, for which different rates will be charged. The business telephone service will give the unlimited use of the telephone at all hours within the limits of the municipality, at an annual charge of \$40.00; for a similar service, including both the town or city, and suburban area, the annual charge will be \$50.00; and for private residences—without any restrictions as to the number of messages, or limitations as to hours, the rate, which would seem to include both town and suburban service—is fixed at a uniform charge of \$25.00. There does not as yet appear to be any provision made for long distances, which probably arises from the fact that the centers of population are widely scattered, nor does any provision seem to be made for public pay stations in the larger cities. As every post-office and branch office in the towns is already a telegraph station however, there can be little doubt that such an extension of the system for the public convenience will be made on reasonable terms as soon as the demand arises.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE.

It was reserved for the Australian Commonwealth to vindicate its claim to be looked upon as thoroughly in sympathy with the most modern political ideas by being the first federation of states to sweep away distinctions of sex in relation to the franchise. One of the colonies

entering the federation had, it is true, already taken this step, and another had a measure before its legislature for the same purpose, but when the federal electoral act was passed, only South Australia had actually conferred the franchise on its female citizens. The new federal statute confers the franchise on all persons in the commonwealth of the full age of twenty-one years, regardless of sex, so that the second Parliament of united Australia will be the choice of the whole people. In the meantime the anomaly will exist in most of the states, that half the persons intrusted with the larger franchise for the Commonwealth Parliament will still be refused a voice in the election of members to their own state legislatures; but such an anomaly may be expected quickly to pass away. The argument in favor of the principle that the greater responsibility must include the less, cannot but be more convincing than the opposite contention; and it may be assumed that within a year or two the practice, which has obtained with complete success in New Zealand for the last ten years, will be extended throughout Australia to all political elections. A new provision, which constitutes a departure from any widely tested system yet in force, provides for voting in certain cases of distance from any polling place by registered letter. The practice has been in force in the colony of West Australia, where the population is exceedingly scattered, and is said to have led to no ascertained abuses in the past; the extension of the franchise to women would seem to be an additional reason for such an arrangement, but its results, when applied on the larger scale now authorized, will be watched with much interest.

It is worthy of remark that the act does not appear, any more than that of New Zealand, on which it appears to have been modeled, to deal with the question of admitting women to seats in the federal Parliament. Public opinion does not as yet appear to have advanced to that point in any part of Australia, for while the franchise question was the subject of keen debate in the Parliament, nobody appears even to have suggested the question of so great a departure from long-established usage. That such a development is logical can scarcely be denied, and that it will follow in the course of time is altogether likely; the female voters of Australia will probably show their good sense if, like their sisters of New Zealand, they are slow to agitate for their full logical privileges.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE VENEZUELAN CRISIS FROM THE BRITISH POINT OF VIEW.

THE attitude and conduct of the British Government in the Venezuelan incident have been sharply censured in the leading English reviews. The tone of this criticism is well represented in an article written by Mr. Sydney Brooks for the February *Fortnightly Review* and entitled "The Venezuelan Imbrolio." Mr. Brooks holds that if England had any serious grievance against Venezuela she should have acted alone, thus retaining the substantial goodwill of the American people. By permitting Germany to coöperate with her, England not only tainted her own case, but saved Germany from the rebuff that any effort to prosecute her claims against Venezuela single-handed would have brought down upon her.

"And for the rest, what have we scored, and in what have we benefited? Have we taught President Castro 'a much-needed lesson?' I hardly think the spectacle of two of the greatest powers in Europe setting out to collect a debt by force, and then, driven back to The Hague or a tribunal at Washington, to submit their claims to arbitration, is one that will greatly discourage South America. Have we succeeded in convincing America that the Monroe Doctrine carries with it certain responsibilities? Every one knows that the diplomatic victory in the whole affair rests with President Roosevelt and Mr. Hay. Have we improved our relations with the American people? Pick up any American journal you please, and you will find the freest expressions given to the amazement with which our course has been received. Have we served any British interest whatever? Not unless it is a British interest to have ourselves paraded the world over in German leading-strings, and to jeopardize our relations with the United States on the Kaiser's behalf. And, finally, are we any nearer to a settlement of our Venezuelan claims? To this, too, the answer is a melancholy and humiliating negative."

AMERICA AND GERMANY.

Mr. Brooks insists that American public opinion is inimical to Germany. Washington watches Germany as Pretoria in the old days watched Johannesburg. The American Navy Department measures its requirements by the growth of the German sea power; and private Americans regard German ambitions as inevitably bringing her athwart the Monroe Doctrine. All

Americans believe that Germany means, if she can, to secure a foothold on South American soil and a naval station in South American waters.

Finally, Mr. Brooks maintains that Lord Lansdowne should have acted as Lord Rosebery acted during the Nicaraguan crisis of 1895. Lord Rosebery was successful because he observed two principles: first, he acted alone; and, secondly, he volunteered the frankest assurances to Washington that no permanent occupation of Nicaraguan territory was intended.

Why the British Ministry Loses Ground.

The editor of the *National Review* is furiously angry about the "Venezuelan mess," and declares that the present supervision of Great Britain's affairs seems to be characterized by a lack of knowledge, a want of grasp, and a baseness of judgment. He intimates plainly that there is no reply to Mr. Meredith's remark that there never was a more powerful government in the House of Commons, nor a more feeble one in conducting the affairs of the nation. He protests against the lord chancellor's attempt to make the newspapers responsible for the fatuity of the cabinet:

"The press's real offense on this question, as on so many others, is not that it thwarts statesmanship or diplomacy,—there is little enough of that, heaven knows, to thwart,—but that when some ghastly blunder becomes public property it *exposes* the incapacity of certain high and mighty personages—most of whom speak greatly above their ability,—in transacting business they do not understand."

An article entitled "A Warning to Germany" charges the government with truckling to Germany. The cabinet is out of touch with public opinion, and it has no time for the vital issues of national policy. The ministry has greatly lost ground of late, and the only man in it who really commands public confidence is Mr. Chamberlain.

VENEZUELA'S REVOLUTIONS.

LORD LANSDOWNE recently attributed to Venezuela one hundred and four revolutions in sixty-seven years. This statement is challenged in *La Revue* for January 15 by M. Garién, who asserts that what we see consistently in Venezuelan history is a series of revolutionary movements, nearly all of which had as their object the restoration of constitutional rule vio-

lated by various presidents. Since 1870, the succession of presidents, with the exception of Castro, has been absolutely regular and constitutional; and the various revolts were directed against the illegal abuse known locally as *continuism*,—that is, the retention of office by presidents after their legal term had expired. "Instead of destroying order, the revolutionists reestablished it by maintaining obedience to the constitution and the laws."

The case of the present crisis in Venezuela is the abandonment of the Liberal principles which were maintained under the presidency of Blanco from 1870 to 1888. President Castro is a brave man, but is not endowed with any other ruling qualities. His military prowess and his skill in stratagem made him famous. Despot beyond expression, he ill-treated his opponents pitilessly, sequestered their property, and flung them into prison. His enemy Matos is looked upon by many Venezuelans as the destined savior of the state. Matos was minister of finance under Andueza, Crespo, and Andrade, and every time he took office he rehabilitated the finances. To his friends, Matos is the Rouvier of Venezuela. M. Garien evidently thinks that if Matos regained authority he would again save Venezuela, which was financially sound in 1887-88, and can be made so again.

MOROCCO AND THE MOORS.

THE *Fortnightly* for February contains a very interesting and well-written article by Mr. A. J. Dawson entitled "Morocco, the Moors, and the Powers," in which the essence of the Moorish question, as seen from within, is put admirably, and sadly too. For, as Mr. Dawson insists all through his article, it is the essential decadence of the Moorish race, rulers and ruled, which is the secret of all the present troubles. The cave-dwelling aboriginal Berbers of Morocco are the same hardy semi-savages as resented the Moslem invasion a thousand years ago, but the Moors proper are in hopeless decay. The present Sultan is no more capable of dealing with the rebellious mountaineers in the crushing, masterful manner of his ancestors than he is capable of retaking the capitals of Andalusia.

"And that brings one to what is at once the most striking and the most momentous consideration which occupies the minds of understanding students of the Moorish race and the Moorish empire: their unmistakable and essential decadence.

"Human and animal, political and material, national and individual, steady, inexorable, pathetic, and unredeemed, the deterioration is writ

large and clear, and the man who studies may not fail to read and admit the grievous thing, however reluctantly. Indeed, the most reluctant, the most generously partial, are the most assured; the men who have most loyally and affectionately served the Moors are the men most clearly convinced of this unhappy truth. For they have learned the most. They have learned, to name one among examples, the proper enumeration of which would fill a volume, that the national spirit is absolutely and entirely defunct among Moors. It has not suffered an eclipse; it is non-existent."

THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO.

MR. W. B. HARRIS, who recently accompanied the Sultan as a guest of his majesty on his expedition into the Zimmur country, writes in the *National Review* a very interesting article on the crisis in Morocco. He brings out very clearly two things,—first, the extravagance of the Sultan; and, secondly, the fact that the present crisis in Morocco has been brought about by English influence pressing for reforms which enraged fanaticism. As soon as the Sultan came to the throne he developed a morbid craving for every novelty, from the Röntgen rays to automobiles. Photographs, bicycles, billiards, and circuses were introduced.

"Camera succeeded camera, each more costly than the last, until at length cameras of solid gold were reached—then automobiles; but they were heavy and the demand was limited, so diamond tiaras took their place. All the while there was a steady flow of grand pianos and perambulators, billiard tables and steam launches, dairy and laundry fittings, and wild beasts, kitchen ranges, and incubators,—in fact, everything that could be of use—or couldn't—in a Moorish palace. An army might have been organized, fed, clothed, and armed on the money that was thrown away."

With the introduction of these things came English mechanics, photographers, architects, grooms, and non-commissioned officers. The Sultan played lawn tennis with English diplomatists. Just as he looked to individual Englishmen for friendship, so he placed his entire confidence in the British Government. Under English influence, he introduced a reformed system of taxation, which England has as yet failed to introduce into more than one native state in India. He introduced the excellent system of taxation, but owing to the refusal of France to agree to the taxation of her *protégés*, the taxes have not been collected. Other reforms he carried through with a high hand.

THE MACEDONIAN STRUGGLE FOR LIBERTY.

WHILE anarchy is by no means a novel condition in Macedonia, the uprisings of the past six months have served to give the outside world a new conception of the chronic state of desperation in which the people of that unhappy land have suffered for many years. The news of the day has revealed Macedonia as one of the few civilized countries of the world in which anarchy perpetually prevails. It is not difficult to understand how this situation has been brought about, when we consider the proven Turkish incapacity for governing, but there remains a great question of world politics which seems farther than ever from solution. It is this "Macedonian Question" which forms the subject of an article by Mr. Charles Johnston in the *North American Review* for February.

A NATION OF BULGARIANS.

Mr. Johnston's first point relates to the racial affinities of the Macedonian population.

"Of the three million inhabitants of Macedonia, five-sixths are of Bulgarian race and speech, the minority being Turkish soldiers and officials, Greek merchants, priests, and settlers along the Egean, and a district of Vlachs among the Pinus Mountains. To this we must add the Old Servian region in the northwest, very important, as representing the arena of two contesting nationalities. But setting aside these scattered fragments, Macedonia is a land of Bulgarian Slavs, Christians of the Oriental rite, under Musulman rulers, largely of Turkish race. The inevitable resultant anarchy, which has its cause not so much in the malevolence of the Turk as in his administrative impotence, has long attracted the hearty sympathy of the four million Bulgarian subjects of Prince Ferdinand.

"It is to aid their three million brothers in Macedonia that the Bulgarians of the principality form the Macedonian Committees we have heard so much of; and the aims and ideals of these committees have the sympathy of all Bulgarians, including the governing powers, though the means they employ may be repudiated, as is inevitable so long as Bulgaria remains, even nominally, a vassal state of the Sultan."

CRUELITIES AND TORTURES UNCHECKED.

The events of last September and October, which were only imperfectly reported in the American newspapers, are pictured in detail by Mr. Johnston, who proceeds to inquire into the moral, social, and political situation of the country.

As official Russia, for political reasons, has all along been hostile to the Macedonian revolu-

tionary movement, Mr. Johnston thinks it certain that Russian writers are not likely to overstate the seriousness of the conditions from which the movement derives its justification. He therefore accepts as reliable the following picture of the condition of Uskub, the chief town of the northern Macedonian province of Kossova, which appeared in the *Russian Messenger* in September last:

Murder is such a common occurrence in Uskub that people have agreed not to speak of it. The normal life of the city could not go on without it. The cynicism and license of the people have gone so far that they commit murder in sight of the consuls, or before their houses; and the consuls can only protest with horror. But under the present régime, these protests are rarely effective; for the most part, no attention is paid to them, and the consuls can only resign themselves, and accustom their nerves to these things, considering them as an unavoidable evil. In Uskub, no one talks about the daily murders. They are somewhat more interested in general cutting affrays and street battles, or in the open insurrections which are periodically renewed at intervals of less than a year.

Mr. Johnston appends two quotations from "a semi-official pamphlet on the Macedonian question," recently published at Sofia:

Last April, a band of Turkish gendarmes, under the command of Capt. Malik Effendi, met and arrested a certain Constantine Silyanoff, on his way from Kostinza. The captain suspected him of being a possible revolutionary, and ordered him to be beaten; then they impaled him with a bayonet, drove nails into his flesh, and burned his body with a red-hot iron, to extort confessions of the doings of the revolutionary committee. Silyanoff died a few hours later.

In the village of Mustapha, in the province of Adrianople, there is a Turkish garrison, which terrorizes the population by incessant acts of violence. In April, the soldiers noticed the daughters of the peasant Christak, and attempted to assault them. The neighbors were attracted by their cries, and after a fierce battle succeeded in freeing the unfortunate girls. On the same day, three Bulgarian women returning from market to their village were assaulted by Turkish soldiers. These outrages are of daily occurrence, wherever there are Turkish garrisons.

RELIGIOUS PERSECUTIONS.

As to the part taken by the Greek Church in these persecutions, Mr. Johnston says:

"It is useless to multiply instances, or to speak of the perpetual brigandage, or the religious persecution of Orthodox Bulgarians by the bishops of the Church of Greece. Mr. Gladstone, writing in 1879, said: 'The See of Constantinople, and its followers, little to their credit, ostensibly took the side of the Turks during the late war,' and there is evidence that they have been true to their allegiance, thwarting every expression of Bulgarian national feeling by every means in their power, and losing no opportunity to call

down the penalties of the Turkish inquisition on the schools, churches, language, and aspirations of the Macedonian Bulgarians. If we add this twofold religious persecution to the conditions of civil anarchy already described, the outbreaks of the autumn, which we have chronicled, and the probable uprisings of the coming spring need no further explanation. With the oppression of Turks, Albanians, and Greek ecclesiastics combined, the Bulgarians of Macedonia would be more or less than human, if they did not rebel."

MACEDONIA ONCE FREED BY RUSSIA.

To the question, Why does not Russia intervene and compel Turkey to liberate Macedonia? Mr. Johnston replies:

"The answer of history is all-sufficient, so far as Russia is concerned. Russia did in fact intervene, and, in a campaign which made the battles of the Franco-Prussian war seem somewhat theatrical by comparison, at the cost of hundreds of thousands of Russian lives, and at an immense national sacrifice, did free the Slavs of the Balkans from their Turkish oppressors, including the whole of the three provinces of Macedonia, whose condition we have so fully described.

"For more than four months,—from March 3 to July 13, 1878,—Macedonia was a free province of independent Bulgaria, in virtue of the treaty of San Stefano, dictated by the victorious Russian armies, almost under the walls of Constan-

tinople, after the splendid and dearly bought victories of the Shipka Pass, Lovcha, Plevna, and finally Sheinovo, where the Turks made their last stand under the shadow of the snow-swept Balkans."

RESPONSIBILITY OF ENGLAND AND AUSTRIA.

The action of the powers at the Berlin Congress has led to complications of which Macedonia has been the helpless victim, while Russia has been powerless to aid.

"It is true that eastern Rumelia, with its million Bulgarian inhabitants, escaped from the clutches of Turkey seven years after the Berlin Treaty, and that the signatory powers agreed to connive at this breach of established conditions. But Macedonia still suffers the measureless misery and debasement of Turkish oppression; and the responsibility for this lies, not with Russia, who once set the Macedonian Bulgarians free, and exalted them into a free nationality, but with the Austrian and English Chauvinists who destroyed that nationality, and gave the Macedonians up to the tender mercies of Abdul Hamid and his chosen instruments.

"With Macedonia, Crete and Armenia were substantially liberated by Russia in 1878,—and returned to subjection by Austria and England four months later. There has been international action in regard to Armenia, though without much profit, and the great powers have intervened in concert to restore good government in Crete. The work of the Berlin Congress has, therefore, been condemned, in both Crete and Armenia, by the stern logic of events; and in Macedonia its action, as we have seen, was not less fatal and destructive. The time is evidently coming soon when the great powers must approach the question of Macedonia as they have already approached that of Crete.

"But pending such action by the powers, and especially by those whose Chauvinism in 1878 has had such dire results, we cannot logically expect Russia to intervene. Therefore, Russia has discouraged all attempts of the Macedonian Committees, acting with the Bulgarian Government, to draw her into the Macedonian controversy. She has done what lay in her power, acting through her consuls, establishing new consulates, exercising pressure on the Sultan, cultivating the warmest and most friendly relations with both Serbia and Bulgaria. But these are only half-effective palliatives; the real cure lies in the liberation of Macedonia, and the responsibility for that cure lies with the two nations, Austria and England, who thrust once liberated Macedonia back again under the iron heel of the Turks."



HATCHING TROUBLE.

From the Journal (Minneapolis).

A WOMAN WITNESS OF THE ARMENIAN MASSACRES.

MME. CARLIER, the wife of the French consul in Armenia, kept a diary during that terrible winter of 1895, when Armenia was inundated with Christian blood, and it is this diary which appears practically complete in the second January number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. That winter also proved fatal to M. Carlier, who died of disease then contracted.

The journal of his widow begins in August, 1895, and ends in July, 1896. By that time the Carliers' baby, M. Jean de Sivas—as his mother calls him—had cut his eleventh tooth. Mme. Carlier describes admirably the first mutterings of the storm. The Armenians are rising—but what hope can they count on? she asks; and she observes that they are convinced that the United States is more powerful than the English, who, after having made great promises, did not fulfill them, and who have no longer even a consul at Sivas!

M. Carlier wished to send his wife and children away, but the former flatly refused to go; instead, she learned to shoot with musket and pistol, in order to be prepared when the storm burst, which it did in November. Not an Armenian was left in the bazaar,—every man, woman, and child was massacred,—and the firing round the camp of the Carliers was terrific. With extraordinary courage, Mme. Carlier assisted in the defense of her home while the consul was occupied in protecting the French subjects in his district. All over the villages, the massacres went on; at Sivas they counted 1,500 killed; while 300 found themselves houseless, and 400 shops were entirely destroyed.

THE REALM OF THE HAPSBURGS: WILL IT HOLD TOGETHER?

THE internal condition of Austria, as one of the powers most directly concerned in the Eastern question, is a matter of much interest at the present moment. The *Monthly Review* for February publishes the first part of a series of important articles from well-known Austrian politicians on the future of their empire. The question apparently set was whether there is any circumstantial foundation for the rumor of a possible partition of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and the contributors are Dr. Albert Gessmann, leader of the Christian-Social party; Dr. Adolf Stransky, leader of the Young Czech party; and Mr. Franz Kossuth, leader of the Hungarian Independence party. The experiment of getting foreign statesmen of different complexions to write about the future of their

own country is an excellent one, particularly in the case of Austria, about which we have had so many pessimistic prophecies of late. It is remarkable that not one of the three contributors to the February number shares this pessimism.

WHY AUSTRIA MUST REMAIN UNITED.

Dr. Gessmann takes the view that if Austria did not exist she would have to be created, for she fulfills the function of a unifier of the various rival races of central Europe. He does not think the internal rivalry of races threatens the empire at all; for though the various races contend for supremacy, none of them seek union with the adjacent empires. Firstly, Pan-Germanism is impossible. Highly placed German statesmen dread the prospect, the realization of which would upset the hegemony of Protestant North Germany, for the Austrian Germans would certainly ally themselves with the Bavarians, to whom they are related in race, religion, and dialect. The addition of twelve million Austrian Germans to the German Empire would upset the present status altogether.

THE POLES AND BOHEMIANS.

Secondly, the Austrian Poles do not want secession. They would fall under the power of Russia, and they prefer their present limited independence. And the Russians have already enough trouble with their Polish subjects to prevent their desiring a further Slavonic accession. The Czechs are nationally remote from the Russians, and differ from them in religion; united with the Czar's empire, they would lose the important rôle which they play in Austria. The Austrian Italians similarly do not want union with Italy, which is itself almost as little a united state as Austria.

THE HUNGARIAN QUESTION.

Dr. Gessmann sees a final bar to Austrian partition in the existence of Hungary. He says that in the event of partition Russia would have to annex Hungary; and this being so, the Hungarians would be the first to resist the partition of the empire.

Dr. Adolf Stransky takes substantially the same views. He says that while the majority of the Austrian population are dissatisfied with the present state of things, they cannot conceive partition. He repeats Dr. Gessmann's views as to Pan-Germanism, and says that only the nobles and the *bourgeois* of Austrian Italy desire union with Italy. The peasants, under the influence of the hostile local clergy, are inimical to the Italian crown. Pan-Slavism, Pan-Italyism, and Pan-Germanism are indeed generated and backed

by foreign influence. But none of these movements are very dangerous. Prussia is separated from the Austrian-German provinces by a Slavonic wedge which makes union impossible. At the same time, Dr. Stransky considers the possibility of German expansion to the Adriatic, of which he says :

"The results of such an eventuality upon the balance of power are easy to foresee. Germany, with her new frontiers stretching to the Adriatic Sea, would be by far the most powerful state in the world. An increase of many millions of citizens would carry with it no mean advantage; but, above all, the geographical position of the enlarged empire would render it irresistible. Switzerland, within whose precincts Pan-German influence is already noticeable, would find Germany on its eastern boundary, and be compelled to become, not only intellectually, but politically, a province of the Fatherland. Mistress of Trieste and Pola, Germany could exercise so great a pressure on Italy that the latter would have to accept her rule, or, in order to evade this inconvenience, to declare herself the vassal of France. England would have found a new rival in the Mediterranean, for the occupant of Pola could easily threaten the Suez Canal. But, more than this, Germany would thus have reached the most-coveted frontiers of the East. The Hungarians,—unless they preferred to be merged in the Russian Empire,—would have to act, however reluctantly, as the outpost of Germany on the eastward march. The commercial and diplomatic influence of the German Empire at Constantinople,—already very great,—would be immeasurably increased when once the German navy is in possession of a new Kiel or Wilhelmshaven with forty-eight hours' steam of the Turkish roadstead. In Athens, too, German pressure would be brought to bear. The Balkan states must needs become the humble executors of the German imperial will, and the industrial foundation hitherto laid by Germany in Asia Minor would partake of the highest political significance. It is no exaggeration to pretend that the day the German eagle towered over Vienna, Trieste, and Pola its wings would spread far beyond the Balkan peninsula, the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, and Asia Minor, to the banks of the Tigris and Euphrates. And here a new chapter in the world's history would begin."

But he dismisses these grandiose projects as nebulae.

AN HUNGARIAN VIEW.

Herr Kossuth merely says that no change is probable during the lifetime of the present em-

peror. But he maintains that the present internal organization of the empire is impossible. The sole remedy lies in the personal union of Austria and Hungary, the two states being in other respect entirely separate. This solution would save the empire, as Austria would then become a federated state, and the German-Slav question would be solved. At present, the Slav majority will never accept German domination. As for Hungary's racial question, Herr Kossuth practically denies that it exists, and maintains that the vast majority of the non-Hungarian peoples in the kingdom are loyal Hungarians.

WHY WAR IS IMPOSSIBLE FOR ENGLAND.

THE truth which the late M. Bloch insisted upon so persistently in the last years of his life is gradually coming to be recognized even by the Jingoës. Mr. Bloch held that war had become impossible between the great powers of Europe, because with modern weapons it must be protracted, and no nation could feed people while war was going on. This, which is true of all the Continental nations, with the doubtful exception of Russia, is permanently true of Great Britain. It is said that a strong combined effort is about to be made for the purpose of compelling the British Government to make a searching inquiry into the question of food-supply in time of war.

A ROYAL COMMISSION.

Blackwood's Magazine for February publishes a very emphatic article on the subject, leading up to the conclusion that a thorough and searching inquiry by a select committee or a royal commission should be held without delay. The writer says :

"It is practically certain that on the outbreak of war with a naval power (one power alone) the following events would take place: All our foreign-going sailing ships would be laid up; some of our slow cargo-carrying steamers would be captured by the enemy's cruisers and armed auxiliaries, already fitted and designed for the purpose. There would be an enormous rise in the rate of marine insurances. A large number of our merchant steamers of only moderate speed would be laid up, those near a neutral port seeking refuge therein. The great bulk of our raw material for manufacture, and nearly all our supply of foreign corn, being carried by comparatively slow ships, would thus be cut off; or, if any got through, it could only be landed at such enhanced prices for the raw material as to render it commercially unprofitable for manufacture; and the corn at such prices that the

great majority of the working classes would be unable to buy it in sufficient quantities even with their present wages. But as many millions would be thrown out of work by the dislocation in our trade, they would be getting no wages at all, and it requires no great stretch of imagination to picture what their condition would be. These things will certainly happen to the country sooner or later, and perhaps sooner than many people think if provision is not made beforehand."

He then quotes a manifesto signed by twenty-six of the leading corn merchants of the United Kingdom, which concludes thus :

"We feel that the country ought to know that in the opinion of corn merchants it must, in the event of such a war, prepare to see wheat, and consequently bread, at what would be to the poor famine prices."

War would entail not only famine prices for bread, but an immediate cessation of employment in many industries. So that "at the very outbreak of the war our government would, in addition to their other anxieties, be brought face to face with the problem of feeding from fifteen to twenty millions of the poorer classes in these islands. What preparations have been made for doing so? And what will be the consequences if they fail to do so? The answer to the first question is, None! and the answer to the second question is, Revolution, anarchy! the depredations of an angry and starving mob, which no power of government will be able to resist if they have not the means of feeding them; and, finally, an ignominious and ruinous peace, the surrender of our navy, and a crushing war indemnity,—in short, the end of English history."

It is difficult to resist the conclusion which *Blackwood* draws from these facts when it says:

"Is it not reasonable to ask, then, that the rulers of this fortress, with its garrison of forty-one millions, spending over sixty millions a year on warlike preparations for its defense, should spend a few more millions, if necessary, and take adequate steps to insure that the fortress shall not be reduced by starvation three or four months after war is declared?"

The Price of Wheat in Time of War.

Mr. W. Bridges Webb, a leading grain merchant, contributes to the *Contemporary Review* an article on the price of corn (wheat) in time of war which comes to the same conclusion. He says:

"With a population grown to more than 41,000,000, this country produces less than 6,000,000 quarters of millable wheat, and is forced to buy from America, Russia, Argen-

tina, etc., 24,500,000 quarters to meet our requirements. It has gradually come to pass that the United Kingdom receives about three-fourths of its whole food-supply from abroad, while the foreign proportion of our breadstuffs is represented by something very close to five-sixths of our consumption."

This being so, Mr. Webb concludes :

"A royal commission should be appointed to collect facts, figures, and authoritative opinions, so that their report would give the necessary information to Parliament. The public would then be able to arrive at some conclusion that would help the legislature to handle the matter in a way befitting the vital national and imperial interests which affect so intimately the well-being of the people."

CAPTAIN MAHAN ON THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

OUR British friends are favored with a frank, clear, and straightforward exposition of the Monroe Doctrine, by Captain Mahan, in the *National Review* for February.

The historical development of the doctrine, and especially the facts related directly to its origin and formulation, are reviewed with much care, and the article concludes with a vigorous assertion of the national purpose in this country "to withstand the beginnings of action which might lead to European intervention in the internal concerns of an American state, or render it contributive in any way to the European system, a makeweight in the balance of power, a pawn in the game of European international politics; for such a condition, if realized, brings any European contest to this side of the Atlantic; and the neighborhood of disputes, as of fire, is perilous."

In explanation of the sensitiveness of American public opinion on this subject Captain Mahan says :

"It is remembered that intervention was contemplated in our own deadly intestine struggle because of the effect upon European interests, although only economic; for we were embarrassed by no political dependence or relation to Europe. Public sentiment intends that such a danger to the American continents, the recurrence of which can only be obviated by the predominant force and purpose of this country, shall not be indefinitely increased by acquiescing in European governments acquiring relations which may serve as occasions for interference, trenching upon the independence of action or integrity of territory of American states.

"It is evident that for a nation to owe money

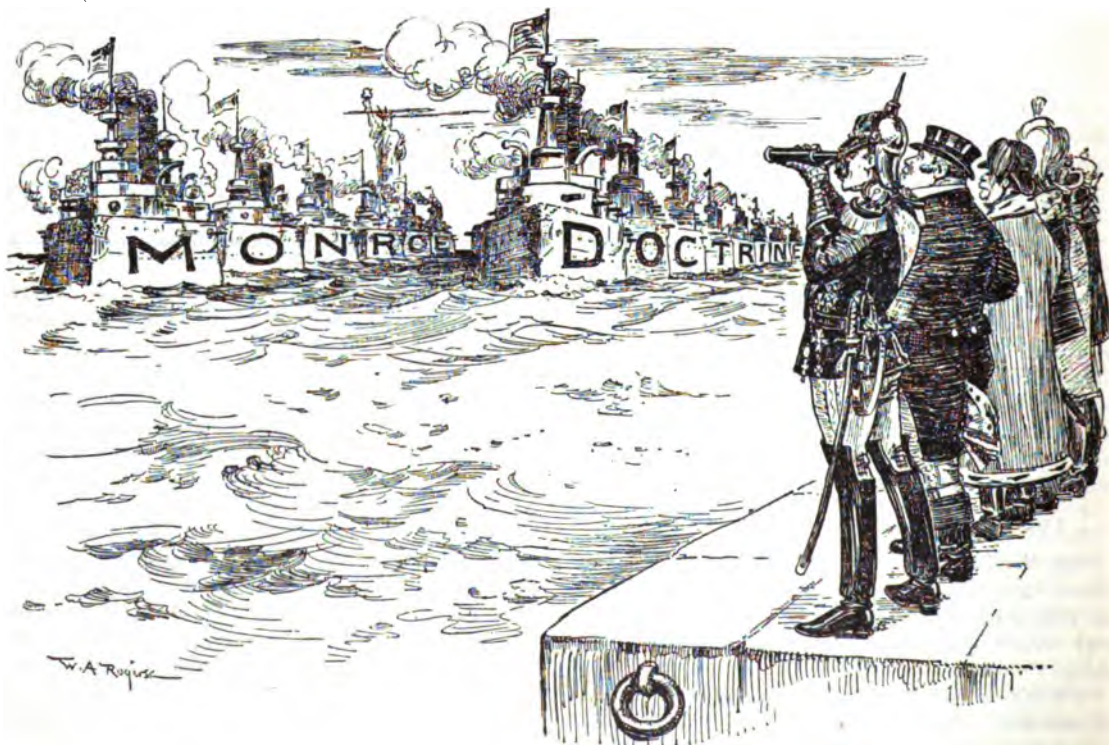
to a foreign government, directly or by guarantee, is a very different political condition to that of indebtedness contracted in open market to individuals. It is evident that a disputed boundary is a perennial source of danger; and of implicit threat where there is a great difference of strength. Such an ember might blow into a flame at a moment otherwise unpropitious for the United States to assert its traditional policy; just as the long-standing Transvaal trouble might very conceivably have been precipitated into war at a moment most inconvenient to Great Britain. As it was, her course in other quarters is believed to have been embarrassed by the South African War. It is the part of wisdom, and substantially of justice, to exclude such occasions of offense, or to insist upon timely settlement where they exist.

NO SHIRKING OF RESPONSIBILITY.

"Granting the military effect of the isthmus and Cuba upon the United States, it is clear that for them to contract relations of dependence upon a European power involves the United States at once in a net of secondary relations to the same power potential of very serious result. Why acquiesce in such? But the fundamental relations of international law, essential to the

intercourse of nations, are not hereby contradicted. National rights, which are summed up in the word independence, have as their correlative national responsibility. Not to invade the rights of an American state is to the United States an obligation with the force of law; to permit no European state to infringe them is a matter of policy; but as she will not acquiesce in any assault upon their independence or territorial integrity, so she will not countenance by her support any shirking of their international responsibility. Neither will she undertake to compel them to observe their international obligations to others than herself. To do so, which has been by some most inconsequently argued a necessary corollary of the Monroe Doctrine, would encroach on the very independence which that political dogma defends; for to assume the responsibility which derives from independence, and can only be transferred by its surrender, would be to assert a *quasi* suzerainty.

"The United States is inevitably the preponderant American power; but she does not aspire to be paramount. She does not find the true complement of the Monroe Doctrine in an undefined control over American states, exercised by her, and denied to Europe. Its correlative, as forcibly urged by John Quincy Adams at the



LET IT BE WRITTEN SO IT CAN BE READ.—From the *Herald* (New York).



A NARROW ESCAPE.—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

time of formulation, and since explicitly adopted by the national consciousness, is abstention from interference in questions territorially European. These, I conceive, embrace not only Europe proper, but regions also in which propinquity and continuity, or long recognized occupancy, give Europe a priority of interest and influence, resembling that which the Monroe policy asserts for America in the American continents and islands. In my apprehension, Europe, construed by the doctrine, would include Africa, with the Levant and India, and the countries between them. It would not include Japan, China, nor the Pacific generally. The United States might for very excellent reasons abstain from action in any of these last-named quarters, in any particular instance; but the deterrent cause would not be the Monroe Doctrine in legitimate deduction."

CONCERNING THE MASTERY OF THE SEA.

THE conditions underlying the mastery of the sea, which is coveted by England, Germany, and the United States, are discussed, from the German point of view, by Chief Naval Construction Councilor Schwarz in a recent issue of *Die Woche*, apropos of the Morgan shipping trust. This combination, Herr Schwarz says, has materially changed the status of the English and German carrying trade, placing the United States at once at the head of both the passenger and the freight traffic of the entire

sea. The companies merged in the trust, however, own ships of average speed only; the Cunard Line, that remains under British control, leads with the *Campania* and the *Lucania*, which have a record of twenty-two knots, while Germany still holds the blue ribbon for the fastest ocean greyhound; and the new *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, which will be put to sea this spring, will probably even surpass in speed the German steamers that now hold the record.

DANGERS TO ENGLAND ARISING FROM THE TRUST.

When the White Star Line was absorbed by the trust, Great Britain not only lost its most important medium of transatlantic passenger traffic, but was also in danger of being deprived of the use of the fast steamers of this line as auxiliary cruisers in the event of a war. The White Star Line is one of the few British transportation companies that on principle man their ships only with British crews, which naturally form valuable recruits for the English navy, under the name of the Royal Naval Reserve; whereas the crews of the English freight steamers and sailing vessels consist, with the exception of the officers, largely of foreign seamen, as Scandinavians, Germans, Dutch, and colored men, who ask less pay and are content with simpler fare.

As the fast ocean steamers are valuable training-schools for machinists and stokers, the writer says that English supremacy on the sea is endangered if England loses control of those

steamers, being thereby deprived of their well-trained crews as reserves for her navy. This consideration, he thinks, has led the government to enter into agreements both with the Cunard Line and the Morgan trust. The first agreement is, according to the president of the line, a mere business transaction, in conformity with which the company agrees to take certain measures for which it is to be remunerated by the government. But, says the writer, "this remuneration is so unusually high that it surpasses even the French ship subsidies and premiums, a sign that the ships of the Cunard Line also were in danger of being absorbed by the trust."

ENGLAND VERSUS THE UNITED STATES.

The question arises whether England may not finally have to give way to the energetic competition of the United States. Although the English navy is still unsurpassed as regards the number and size of its battleships and cruisers, and has, in addition, the most complete coaling stations, docks, and repair shops, yet its weak point lies in the manning of its navy.

As soon as Great Britain fails to train in its merchant marine a sufficient number of sailors and stokers, it will not be able to man its navy adequately without having recourse to general recruiting. "Naval warfare requires not only money, but also a well-drilled, experienced, and patriotic crew. The experience, coolness, and decision of the crew constitute a chief factor of victory in modern battleships, which are increasingly difficult to command, with their complicated machinery, and the noise and percussion of their great guns. Campaigns on land may be carried on with the aid of hirelings, but naval warfare requires stevedores and proved seamen, who serve, not for pay, but from a sense of duty. Hence, Great Britain will be obliged to take further important measures in order to be able to retain definitely her supremacy on the sea."

THE KINGS OF THE RAND.

IN the *Quarterly Review* for January there is published an article entitled "The Game of Speculation," which is a scathing exposure of the methods in which men are swindled on the London Stock Exchange, or in its related "bucket-shops." There are many interesting and suggestive facts and figures as to the extent to which worthless stocks were run up to high prices only to drop heavily in a few weeks. Sixteen of the leading West African gold mines, with a nominal capital of little over three millions, were inflated in a few weeks to twenty millions, and then dropped suddenly to seven

millions. Many West African mines realized scarcely as many shillings as they stood in pounds little more than a year ago. The writer passes in review many of the gambling stocks, and devotes several pages to the South African market. In South Africa, the lowest market quotations in 1901 represented an average falling off of 50 per cent. of the former nominal values. Prices were run up at the beginning of 1902, but after peace was declared they fell again so heavily that the total decline in five months in the market value of South African mining shares amounted to £50,000,000 sterling (\$250,000,000).

THE RAND COMPANIES.

The writer then gives the following information as to the companies which own the Rand:

"There are about 350 principal South African and Rhodesian companies, with a total capital of £124,598,000. Of these, 301 are mining, 36 are investment, and 13 are land and estate companies. Many of them have their head offices in Johannesburg, and therefore are not amenable to English law. Of the total number, three-tenths have never declared a dividend, six-tenths have paid nothing for three or more years, and the remaining tenth have paid, for the most part, 5 or 6 per cent., or have declared 'rights' in the form of new shares. Nearly all of them require additional capital before fully resuming work, or for purposes of future development. Out of the 350 companies, only 21 have a nominal capital of less than £100,000, while 102 range from that sum to £250,000 each, 186 from that to £500,000, and 56 from £500,000 to £1,000,000. There are 25 having more than £1,000,000, including such plethoric companies as De Beers, with £9,750,000; Randfontein, £3,000,000; Robinson Gold, £2,750,000; Simmer and Jack, £3,000,000; the Consolidated Gold Fields, £3,850,000; Henderson's, £2,000,000; 'Johnnies,' £2,750,000; Oceana Consolidated, £1,500,000; Robinson Bank, £3,000,000; Chartered, £6,250,000; Chartered Trust and Agency, £2,500,000; and Modderfontein, £1,200,000.

"There are ten or twelve controlling firms or companies in the South African market. Some of them have extensive joint interests in certain properties, so that, in their combined capacity, they can at any moment make or mar the market. Complete lists of their numerous enterprises were given in the *Citizen* of June 7, 1902, and in the *Statist* of July 5, 1902. Upwards of 200 companies are thus comprised, with an issued capital of £98,000,000. This vast sum was swollen by the high premiums at which the shares were usually placed on the market, or during the craze of 1895."

THE CAREER OF THE TOBACCO TRUST.

THERE is a good account of the extraordinary growth of the tobacco trust by Earl Mayo in the March *Frank Leslie's*. Mr. Mayo thinks the achievement of Mr. James B. Duke, the head of the tobacco combination, in bringing the bitterly antagonistic competing firms together was in some respects even greater than Mr. John D. Rockefeller's in founding the Standard Oil Company, because the latter had the advantage of starting his plans in the infancy of the industry. No trust except the Standard Oil Company exercises so complete a monopoly as the tobacco combination. Like Mr. Rockefeller, Mr. Duke's start toward his present imperial position in the tobacco trade was made from very small beginnings, and the Duke firm's entire output could be carried in a handbag in 1865.

After the Philadelphia Centennial, the growth of cigarette manufacture in the United States was very rapid, and by 1890 had grown to a product of two billion a year. W. Duke & Sons were one of the largest manufacturers, but there were half a dozen struggling neck-and-neck for supremacy. The most lavish advertising and premium schemes were used. "At one time the competition had reached a point where a coupon, a colored reproduction of a photograph, and a card bearing a representation of a flag, done in colors, were all given away with a five-cent box of cigarettes." Notwithstanding the bitterness of the antagonism, Mr. Duke succeeded, in 1890, in forming the American Tobacco Company, and brought into it all the large rival concerns. From cigarette manufacture, Mr. Duke went on to capture, by the hardest fighting imaginable, the pipe-tobacco and chewing-tobacco markets. In establishing the fame of the "Battle-Ax" brand of chewing tobacco, \$4,000,000 was sunk, but since then \$12,000,000 has been earned.

To-day, there are two great manufacturing corporations, the American Tobacco Company and the Continental Tobacco Company, the first making cigarettes, the second plug tobacco, and dividing the pipe tobacco between them. A subsidiary company, the American Snuff Company, makes 15,000,000 pounds of snuff a year.

THE TOBACCO WAR IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Mr. Mayo describes the Homeric battle in England of the American Tobacco interests, led by Mr. Duke, against the Imperial Tobacco Company, composed of the leading British houses, hastily organized to repel the American invader. This fight culminated in Mr. Duke's offer to give to the retail dealers all the profits of his company for four years and \$4,000,000 be-

sides, without even exacting that the dealers should refuse to handle his rival's wares. Immediately after this curious proposal, the American and British interests "got together," and there was much jubilation in England over the defeat of the invader; but Mr. Mayo says that the net result of the agreement was that the Imperial Company surrendered the entire foreign market to the Americans and gave them an interest in its own business as the price of peace.

THE RETAIL TRADE.

Finally, the great combinations under Mr. Duke had got practical mastery of the manufacture of tobacco in all its forms. Now people are asking themselves if the trust is determined to be its own retailer as well, because an ominous new concern, the United Cigar Stores Company, has appeared on the horizon. No less than \$500,000,000 worth of tobacco is sold every year, a trade prize worth working for. The Cigar Stores Company has started four hundred stores in the best locations, and is constantly expanding. The officials say they have nothing to do with the tobacco trust, and that they are simply trying to bring the business of cigar and tobacco selling to an orderly and economical basis. But the retail dealers are sure the trust is trying to swallow them through this new mouth. Where the retail dealer will not be bought out, one is apt to see a magnificent shop of the United Cigar Stores Company opened up next door. If sumptuous fittings do not capture the trade, the big store may sell some favorite brand of fifteen-cent cigar for six cents apiece, and these tactics, of course, will soon see the small dealer's end.

THE CONQUEST OF THE AIR.

TO the second January number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. de Fonvielle contributes an interesting paper on the disasters which have happened to various aeronauts, and also on the progress which has nevertheless been made concerning the conquest of the air. He explains at great length the difficulties which confront any one who tries to photograph objects on the earth from any considerable height in a balloon. This is a matter which has long occupied the attention of the French ministry of war, and it is easy to see how essential it might be, in the course of a campaign, to obtain a negative which would be sufficiently large to enable men, horses, guns, etc., to be clearly discerned, without relying upon any subsequent enlargement, for which there would be probably no time. Apparently, the clouds floating below a

balloon always intervene in the most annoying manner, and insist upon being photographed in place of the more interesting surface of the earth.

AN ENTHUSIASTIC AÉRONAUT.

M. de Fonvielle says that he has made so many ascents that he forgets the exact number; but never, except perhaps on one occasion, did he attempt to decide, before starting, on the place where he intended to alight. Indeed, as he says himself, as a rule, all that he asked of Æolus was not to drop him down into the empire of Neptune! Both the experiments and the tragic fate of Severo naturally interested him profoundly. His enthusiasm for the magnificent sights which are unrolled before the aéronaut in the upper regions of the air reaches quite a lyrical pitch, and we even find him regretting that Victor Hugo never went up in a balloon. Certainly, this idea suggests a new method of furnishing our popular novelists with some amount of imagination.

To M. de Fonvielle, aerial navigation has become a physical necessity; and he finds that if he goes for some time without his air cure, as he calls it, he becomes languid and nervous. He greatly regrets that the attention of French inventors has been so exclusively concentrated on the construction of steerable balloons, to the exclusion of artistic, scientific, and sporting aéronautics; and he looks forward to the time when the establishment of a really scientific meteorology will enable us to make use of the wind, and to travel by its aid. This, he says, would be preferable to inventing machines which are designed to overcome the wind's powerful resistance. Nevertheless, he pays a warm tribute to M. Santos-Dumont, and considers that the world owes him a larger debt of gratitude than it is now willing to admit.

TWO WAYS OF BORING THE ALPS.

THE longest tunnel in the world, the St. Simplon tunnel, is the subject of an admirable sketch by Mr. H. G. Archer in *Cassell's Magazine*. When open for traffic in May, 1904, it will be 12½ miles long, the St. Gothard being 9¾, the Mont Cenis 7¾, and the Arlberg 6½. Perhaps the most pleasing feature in the sketch is the witness it bears to the vastly greater care taken of the workmen in this than in any of the preceding bores. Strange to say, one of the most formidable dangers to the health of the navvies is the intense heat of the tunnel, the temperature having risen as high as 123 degrees Fahrenheit. A valuable illustration of the progress of civilization is supplied by the contrast

which Mr. Archer draws between the arrangements at St. Simplon and the arrangements at St. Gothard:

THE INHUMAN.

"At the latter, the workmen were miserably housed in wretched wooden shanties. Professors described the tunnel itself as a veritable hell, continuous labor in its pestiferous atmosphere being almost certain death for the young. Owing to the air, vitiated by the perpetual explosion of dynamite, the smoke from hundreds of reeking oil lamps, and the exhalations from the bodies of men and horses, being insufficiently renewed, together with the entire absence of sanitary appliances, 80 per cent. of the miners suffered from a form of trichinosis consisting of microscopic worms in the intestines. During the eight years the tunnel took to make, no less than four hundred lives were lost, either from 'tunnel worm' or from pneumonia, the latter originating through the sudden change from the hot galleries to the cool Alpine atmosphere outside, while another two hundred were killed or maimed by explosions and passing trucks.

THE HUMANE.

"Things were managed better at the Arlberg, but it has been reserved for the Simplon direct-orate to inaugurate, with their refinements, a new era in the history of social science. To obviate the risk of pneumonia, large dressing-halls are provided at either entrance. On emerging from the galleries, the men are compelled to enter these halls, which are ready-heated for their reception at the temperature which they have just left, and to stay therein for half an hour while the temperature is gradually cooled down to that prevailing outside. The men are conveyed into and out of the tunnel in train-loads, and the space between the tunnel exits and the platforms where they alight is roofed over and boarded in, so that no chill may be contracted on this short portion of the journey. The halls are equipped with baths, hot and cold douches, etc., and here the men take off their mining clothes, which are at once hung up in heated rooms to dry, ready for the next day's work. Adjacent are canteens, under official control, and selling nothing but the best food and liquor at nominal prices. Excellent hospitals have been provided, in case of accident or illness; and, lastly, in order to minimize the risks of accident inside the tunnel, the trains are run by time-table and protected by signals, while the narrow-gauge contractors' track is laid at one side, thus leaving plenty of room for pedestrians."

"MOTORING" AT NINETY MILES AN HOUR.

IN the *Badminton Magazine*, Charles Jarrott describes how he won the Ardennes automobile race. To do this he had to cover 321 miles in 353 minutes, along fifty-three miles of road literally filled with ninety other cars. The danger was very great, from the high speed at which the cars traveled, and most of all from the dust raised all along the route. Mr. Jarrott says:

"In the open stretches, where the wind was able to take effect on the dust, the road was clearer; but in the pine forests, where the dust was unable to escape, the air was more like a November fog in London than anything else I can describe. It was of no use slackening speed, however, and on and on we went, with no other means of knowing we were on the road than an occasional glimpse of the tree-tops on either side.

"The trouble of passing other cars was a very apparent one. The hooter was quite useless, human lungs soon gave way, and the only thing left to do was to watch for a favorable piece of road, take the opportunity, and rush by. That troubles were being experienced by other competitors we could see, as evidenced by the state of their cars, many of which were completely smashed up on various parts of the course."

Mr. Jarrott made two stoppages to replenish his supply of petrol and water, and on one of these occasions lost seven minutes. Starting No. 32, there being a two-minutes' interval between the starting of each car, he nevertheless finished first of all the competitors on his 70 horse-power Panhard. His most exciting experience he describes as follows:

"It was soon after this that I caught up Mr. W. K. Vanderbilt, Jr., and then came some of the best racing I have ever enjoyed. With the two cars going wonderfully well, both of us taking all legitimate (and a good many illegitimate) risks, neither of us able to gain an advantage over the other, for over ninety kilometers we ran wheel and wheel; but I eventually succeeded in getting by at the corner at Longlier."

His sensations during the race are also given:

"Many times have I been asked the question as to what incidents I met with during this race. Beyond the one or two I have mentioned, it is quite impossible to remember any. If one were able to recall at the moment each episode as it occurred, it would probably in itself make a complete little story. The passing in the dust of each individual car is an exciting business in itself; but, having once got by, it is lost to memory, the one idea being to keep on faster and faster till the next car is passed, and so on until the end."

HOW THE TROLLEY COMPETES WITH THE STEAM RAILROAD.

IT is one of those many facts "not generally known" that the number of passengers carried on American steam railroads is less to-day by over twelve millions than it was seven years ago, notwithstanding the remarkable prosperity of the country. An explanation of this apparent paradox is supplied by the rapid growth of the trolley. At least, that is the hypothesis adopted by Mr. Samuel E. Moffett, writing in *McClure's* for March, and the data embodied in his article seem to justify his position.

Commenting on the falling off in steam passenger traffic and on the accompanying increase in the average passenger haul, Mr. Moffett says:

"Of course, people are not really traveling less frequently than they used to, nor are they journeying longer distances. More passengers by hundreds of millions are traveling than ever before, but the steam railroads are not carrying the increase. The growth in the length of the average passenger haul on those roads means that they are steadily losing the short-haul business, which a younger and more vigorous rival is claiming for its own.

A RIVAL OF THE LOCOMOTIVE.

"Inch by inch, the field is contested, and slowly, sullenly, the locomotive is giving way before the insistent trolley. A dozen years ago, it was only the car horse and the cable in the towns that were threatened by electric traction. Then the trolley poked an inquiring tentacle over the city limits into the suburbs. The results were satisfactory, and swiftly the electric lines flung their spider filaments from town to town, until now great sections of the country are cobwebbed with them. The trolley map of eastern Massachusetts looks as complete as the steam-railroad map. If you have a little time to spare, you can go on an electric car to almost any part of southern New England that you could reach by a locomotive, and to a good many parts that you could not.

"In Massachusetts, last year, four times as many passengers were carried by electric cars as on the steam roads. Of course, that was due chiefly to the dense city traffic; but still, the city street-car systems were pretty complete seven years ago, and the trolley passenger business has doubled since that time, while the steam passenger business has actually declined. The electric mileage of the State has increased from 9 to 18 per cent. every year since 1894. In 1901, the increase was 242.7 miles. In the same year, the length of steam lines was reduced by 1.39 miles.

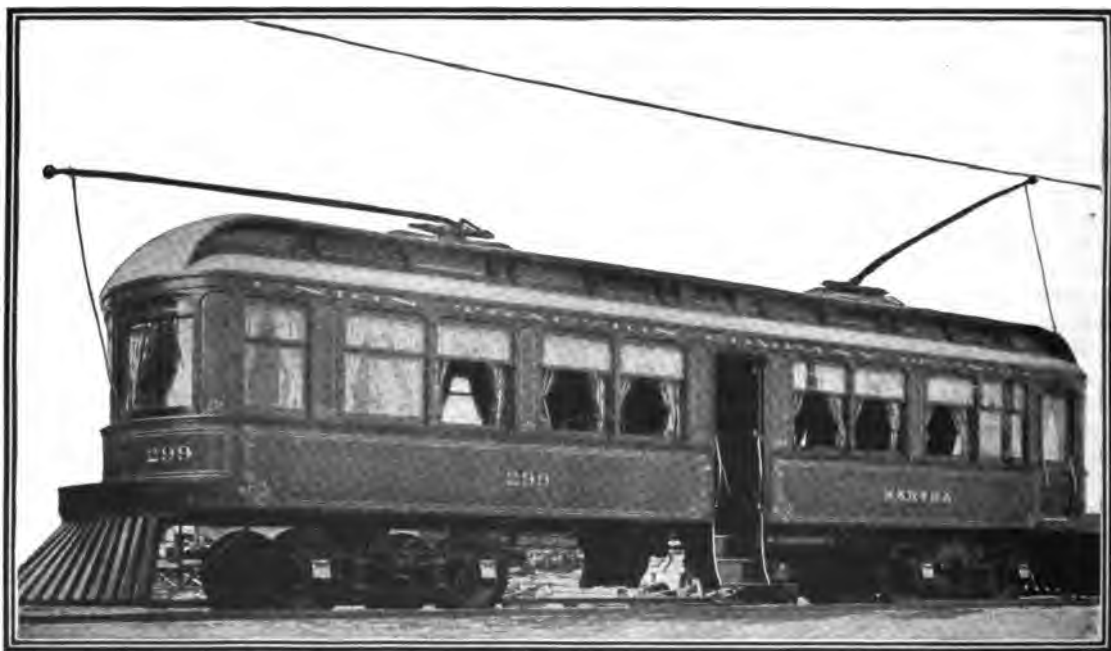
"In Connecticut, where there are no very large cities to inflate the trolley figures, and where one great steam-railroad system is supposed to be the feudal proprietor of the entire State, there were 20 per cent. more passengers on the electric lines in 1900 than on the steam roads. And that is the way the tide is running everywhere.

"In its early development, the trolley had four advantages. It could run separate cars at frequent intervals; it could take on and let off passengers anywhere along the road; it could take people near their homes and offices, and it could pay a profit at nominal fares. Per contra, it had the disadvantage of less than railroad speed, not because there was any difficulty in making an electric car that could go as fast as a locomotive, but because the trolley track, as a rule, was laid on the surface of the public highway, crossed all intersecting roads at grade, and was a thoroughfare for vehicles, pedestrians, and domestic fauna. These characteristics still prevail over most of the electric mileage of the country, but as the trolley lines have grown longer and the need for sustained high speed has become more urgent, the tendency has developed to build the roads on private rights of way and to operate them by steam-railroad methods.

MODERN OPERATING METHODS AND HIGH SPEED.

"Go, for instance, to Indianapolis, and take a spin of fifty-three miles to Muncie over the lines

of the Union Traction Company. You do not have to calculate your train time by a nautical almanac. You can go at any hour of the day. You will travel in a car as large and heavy as a standard railway coach, over a track built almost entirely upon the company's own ground. It will take you two hours to make the run on an express car, or two and a quarter on a car making all stops, but of that twenty-five minutes are lost within the city limits of Indianapolis, where the through cars have to accommodate themselves to urban traffic on the local tracks. The fastest limited express train on the parallel line of the Big Four covers the same distance in one hour and thirteen minutes. The local trains take ten minutes less than two hours. The electric cars cover part of their schedule at the rate of a mile a minute. Each car is driven by motors of three hundred horse-power. Imagine three hundred horses galloping in a procession a quarter of a mile long, with a street car trailing along behind, and you can begin to realize a little of the meaning of the electric revolution. To keep this power under control, there are air brakes, with independent motor compressors. The track over which you skim on this Indiana road is as well graded, as solidly constructed, and as thoroughly ballasted as the Pennsylvania Railway. Instead of a 'starter' to turn the cars loose and leave their subsequent fate to Providence, there is a regular train-dispatcher, who keeps watch of every one as carefully as if it



PARLOR AND SLEEPING CAR, UNION TRACTION COMPANY OF INDIANA.



ELECTRIC ENGINE, TOLEDO & WESTERN RAILROAD.

(Thirty-five tons; built in company's shops.)

were the Empire State Express. Only, instead of sending his orders by telegraph, he uses the telephone. At every switch, the wires come down to a box, from which instantaneous connection can be made with an instrument at the motorman's elbow. There is no ringing up Central. The train-dispatcher is always at the other end of the wire, and a simple 'Hello' will get his attention.

"This is a fair example of the modern inter-urban roads in actual operation to-day. On the Buffalo & Lockport line, the present cars go, in places, at the rate of fifty miles an hour, with an average outside of Buffalo of thirty-three miles; but the General Electric Company has submitted estimates for machinery to develop a schedule speed of seventy-five miles an hour. If that rate could be kept up, it would carry you from New York to San Francisco in less than two days. If a track were laid around the world on the eighty-fifth parallel of latitude, a car going at that velocity from east to west would keep up with the earth's rotation and beat Joshua's miracle by holding the sun in one place all summer."

THE TROLLEY AS A FREIGHT-CARRIER.

The development of the trolley freight business is also outlined in Mr. Moffett's article. The managers of many of the trolley lines that have made a specialty of carrying freight seem to have made it a point to look after the interests of patrons in every way possible.

"The electric freight service is as flexible as an elephant's trunk, and as adept in picking up little things. It grows rich off the crumbs of business that a steam road would despise. It is always ready to go out of its way to accommodate the special needs of its patrons. The lemon-growers along the Los Angeles Pacific Railroad,

which runs its trolley freight, passenger, and mail cars between Los Angeles and Santa Monica, found that their fruit was suffering from the roughness of the trip. They stated their grievance, and the result is the 'Lemon-Growers' Express,' which carries the delicate spheroids to market as gently as in a baby's cradle."

Another instance:

"There is no troublesome red tape about the trolley freight system. The Cleveland & Eastern Railway, for instance, handles milk on its forty-mile line at a uniform rate of two cents per gallon for any distance. The farmer buys packages of tickets at that rate. When his milk is shipped it pays its fare like a passenger. A twenty-cent ticket is handed to the conductor for each ten-gallon can. The conductor punches the tickets, and passes them on to the office. The company returns the empty cans free."

THE SOUTH AND THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

PRIOR to the Civil War, Southern Democrats had a preponderating influence in the leadership of the Democratic party, and through that leadership in the direction of national policy at Washington. That influence has largely disappeared, but the fact that the South, with the border States, still sends one-third of the delegates to every national Democratic convention has caused more than one Southern Democrat of the present day to raise the question, Why does not the South regain her old-time supremacy in the party councils? As a sort of exhortation to the leaders of the Democratic party in the South to unite on a platform of principles likely to command the assent of Northern Democrats, Mr. Thomas F. Ryan contributes to the *North American Review* for February a noteworthy article on "The Political Opportunity of the South."

That this appeal is really addressed to the gold-standard element of the party is made evident in the following extracts:

"In determining what shall be the policy of the next Democratic National Convention, the action of the South will be almost decisive, if the conservative men of that section exert themselves to resume their old influence in the party. It is high time that the Democrats of the South realized that they have nothing to gain by coquetting with Populism, or by following vagaries which have excited the distrust of conservative and thoughtful men everywhere, and which, during the last six years, have too often united against the Democratic party all who had a dollar to lose by the debasement of the metallic standard, or whose success was to be sought by the

exertion of their hands or brains. The Democratic party won its repeated victories from 1800 to 1860, and its victories of 1876, 1884, and 1892, because it advocated those conservative policies which lay at the foundation of party doctrine in the time of Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, and which inspired in the country the conviction that a Democratic administration meant strict adherence to the Constitution, careful economy in public expenditures, and the administration of laws regarding taxation and privilege which would conform most nearly to the theory of equal rights and privileges for all and the greatest good to the greatest number. Among those policies, a return to which at the present time would bring strength to the party, these may be enumerated :

"1. A moderate tariff for revenue, without prejudice to domestic industries.

"2. A sound currency.

"3. Moderation in public expenditures.

"4. The restriction of the federal government to its legitimate functions, and opposition to the further extension of its powers over the acts and industries of the people of the States."

On the question of the tariff, Mr. Ryan has no more radical a proposition to make than this,—that the Democratic policy "should have due regard to the reasonable needs of American manufactures, but should not prostitute Congress to the contemptible part of acting as the pliant tool of special interests." The question of absolute free trade, in this writer's opinion, may be eliminated. No Democratic Congress, he says, will ever "wipe out protection, or reduce it upon highly finished products below a reasonable protective point."

DEMOCRATS AS DEFENDERS OF THE GOLD STANDARD.

What Mr. Ryan has to say about the currency is more interesting, because more at variance with recent official Democratic utterances. He begins with a rehearsal of the party's record on the money question while in power :

"The Democratic party was the first champion of the gold standard in the United States, and its leaders have been among the foremost in advocating an intelligent reform of the bank-note currency. When the gold standard first became law in 1834, it was largely by the efforts of Thomas Benton and Andrew Jackson, both Southern men, one of whom earned the epithet of 'Old Bullion' by his firm devotion to that standard. At a later date, after the country had been plunged into the abyss of depreciated paper, against the advice of the conservative bankers of New York, and when faltering steps were being taken to restore gold payments, it

was Southern men, like Bayard of Delaware, Hill of Georgia, Lamar of Mississippi, and Garland of Arkansas, who lent their votes in critical emergencies in support of the return to specie payments and sound money and in saving the Republican party in Congress from its own worst elements.

"It is needless to recite the history of the resolute fight made by the last two Democratic administrations for the gold standard and against the debasement of the currency. While Democratic Secretaries of the Treasury, like Daniel Manning, Charles S. Fairchild, and John G. Carlisle, were struggling to counteract the effects of Republican silver legislation, Republican Presidents, Secretaries, and Senators were denouncing their action and sending roving bimetallic commissions abroad to demonstrate their desire to make new concessions to the enemies of the gold standard. It is the testimony of John Sherman that the silver law of 1890 was passed because a Republican President could not be counted upon to veto a free-coinage bill. How different the record of the Democratic President who followed, who was willing to sacrifice his party, if need be, to the preservation of the gold standard and the maintenance of the national honor! Both Presidents followed the historic precedents of their parties,—the Republican, in looking to government interference with monetary laws as a means of creating value; the Democrat, in looking to the bullion in the coin as the test of value, which law might recognize but could not alter."

As a practical currency measure of urgent importance, especially to the agricultural regions of the South, Mr. Ryan cites the bank-note reform scheme advocated by Secretary Carlisle and by his Republican successors, but not yet enacted into law by a Republican Congress.

ADMINISTRATIVE ECONOMY.

Another Democratic virtue of the past in which Mr. Ryan glories is that of frugality in the conduct of the Government :

"Moderation in public expenditures has been one of the historic policies of the Democratic party. If there has ever been a tendency to carry economy too far, it has been more than counterbalanced by Republican extravagance, and is an error which is too rare in the administration of modern governments. The ordinary expenditures of the United States have increased \$260,226,935 or \$4.63 *per capita* for 1885, to \$487,713,791 or \$6.39 *per capita* for 1900, and \$509,967,353 or \$6.56 *per capita* for 1901. A part of this great increase has, no doubt, been occasioned by the growth of the

country and by the new classes of functions imposed by Republican legislation upon the federal government: but the question whether these new expenditures are justified goes deeper than the mere salary roll of a new bureau, and touches the vital Democratic doctrine whether these new functions ought in any case to be imposed upon the federal government. Upon this issue of economy and the strict scrutiny of public expenditures, Mr. Tilden achieved his victory of 1876, and Mr. Cleveland commended himself to the confidence of the Democrats of New York and the nation. The South, which profits only in a limited degree by the wealth arising from new inventions, railway extension, and the economies in production obtained by improved industrial management, is less disposed, perhaps, than the North to witness with patience the lavishing of the money raised by taxation upon objects of doubtful utility or beyond the legitimate scope of federal action."

AGAINST FEDERAL INTERFERENCE.

The rest of the article is mainly a protest against the undue extension of the powers of the federal government which is threatened by the anti-trust legislation now before Congress. Mr. Ryan dwells upon "the vital Democratic principle," that there shall be the least possible interference by the state with private rights, and that the citizen shall be free under equal laws to seek and welcome opportunity whenever it is found.

"The fundamental policy of the Democratic party is the policy of industrial freedom. This policy, heretofore respected by all parties within our own broad limits, if not in our relations with other peoples, is now threatened by the application of the nostrums which handicap the industry of Germany, France, and Russia. The ball and chain of government interference with manufactures, with the Bourse, and with exchanges, which they are compelled to drag along in the unequal race with America, it is now proposed that we shall fasten upon our own free limbs, in order that our industries may not reduce the cost of their products to too low a point, and may not reap too rich a reward for their economy and efficiency!

"Against these new follies of budding state-socialism, the Democratic party of the Union can afford to array itself with unflinching faith, and in such a movement the Democrats of the South should be the leaders. Such an attitude would be in harmony with the Democratic faith of the past; it would be in harmony with the best aspirations of the Democracy for the future. Upon the subject of the tariff, freedom from

undue favors to special interests; upon the currency, freedom for the use of credit in all forms which are useful to industry, without any further regulation than public safety and convenience require; upon public expenditures, freedom from waste and excessive taxation; upon the regulation of corporations, freedom from special favors and from any interference except such as is necessary to the maintenance of equal opportunity for all under equal laws,—these doctrines, adapted to present conditions, are in harmony in each case with the fundamental teachings of the fathers of Democracy; they are in harmony with the interests of the South; and, what is more, they are in harmony with the true interests of the nation, and the continuance of its progress in the paths marked out by the founders of the Republic and the framers of the Constitution."

A CORPORATION LAWYER OF THE NEW TYPE.

THE specialist in corporation law is now a force to be reckoned with at the bar of most of our great cities; but it is not so many years since the type was evolved. Indeed, there are men still on the sunny side of fifty who have seen the entire development of this particular



MR. JAMES B. DILL.

branch of legal practice since they left the law school, and this remark applies to the most prominent and best paid of all the latter-day corporation lawyers,—Mr. James B. Dill, of New

York. In the *March Cosmopolitan*, Mr. Dill is sketched by Mr. William J. Boies in the series of "Captains of Industry," and assuredly the title fits a man who has played so important a part in the organization of modern industrial enterprises.

The newspapers have told about the big fees that Mr. Dill receives from corporations, but they have usually neglected to tell how he paved the way for this success twenty years ago, soon after entering the profession, when by hard work he mastered the intricacies of corporation law and made himself an authority that the biggest of the corporations have been eager to consult in perfecting their organization. The man who made himself so useful in putting these concerns on their feet was found equally valuable in later years when other difficulties had to be faced by these same corporations. He has always proved to be the man for the emergency, and has earned a reputation, Mr. Boies says, for "hustle, grit, and shrewdness."

THE TELEPHONE AND THE AUTOMOBILE AS AUXILIARIES.

One incident related by Mr. Boies throws light on the kind of "hustle" that characterizes Mr. Dill's methods. A banking syndicate three hundred miles from New York suddenly found itself in a legal predicament that required immediate action. It was 9 o'clock at night, and it was decided to call up Mr. Dill on the long-distance telephone and ask for an opinion. Mr. Dill was at his East Orange, N. J., home.

This is what the bank people said :

"We want your opinion on such a provision [naming it] of the corporation law. We are divided here as to what ought to be done, but must reach a decision and act on it by nine o'clock to-morrow morning. I will briefly give you the facts over the telephone, and you must send us a written opinion, stating whether, in the first place, what we propose to do is covered by the provision in question ; second, if we do this, whether we can be enjoined ; and, third, if we are enjoined, whether we will be beaten in the fight."

"You shall have it. My man will be at your office with the document at nine o'clock to-morrow morning. Don't give yourself any anxiety, and don't ask for any more miracles to-night."

"But how will you do it ? It is nearly ten o'clock now."

"If I take time in discussing 'how,' you will not obtain the result. Give me the facts."

Mr. Dill got them, and said "Good-bye."

With that, the long-distance circuit was closed, and the local telephone came into use. A gen-

tleman who was at Mr. Dill's house at the time gives this account of what happened :

"The manager of the automobile station was hurriedly called up, and Mr. Dill said, quickly : 'Send up my two machines with a man on each, and see that they are supplied with plenty of gasoline for long-distance work.'"

"In two minutes the familiar 'chug, chug' was heard under Mr. Dill's library windows. One machine procured a stenographer, and the other conveyed a brief message to a clerk, stating that he must get ready to leave for the city at once. The stenographer's hands were soon going like the piston-rod of a steam-engine in the effort to jot down the short, pointed sentences.

"The opinion was finished just sixteen minutes before the New York train was scheduled to leave a station four miles from Mr. Dill's house. The automobile, with the clerk aboard, covered the distance in thirteen minutes, breaking every speed-limit ordinance known to New Jersey constables in the effort to catch that train. Another automobile was telephoned for to meet the clerk at the New York end, and when the machine got under way scarcely twenty minutes remained in which to cross the city to the Grand Central Station. The trip was made with eight minutes to spare."

The clerk caught the midnight express, delivering the opinion on time the next day. The document was immediately submitted to the opposing attorney, who on reading it abandoned the injunctory proceedings altogether.

SVEN HEDIN, THE GREAT SWEDISH EXPLORER.

THE last century has produced two great Scandinavian explorers—Nansen and Sven Hedin. Of the latter, there is an interesting description in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January :

"From boyhood he showed that his natural bent lay in the direction of geographical discovery. When only fifteen or sixteen, he made a series of maps to illustrate the path of every explorer of the Arctic regions, and the drawing and execution of these maps were extremely good. Later on, he pursued a course of geographical literature, and finally completed his studies at Berlin under Baron von Richthofen. In 1887, he wrote an account of his experiences in traveling through Trans-Caucasia to Persia, Mesopotamia, and home by Turkey and Bulgaria. In 1890, he was sent by King Oscar on a mission to the Shah, and published next year an account of his journey. In 1891, he translated into Swedish

General Prjevalsky's travels in northern Asia. In the following year, he published an account of his travels in eastern Persia and through Bokhara to Kashgar, with many clever sketches by himself, as he is an accomplished draughtsman. All this was an excellent training for the infinitely more arduous journeys he was about to undertake. In February, 1894, with twelve horses and four men, Dr. Hedin began a dangerous journey across the Pamirs from Tashkend to Kashgar, in eastern Turkestan."

One great object of this expedition was to explore the glaciers of the mountain Mushtaghata, some 25,500 feet high.

"After spending the winter in Kashgar, in February, 1895, Dr. Hedin started eastward to explore the Takla-makan desert, in the hopes of finding traces of ancient civilization, and then intended to penetrate into Tibet. Unfortunately, this journey turned out disastrously, and it was almost by a miracle that the hardy traveler escaped with his life."

In December, 1895, he left Kashgar and traversed the Takla-makan desert, being the first European to venture across it. He then made Khotan his headquarters.

"Great preparations were here made before crossing the great Kuenlun range and thence by way of Koko-nor to Peking. An idea of the hardship undergone during this long march may be gained by the fact that out of fifty-six baggage animals, no less than forty-nine died on the road. Where pasture was scarce or wanting, they died at the rate of one or two a day. The Kuenlun was crossed by a pass about 16,000 feet above the sea, and a range more to the south was traversed by a new pass 17,000 feet high. For two whole months the party wandered across the plateau of Tibet without seeing a single living being, and the caravan had dwindled to an alarming extent.

"In January, 1897, Dr. Hedin reached Peking, and there enjoyed a well-earned repose before returning to his native country. Between 1899 and 1902, Dr. Hedin explored the Tarim River from near Yarkand to its lower extremity, and has mapped it in about one hundred sheets. This survey included a part of the desert of Gobi that had never been visited before. The first expedition to Tibet was made in the latter half of 1900. A large part of the caravan and one man perished under the incredible hardships undergone while traversing this inhospitable and lofty region, destitute of all vegetation. The longest journey through Tibet was begun in May, 1901. Two attempts to enter Lhasa proved unsuccessful owing to the hostility of the Lamas."

A FRENCH PHILANTHROPIST.

EACH nation has its great philanthropists. In the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, there is given an interesting account of a remarkable Frenchman, Augustus Cochin, the most actively beneficent of that wonderful group of liberal Roman Catholics, which included Lacordaire. Cochin was born in 1824, and died in 1872; yet during this comparatively short life he accomplished an immense amount of good, and had a very real influence on his generation. He was only nineteen when he founded his first workman's club, which was at the same time a mutual aid society.

In order to carry out his scheme for the amelioration of the working classes, he entered political life, and became mayor of one of the most populous districts of Paris. With extraordinary energy, he threw himself into the difficult question of the housing of the working classes. He started an insurance society, and last, not least, he compelled the government to open a post-office savings-bank. He was evidently one of those idealists who are capable of causing their ideals to come true. Not content in taking so active a part in benefiting the Paris worker of all classes and conditions, he organized several great purely charitable centers. In 1855, he found the funds which enabled the Little Sisters of the Poor to open a home for one hundred and eighty destitute old men and women. Three years later, he organized the first home for incurables in Paris. Thanks to his efforts, the first country convalescent home ever opened in France was built in the neighborhood of Paris, and every Friday he was himself at home to all those, from the very poorest beggars, who desired to ask his help.

Concerning these cases, observes his son, he preserved an absolute silence, and, further, he never allowed his name to be directly associated with any of his innumerable good works. There is something very sad in the thought that Cochin died just after the Franco-Prussian War, and before his beloved country had recovered from the terrible moments through which she had just passed.

THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF AUSTRALIA.

THE present governor-general of Australia is the second Lord Tennyson, son of the poet. An interesting article is contributed to the *Woman at Home* by a writer signing herself "Ignota" on the life of Lord Tennyson. His famous father wrote of him: "Kindest and best of sons and most unselfish of men." One of Lord Tennyson's greatest obstacles in the path to greatness, as well as one of his great assist-

ances, has been that he is known rather as the son of his famous father than for his own work.

"The new governor-general of the Australian Commonwealth had an exceptionally good training, from childhood upward, for the not very easy task which lies before him. He has known, and been intimately associated with, many of the great thinkers and workers of our time, from Queen Victoria—who had for him both affection and esteem—to General Gordon.

"The story goes that on the occasion of the christening the historian remarked, 'Why not give the child your own name as well as mine? Why not call him Alfred Hallam Tennyson?' 'For fear,' said the deep-voiced bard,—'for fear he should turn out a fool! Let his name be Hallam only.'"

Educated at Marlborough and at Cambridge, Hallam Tennyson filled for many years the difficult post of private secretary to his father. He follows in his father's footsteps, and writes poetry. Perhaps in the future more of his work may be published.

HIS OFFICIAL CAREER.

The four years following the death of the poet-laureate were occupied in the preparation of his biography by his son. After this appeared, Lord Tennyson was quietly fitting himself for future official duties, and in 1899 received the appointment to the governorship of South Australia. At first, the South Australians regarded him with reserve, but after his arrival he soon won his way to the hearts of the majority. The fact that he allowed himself to be interviewed for Sir John Langdon Bonython's well-known paper, the *Advertiser*, did much to reassure the colonists as to the nature of their new governor.

On the retirement of the first governor-general, Lord Hopetoun, Lord Tennyson accepted the post for one year. Since he was one of the hardest workers for federation, it is only fitting that he should receive this honor.

THE NEW PRIMATE OF ENGLAND.

CANON BENHAM contributes to the *Treasury* for February some reminiscences of Dr. Randall Davidson, the new Archbishop of Canterbury. Canon Benham says that Davidson is a very good scholar and a very well-read man. He had a terrible accident in the latter part of his university career which laid him by for many weeks, and prevented him going in for honors. His old master, Vaughan, of Harrow, felt confident that, but for that accident, he would have distinguished himself greatly.

ONE OF VAUGHAN'S MEN.

When preparing for Holy Orders, he was one of "Vaughan's men," and put himself under the moral guidance and finished scholarship of the Dean of Llandaff. As Canon Benham preached the sermon when Dr. Davidson was ordained in Croydon Church, in 1875, he has known him for a quarter of a century. Dr. Davidson became curate of Dartford after his ordination. Two years later, he became resident chaplain to Archbishop Tait, where he fell in love with Edith, the archbishop's daughter, and married her on November 12, 1878. His business capacity was tested when, as resident chaplain, he had to organize a conference of English, colonial, and American bishops at Canterbury. His honeymoon was interrupted by the death of his mother-in-law, who died three weeks after they were married. For four years he became the right-hand man of the widowed archbishop; he was not only chaplain and secretary, but the confidential adviser of the primate.

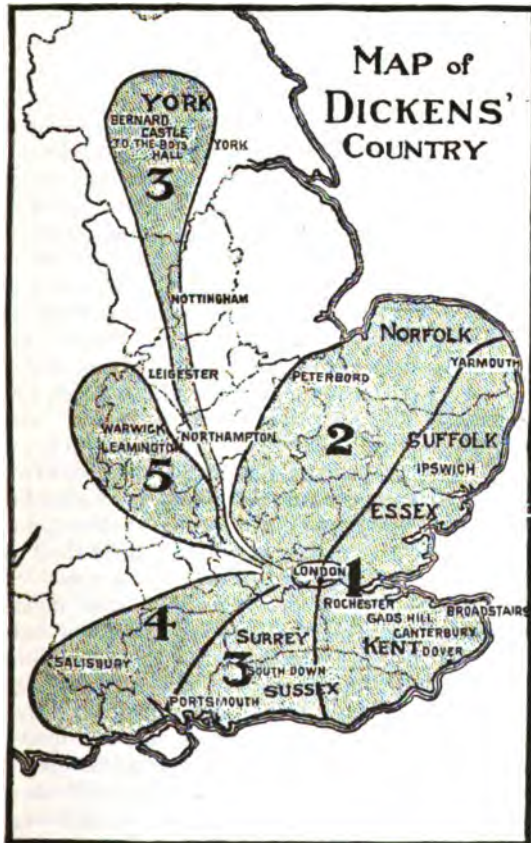
CHAPLAIN TO DR. BENSON.

Canon Benham believes that it was he who convinced Dr. Tait that the Public Worship Regulation Act had proved a failure. When Dr. Tait died, Dr. Benson made Dr. Davidson his domestic chaplain, a post which he preferred to two rich canonries that were pressed upon him in vain. He became examining chaplain to Bishop Lightfoot at Durham. Queen Victoria made his acquaintance when she sent for him to tell her more about the last days of Archbishop Tait. Just then the deanery of Windsor fell vacant, and the Queen, after a conference with Mr. Gladstone, nominated Dr. Davidson to that post. The Queen made him her confidant, and in 1891 appointed him to the See of Rochester, where he very nearly died, but pulled through chiefly owing to what the doctor attributed to the calmness of his patient. After a time, he was appointed to Winchester, whence he has been transferred to Canterbury. He leaves his diocese at peace, and Canon Benham speaks in the warmest terms of the sympathy which he has ever shown to his colleagues.

DICKENS' COUNTRY.

LONDON is the real Dickens land, but he made excursions in the home and eastern counties of England, and once traveled as far north as South Durham. The *Pall Mall Magazine* for February contains an interesting paper by Mr. W. Sharp, devoted to a description of the localities mentioned in Dickens' novels. Scott covered much of the Continent and all of

the British Isles, whereas Dickens confined himself to one corner of England, described by Mr. Sharp as lying between the marches of York and Durham counties on the north, and Portsmouth and the nose of Kent on the south; between Salisbury Plain, Warwick, and Leamington on the west, and the seabeaches of Suffolk and the Thames and Medway estuaries on the east. This is best illustrated by the map, which we reproduce:



The part marked 1 is preëminently the Dickens country, from Yarmouth on the north to Dover on the south. Apart from "David Copperfield," "Pickwick," "Great Expectations," etc., it comprises Gad's Hill and Broadstairs, for long the novelist's two favorite places of residence. Rochester (the Cloisterham, Dullborough, Mudfog, etc., of the novels) may be called its literary capital. (Several of the novels, mostly cast in London or other towns, run into No. 1, as, besides those named, "A Tale of Two Cities," "Bleak House," etc.)

No. 2. For parts of "Oliver Twist," "Old Curiosity Shop," "Barnaby Rudge," etc.

No. 3. Mainly for "Nicholas Nickleby" in its two sections, and also in its upper part for "Master Humphrey's Clock."

No. 4. The country of "Martin Chuzzlewit" away from London.

No. 5. The country of "Dombey and Son."

DICKENS AND LANDSEER.

IN the February number of the *Magazine of Art* there is an interesting article on "Charles Dickens as a Lover of Art and Artists," written by his youngest daughter, Mrs. Kate Perugini. The following recollections of Landseer are quoted from this article:

"For Edwin Landseer, my father had a peculiarly enthusiastic admiration, placing him with Maclise in the high estimation he held of their many-sided genius; and I have often heard him say that of all the men he had known during his literary career, those two must inevitably have risen to the highest point of excellence in whatever profession or position in life they may have found themselves.

"In Edwin Landseer he had not only a warm friend, but one for whom his own regard increased as they both grew older and Landseer had a little put aside the slight affectation of manner which his position of a renowned painter, a great wit, and a spoiled pet of society had tempted him to indulge in. There is a story my father used to tell touching upon this, and upon the excessive nervousness and the sensitive nature of the artist, which I think I may relate.

LANDSEER'S NERVOUSNESS.

"It happened that on one occasion when Landseer was engaged to dine at my father's house all the company had assembled in the drawing-room with the exception of the painter. My father, who had invited him earlier than his other guests, knowing that he would probably arrive the last of all, grew impatient, but drawing out his watch, determined to wait for him another quarter of an hour. After that time had elapsed, no Landseer appearing, he decided upon going downstairs with his friends, and dinner was well-nigh half over before Landseer walked in. My father received him rather coldly, thinking that his affectation was becoming intolerable and deserved a slight punishment; but my aunt, who sat near to where Landseer was placed, noticed that he was very pale, and that his hands and face were twitching nervously. He became more composed as the dinner proceeded, and after it was over, took my father aside and told him that he had left his studio early enough to reach Devonshire Terrace in good time for dinner, and was anxious to be in time, as he knew my father's punctual habits, but that, as his foot almost touched the doorstep of the house, one of those terrible fits of nervousness and shyness to which he was subject came upon him, and he was obliged to walk up and down the street for a long time before he could summon up courage to ring at the bell. I can imagine

how the severity of my father's manner softened at this confession, and how eagerly and affectionately he must have assured his friend of his warm sympathy."

WAS AMERICA THE CRADLE OF ASIA?

AN interesting article in the March *Harper's*, by Dr. Stewart Culin, "America the Cradle of Asia," shows the falsity of our usual conception of America as "the new world," and gives some almost startling evidence to support the belief that Asiatic civilization was cradled on this side of the Pacific. "We find upon the western continent things not only similar to those of Asia, but precisely identical with them; things not only the same in form and use, but in source and development as well, and at the same time so empirical and complex that no theory of their having been produced independently under like conditions, of their being the products of a similar yet independent creative impulse, seems longer tenable.

"If we reject the theory of Asiatic origin, there are two explanations open to us: First, that at one period of man's history he had certain ideas in common on both continents; that his customs were fundamentally the same and knew no geographical boundaries. Second, that these identical customs originated in America, and were disseminated thence over the world; that the American culture, no longer to be regarded as sterile and unproductive, must be given its due place among the influences which have contributed to the origin and development of our own civilization."

Dr. Culin supports the latter view notwithstanding that it presupposes an antiquity for American civilization as great, if not greater, than the earliest known or suspected Babylonian or Egyptian eras.

Among the curious evidences cited to support this theory are the divining-rods described in the oldest known Chinese book, the *Yi King*, dating from the twelfth century B.C. "Now, the splints used in Asia find their counterpart in America in the gambling-sticks used by many tribes. Thus, in Hupa Valley, California, we find the same bundle of fine rods, manipulated in the same way by rolling in the hands, divided at random into two bundles and counted off as in Asia. Even the number of the sticks remains practically the same." The common use of the arrow as a symbol for man, the similarity of the Mexican game of patolli to the Hindu game of pochesi, and other such marvelous coincidences are described by Dr. Culin to support his theory that America contributed her share to the world's civilization.

STUDIES IN BIRD-SONG.

IT is a charming diversion from the usually solid articles of the *London Quarterly Review* when Mr. Robert McLeod favors us with an essay on the development of bird-song. He reviews two works on the subject by Mr. Charles A. Witchell, who defines bird-song as the whole range of voice in birds. He suggests that the first vocal sounds were cries of terror or anger. To the danger-signal and combat cry is added the call-note. These three strands have been woven into the song of most of our birds.

MIMICRY IN BIRDS.

Imitation is represented as one of the principal sources of musical composition among birds:

"The warblers have, as we might expect, much in common in their voices; and the sedge warbler, a mighty singer, is a gifted mimic. There is practically no limit to the variety of sounds it can reproduce. We have listened to its extraordinary song,—a medley of many strains,—when twilight was deepening into darkness, and have been entranced. It is impossible to describe it,—rapid, of many tones, of manifold lights and shades, of varied cadences, reproducing with absolute fidelity the songs of neighbor birds, in some cases apparently arranged in a preconcerted order. Buntings imitate pipits; greenfinches and yellow-hammers have similar voices; and we know that in winter they seek their food in the same places, and hear each other's calls. So imitative is the jay in a wild state that it has been known to introduce into its song not only the shrill *whew* of the kite, the scream of the buzzard, and the hooting of the owl, but the bleating of the lamb and the neighing of the horse. A sparrow, we are told, educated under a linnnet, hearing by accident a goldfinch sing, developed a song that was a mixture of the songs of these two birds; while another, brought up in a cage of canaries, sang like a canary, only better; a third, reared in a cage close to a skylark, imitated with surprising success the skylark's song, but interrupted the strain with its own call-notes. . . . Animal cries, too, have been imitated. The roar of the ostrich and of the lion, it is said, are so similar that even Hottentots are sometimes unable to discriminate between them."

THE NIGHTINGALE'S REPERTORY.

Mr. Witchell is undoubtedly a bold man. He has not feared to attempt a description of the witchery of the nightingale's song. The prose-writer has rushed in where even poets feared to tread; and we are grateful to the reviewer for reproducing the passage which follows:

"The fullness of tone which the nightingale

displays interferes with the accuracy of imitation in many instances; and, indeed, so wonderful is the song that the listener is apt to forget all else than the supreme impulse and passion of the singer. Perhaps the surroundings of the bird increase the effect. The murmur of the stream; the soft moonlight which bathes the dewy meadow and sheds white waves across the woodland tract, checkered with shadows of clustering fresh May leaves,—these are suitable features in the realm of this monarch of song, and increase the effect. Now it prolongs its repetitions till the wood rings. Now its note seems as soft as a kiss; now it is a loud shout, perchance a threat (*rrrrrr*); now a soft *peeuu, peeuu*, swelling in an amazing crescendo. Now it imitates the *sip sip sip sisisisi* of the woodwarbler, now the bubbling notes of the nuthatch. The scientific investigator is abashed by this tempestuous song, this wild melody, the triumph-song of Nature herself, piercing beyond the ear, right to the heart. It is pleading now! But no, it is declamatory; now weird, now fierce; triumphant, half merry. One seems to hear it chuckle, mock, and defy almost in the same breath."

WHY BIRDS SING.

The reviewer thinks that the influence of love on the evolution of bird-song has been much exaggerated. In the case of migrants, the male bird sings rapturously *before* the arrival of the female, but "as a matter of fact, it is not till courtship is over, the nest built, and domestic cares begun that the bird utters its full heart. . . . The perfect melody is not that of one who woos, but of one who has won. . . . Song, which in its highest display belongs to the spring of the year, is uttered in the main by the adult male. It is probably a manifestation of vigor and exuberant vitality. It is the overflow of the new life and contagious gladness which the springtide, with its abundance of food and its bright sunshine, bring to the healthy bird."

LIFE IN A CONSUMPTION SANATORIUM.

ACCORDING to the French specialists in tuberculosis, fresh air and food will do much, but they will do more for the consumptive patient if the cure is carried out in a high altitude. M. Corday contributes to the *Revue de Paris* a vivid and most interesting account of life in a French sanatorium, or open-air cure.

The sanatorium described is that of Hauteville en Bugey, and is entirely devoted to the needs of the consumptive workers of Lyons. The tiny village, of which the description re-

calls that of Oberammergau, is situated in the French Jura, and the sanatorium is about a mile from the village. It is a very large building, of which the most important section is called the cure gallery, consisting of a sort of huge roofed-in balcony of course entirely open to the air, and where the patients spend the whole day reclining on deck chairs. A rather melancholy feature of the sanatorium—to Anglo-Saxon notions—is that the sexes are never allowed to meet; each sex has its own dining-room, drawing-room, even its own gardens.

Of course, the fact that the sanatorium is a philanthropic institution makes it far easier to carry out the rules, and in some ways makes the experiment a more interesting one. No cases in the very first or in the very last stages of the disease are accepted for treatment.

A SANATORIUM HOTEL.

The writer went on from Hauteville to another sanatorium, managed on very different lines. There he soon discovered that the patients were mostly of the wealthier classes, and in many cases the guest under treatment was accompanied by several relations, while, of course, there was no bar put to ordinary intercourse between the sexes. Indeed, he says that it would be difficult to tell such a sanatorium from an ordinary hotel, were it not for the cure gallery, and for the fact that in many of the rooms the windows have been bodily taken out.

DAVOSPLATZ.

From this place he went on to Davosplatz, of all the high-altitude cures in some ways the most interesting, though, of course, it is only comparatively lately that the open-air cure, as now understood, has been practised there. It is clear from this paper that the French municipal authorities are tackling the whole problem of consumption and its cure in a business-like spirit. Ere long, every great industrial center in France will have its state-managed sanatorium, where the poorest will have the best and most skillful of care.

THE REFORM OF THE JAPANESE SYSTEM OF WRITING.

AT a time when European institutions of learning are introducing the Chinese language and literature into their curricula, Columbia University being the first one in this country to offer courses in Chinese, this winter, the Japanese, who more than 1,200 years ago adopted the Chinese system of writing, are deliberating the means of discarding that system as

too cumbersome and adopting a phonetic system similar to the Latin alphabet. The system of Chinese hieroglyphics and its disadvantages for a progressive people like the Japanese, anxious to assimilate Western culture, is discussed in a fascinating article by Ludwig Riess, an ex-professor of the university of Tokyo, in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for December. This complicated system of eastern Asia, that is still the principal subject of instruction in progressive Japan and backward Korea, that puzzles the Dutch soldier and the German planter on Java and Sumatra, and that in our ethnographic museums is the means of bringing to light the inexhaustible intellectual treasures of ages long past, the writer designates as one of the greatest marvels of human ingenuity.

CHINESE IDEOGRAMS.

Some analogies to the Chinese ideograms may be found among Western peoples; for instance, numerals, mathematical signs, chemical formulæ, signals, escutcheons, emblems, flags at half-mast, the Red Cross, etc., are signs that are universally recognizable. Ideograms, directly expressing ideas without the medium of words, form the basis of the system of the thousands of signs by means of which the eastern Asiatic peoples express their thoughts to the eye, whereas for the Western peoples the sound that reaches the ear is the chief medium for transmitting thought, for even in reading we unconsciously translate the letters into sounds. The Chinese sees in his ideogram a concrete conventional image of the idea presented to him. Thoughts are transmitted to him by his system of writing as clearly and intelligibly as thoughts are transmitted to the architect by his plan, to the geologist by his map, to the physician by the curves of temperature of his patient, to the meteorologist by his weather chart. As the image called up before the eye is originally independent of the sounds that convey the same thoughts to the ear, discrepancies may arise between the written and the spoken words that are entirely impossible in a phonetic system. Faithful stenographic reports of speeches seem strange to the reading public of Japan. The Japanese is not impressed by the solemn proclamations of the Emperor when he listens to them, but when he sees them in good print. The work of the great Japanese poet does not delight the ear by its harmonies of sound, but the eye by its brilliant display on paper. On the stage, the exaggerated situations and the pantomime of the players serve to supply the limitations of the language.

Centuries ago, the Japanese adopted the Chi-

nese system of writing, together with Chinese culture, their intellectual life becoming Sino-Japanese, as the culture of ancient Italy was Græco-Roman. And through the continued study of Chinese literature, more than thirty thousand ideograms became fixed in the memory of the educated classes. When the Japanese decided to accept European culture, about half a century ago, and introduced in an amazingly short time the appliances of modern civilization, they were confronted with the question that the writer still regards as the most important one for Japan's future: Shall the system of writing adopted from the Chinese be retained, in view of this new condition of things? or can and will a convenient means of written communication similar to the European alphabet crown the work of Europeanizing Japan, that has been so auspiciously begun?

DISADVANTAGES OF THE CHINESE SYSTEM.

Although attempts have been made to introduce a phonetic system that in theory has been brought nearly to perfection, the writer holds that at the present stage of the intellectual development of Japan it is impossible to discard at once the Chinese system, as it is too intimately connected with the life and literature of the people, countless ideograms being fixed in the memory of most men and half of the women, and 2,350 of these signs alone being used in the daily papers. Still, its disadvantages are patent in any attempts to acquire a more universal culture. As the writer says: "Seven years of schooling and a one-sided development of the memory are the price that every Japanese must pay for acquiring his national culture. Although he receives in addition an unusual training of the eye and develops great skill in drawing that is of advantage to all the arts and crafts, the Japanese pupil is far behind Western children as regards intellectual activity and practical knowledge. In common sense, independent thinking, ethical ideals, and imagination, the Japanese student cannot compare with the German graduate." These differences, the writer thinks, are due not so much to racial peculiarities as to the schooling the Japanese receives. Up to the age of thirteen or fourteen, the Japanese child cannot read anything outside of his class lesson, and is therefore shut off from all those sources of information that a Western child finds in his outside, miscellaneous reading.

PROPOSED REFORMS.

It is proposed, in the first place, to make a selection of the 1,300 most indispensable ideograms, which every child must learn. Next

comes the old Japanese system, the double syllable with 49 characters each, that are used for particles and inflections. And in the third place, the Japanese child, already overburdened with reading exercises, must learn the Latin letters of our Western alphabet. As regards the sequence of teaching these three systems, the writer holds that the child should begin with the last-named, the European phonetic system, as it is the simplest and most quickly learned, and has moreover the advantage of training the ear as well as the eye, thus enabling the child to learn to read more quickly by himself. Although this question of the sequence may seem petty, the writer thinks that it involves much of the efficacy of the impending reform in the intellectual development of the Japanese people.

THE SACRED CITY OF LHASSA REVEALED.

VARIOUS attempts have been made to penetrate to the city of the Grand Lama, in Tibet. It seems to be the general belief that the feat has always proved impossible; but this is far from being the case, and it is generally to be seen that those adventuring either with large trains or from the Chinese frontier are the ones doomed to failure. There is now living quietly in India a man who has been in Lhasa and knows about all that is to be known of it. His report to the Indian Government, obtainable long since in Russia, has been rescued from obscurity by the Royal Geographical Society, and will soon be published. Mr. Archibald Colquhoun writes an interesting account of Lhasa and Tibet in the January *Cornhill*.

WHAT IS LHASSA LIKE?

Mr. Colquhoun says:

"It is not difficult, by means of the descriptions of Huc and our traveler, to conjure up a picture of the sacred city; and considering that architecture in Tibet is usually of the most unornamental character, a bird's-eye view must be more impressive than might be expected. Dominating everything is the rugged mass of Potala, the palace of the Dalai Lama, itself some nine stories high in the center, probably about three hundred feet high, and surmounting a conical hill. Flags and strings of colored rags wave and flutter in the breeze from every window, and the gilt domes and roofs glitter in the sunshine. Round Potala are towers, chapels, and pavilions, gleaming with gold and silver, and below lies the town, from which an avenue of giant trees leads to the palace. The center of the city is the great temple, or cathedral, from which all the streets radiate. Here are also the

government offices. The houses are mostly of clay and sun-dried bricks, while those of the richer class are built of brick or stone, hewn into square blocks, and neatly fitted. They are all given a coat of whitewash, which with the red-painted woodwork of the doors and windows imparts a fictitious air of cleanliness. Windows are sometimes glazed, but more often prepared in Chinese fashion, and the buildings rise from two to four stories, some having towers and gilded roofs. Within, the most striking characteristic is the dirt. Very few have any chimney or hole for smoke, which is expected to find its way out of door or window. Nevertheless, the ceilings are frequently silk, the walls hung with satin or brocade, and the floors glossy; but the effect is that of gaudy squalor. For furniture, Tibetans have stuffed rags or flat cushions to sit on, with miniature tables on which food is set. Tea is drunk all day long, a favorite form being 'battered tea,' a concoction of tea-leaves stewed and mixed with rancid butter and barley flour. Mutton and yak beef are eaten in great quantities, but our traveler speaks of the 'tsamba,' or barley gruel, as the 'national food.'"

THE DALAI LAMA.

The life of the little Incarnate Buddhas, who occupy the central position in Lhasa and of the Buddhist faith, seems to be a very unpleasant one, if we may judge by the writer's account of what Manning and the Abbé Huc saw on their visits:

"The hall at the top of the palace in which the poor little fellow sat was full of solemn lamas, motionless and silent as the grave, each with his eyes fixed steadily on the tip of his own nose. In the midst of this grave assemblage sat the sacred head of the Buddhist religion, a bright, fair-complexioned boy with rosy cheeks, large and penetrating eyes, and an Aryan type of countenance. His frame was thin with fastings and prayers, and one cannot help feeling heart-sick at the thought of the poor child, a mere puppet in reality though invested with so much sanctity, cut off by no fault of his own from all the joys of youth, and probably destined to die a violent death in his early manhood, since the powers that be prefer a young and helpless Dalai Lama. No wonder that Manning, when he visited the Dalai Lama of his time, could think of nothing but the beautiful face of the doomed child, and that he felt his eyes full of tears."

HOW THE DALAI LAMA IS CHOSEN.

Mr. Colquhoun gives an interesting account of how the choice of this chief priest is arrived at: "At present, the choice of this chief priest of

Buddhism is decided in a curious fashion. When the time for reincarnation arrives (i.e., on the death of a Dalai Lama), search is made among certain families for a child in which the spirit is reincarnated. Narrowing the selection down to three by the consultation of omens, they bring the three babies to the temple, and draw lots for them. The unsuccessful ones are rewarded by a sum of money; the unfortunate successful one takes up his residence at Potala."

JOHN RUSKIN'S INDEX EXPURGATORIUS.

A HITHERTO unpublished letter which John Ruskin addressed to Mr. E. T. Cook when he was assistant editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* has been brought to light by Mr. W. T. Stead and published in *Success* for January. Mr. Cook brought out in those days a "Pall Mall Extra," suggested by Sir John Lubbock's list of the best hundred books. He sent the list to Mr. Ruskin, who returned it scored through and blotted. "Putting my pen lightly through the needless and blottesquely through the rubbish and poison of Sir John's list, I leave enough for a life's liberal reading and choice for any true worker's loyal reading."

NEEDLESS BOOKS.

The following is a list of the needless books:

Marcus Aurelius —	Pascal—"Pensees."	Southey.
"Meditations."	Spinoza.	Longfellow.
Confucius — "Ana-	Butler—"Analogy."	Home.
lects."	Nibelungenlied.	Macaulay.
Aristotle—"Ethics."	Malory — "Mort"	Froude.
Mohammed—"Koran."	d'Arthur."	Goethe's Faust.
Apostolic Fathers.	Mahabharata.	Thackeray.
St. Augustine —	Firdusi.	George Elliot.
"Confessions."	Sheking.	Kingsley.
Thomas à Kempis—	Sophocles.	Bulwer Lytton.
"Imitations."	Euripides.	

POISONOUS AND RUBBISH.

Gibbon—"Decline and Fall."	Darwin—"Origin of Species."
Voltaire—"Charles XII." and	Smith, Adam — "Wealth of
"Louis XIV."	Nations."
Hume — "History of Eng-	Locke — "Human Under-
land."	standing."
Grote—"History of Greece."	Cook—"Voyages."
Mill—"Political Economy."	

WHY HE BLOTTED OUT THESE BOOKS.

Answering Mr. Cook's question why he blotted out these books, Mr. Ruskin wrote:

"1.—Grote's 'History of Greece.'—Because there is probably no commercial establishment, between Charing Cross and the Bank, whose

head clerk could not write a better one, if he had the vanity to waste his time on it.

"2.—'Confessions of St. Augustine.'—Because religious people nearly always think too much about themselves; and there are many saints whom it is much more desirable to know—the history of St. Patrick to begin with—especially in modern times.

"3.—John Stuart Mill.—Sir John Lubbock ought to have known that his day is over.

"4.—Charles Kingsley.—Because his sentiment is false and his tragedy frightful. People who buy cheap clothes are not punished in real life by catching fevers; social inequalities are not to be redressed by tailors falling in love with bishops' daughters, or gamekeepers with squires; and the story of Hypatia is the most ghastly in Christian tradition, and should forever have been left in silence.

"5.—Darwin.—Because it is every man's duty to know what he *is*, and not to think of the embryo he was, nor the skeleton that he should be. Because, too, Darwin has a mortal fascination for all vainly curious and idly speculative persons, and has collected in the train of him every impudent imbecility in Europe, like a dim comet wagging its useless tail of phosphorescent nothing across the steadfast stars.

"6.—Gibbon.—Primarily, none but the malignant and the weak study the decline and fall of either state or organism. Dissolution and putrescence are alike common and unclean in all things; any wretch or simpleton may observe for himself, and experience in himself, the process of ruin; but good men study, and wise men describe, only the growth and standing of things,—not their decay.

"For the rest, Gibbon's is the worst English that was ever written by an educated Englishman. Having no imagination, and little logic, he is alike incapable either of picturesqueness or wit; his epithets are malicious without point, sonorous without weight, and have no office but to make a flat sentence turgid.

"7.—Voltaire.—His work is, in comparison with good literature, what nitric acid is to wine, and sulphuretted hydrogen to air. Literary chemists cannot but take account of the sting and stench of him, but he has no place in the library of a thoughtful scholar. Every man of sense knows more of the world than Voltaire can tell him; and what he wishes to express of such knowledge he will say without a snarl."

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

THE opening article of the March *Century*, by Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, entitled "The Great Northwest," is another reminder that the geographical expression "Northwest," as used in the United States, has quite a different meaning from what it had a quarter of a century ago. To the Eastern reader, at that time the word would have indicated pretty nearly the whole region of country lying west of the Great Lakes and north of the Missouri and Ohio rivers. At the present time, however, the term is quite sharply limited, and, as used in Mr. Baker's article, applies only to the country west of the Rocky Mountains and north of California. The changes in that country during the last two or three decades have been rapid, and what was true of the "boom" towns of the eighties and other transitory phases of settlement by no means holds good to-day. Much fresh and interesting information is brought out in Mr. Baker's article, especially in his descriptions of the agricultural possibilities of the States of Oregon and Washington. For example, in the region between the Cascade Mountains and the Rockies, a large territory in eastern Washington, northeastern Oregon, and northwestern Idaho is tilled by the process that has come to be known as "dry farming." In this region, there is double the rainfall of most of the arid Northwest, though the total precipitation is only a small fraction of that in western Washington. Within a few years, this country has developed one of the most important wheat centers in the United States. The soil is rich, raising without fertilization as much as thirty-five bushels to the acre, though Mr. Baker says that the country is often so dry that it seems as if the fields must blow away in dust. In some regions, water must be hauled for miles, often by railroad, for culinary purposes. Spokane, with a population of 30,000, is the center of this agricultural district.

THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM.

The subject of European immigration to the United States is discussed in a group of three articles. The picturesque phases of the matter are treated in a characteristic sketch by Jacob A. Riis, entitled "In the Gateway of Nations." Mr. Riis graphically describes the experiences of the immigrant as he lands at Ellis Island and is put through the various formalities preliminary to admission as a prospective citizen of the great republic.

M. Gustav Michaud analyzes the complex question of races with a view to determining some of the features of the coming American type. Prof. Franklin Giddings, commenting on the statistics brought out by Mr. Michaud, reminds us that the English people, at the time when the early settlements were made in this country, was itself the product of a racial admixture quite as startling as that which is foretold with regard to the United States, and which, in fact, we are now witnessing.

WHY CAPITAL SHOULD "ORGANIZE."

Apropos of recent issues between labor and capital, Mr. Herman Justi raises the question whether there is not at the present time, after all, greater need of an organization on capital's side than on labor's. He makes

a sharp distinction between organized labor and consolidated capital. This distinction clearly appears whenever there is a conflict between unorganized capital and organized labor; that is to say, capital may have been consolidated without any system having been created which insures the united action of the capitalists in a time of conflict with their laborers. The recent anthracite strike, for example, showed the owners of the mines to be really at war with one another on various points, while the miners' union presented a united front.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Prof. William H. Pickering states what has been done during the past fifteen years by way of securing sites for American observatories in localities where the atmosphere is "steady." By steadiness of the atmosphere Professor Pickering means the absence of wavering, such as is indicated by the shimmer in the air seen in looking at an object across a hot stove, or along a railroad track on a hot summer day. Sites of this character have been secured in Jamaica, Peru, and in a few localities in the United States, such as the top of Pike's Peak and Flagstaff, Arizona.

Mr. George Buchanan Fife tells the wonderful story of the American Tobacco Trust.

Prof. Justin H. Smith, in his series of articles on "The Prologue of the American Revolution," gives a detailed account of Montgomery's struggle for Quebec, with numerous illustrations.

Mr. Will Paine contributes an interesting description of the Chicago Board of Trade, which he insists is really a national institution as a "clearing-house of opinion."

HARPER'S.

THE March *Harper's* is almost entirely devoted to fiction and other contributions of an æsthetic nature. Exceptions are the second installment of Mr. Thomas A. Janvier's "Dutch Founding of New York," "Recent Discoveries in the Forum," by G. Boni, and "Our American Tyrol," a pleasant description of the Vermont and New Hampshire mountain regions and their homely types. The number opens with Mr. Edwin A. Abbey's illustrations for "Richard II.," printed in a "Critical Comment" by no less than Algernon Charles Swinburne. The poet dares to say just what is good and bad in this first historic play of the young Shakespeare, and considers the play's greatest interest to be in "the obvious evidence which it gives of the struggle between the worse and better genius of its author." Mr. Swinburne thinks that this first essay of Shakespeare's into historical drama shows even more imperfections than "Romeo and Juliet," the first tragedy.

This number of *Harper's* is rich in fiction and imaginative illustration. Besides the chapter in Mrs. Ward's novel, "Lady Rose's Daughter," there is the second part of Maurice Hewlett's new tale, "Buondelmonte," and capital short stories by Norman Duncan, Margaret Sutton Briscoe, Herman Whitaker, and others.

In the "Editor's Study," Mr. H. M. Alden, the veteran editor of *Harper's*, discusses the touchiness of magazine contributors concerning suggestions of changes in their manuscripts, and agrees with Mr. Howells that

it is chiefly the second-rate young author somewhat spoiled by a little quickly earned popularity that shows the greatest horror at any tampering with his most trivial sentences. Mr. Alden says, and no one is a better authority, that the best literary workmen welcome suggestions of changes in their works, and tells of one author who contributed to *Harper's* for forty years without ever furnishing a short story that was not susceptible to easy improvement.

Prof. Stewart Culin's "America the Cradle of Asia" is quoted from in another department.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

JUSTICE DAVID J. BREWER writes in the March *Scribner's* of "The Supreme Court of the United States," and of the great importance the work of that body has for our present and future national life. The questions of most vital import that the complexities of modern life have brought before this supreme tribunal are divided by Justice Brewer into four main groups: first, those growing out of the controversies between labor and capital; second, those affecting the relative powers of the nation and the States; third, those arising out of our new possessions, and fourth, those which will come because our relations to all other nations "have grown to be so close and will surely increase in intimacy."

There is a charming account of the coronation of the Czar Alexander III. in the letters of Mary King Wadlington, the French ambassador, concluded in this number. A picturesque contribution by E. C. Peixotto describes the "Marionettes and Puppet Shows" of the past and present, and there are several excellent stories.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

FROM Mr. Samuel E. Moffett's article on "The War on the Locomotive," in *McClure's* for March: we have already quoted at some length in another department. In the same number, Mr. Frank H. Spearman gives a sketch of John L. Whitman, the jailer of the Cook County Jail at Chicago, in which are confined more prisoners awaiting trial than in any other jail in the world. Jailer Whitman, by the repeated exhibition of kindness to the inmates,—but of "the kind of kindness that compels," as Mr. Spearman puts it,—has won the confidence of all the prisoners to a remarkable degree. More than once Whitman's life has been protected by his prisoners, and those the men with the worst records. One feature of his administration of the jail has been the series of entertainments given to the prisoners, who have themselves formed an association to take charge of such entertainments, and have given it the name of the John L. Whitman Moral Improvement Association. At the time of President McKinley's assassination, the prisoners assembled and expressed by resolution their horror and detestation of the act, and at the hour of his burial they gathered in their chapel and stood silent, with bowed heads, during the five minutes when business and industry all over the country were suspended.

WILL ST. LOUIS REDEEM HERSELF?

Following up the article which appeared in *McClure's* for October last under the title "Tweed Days in St. Louis," Mr. Lincoln Steffens contributes a paper to the March number on "The Shamelessness of St. Louis." He relates all the recent movements of the boodlers in

that city, and concludes with some pessimistic paragraphs on the supineness of the people. In April, the city votes for municipal legislators, and since the municipal assembly has been the scene of most of the corruption, it would seem that boodling would surely be an issue at that election. But Mr. Steffens hazards no prediction. He was in the city in January, and states that at that time the politicians were planning to keep this issue out of the election, their scheme being to combine on one ticket,—that is to say, each group of leaders was to nominate half the nominees, who were to be on the same ticket, making no contest at all, and, "to avoid suspicion, these nominations were to be exceptionally,—yes, remarkably,—good."

ANOTHER CHAPTER OF THE STANDARD OIL.

Miss Ida M. Tarbell continues her narrative of the successive steps by which the Standard Oil Trust was built up on the ruins of its competitors. In the main, it is a story of quiet absorption of the independent refineries by the Standard, with occasional episodes like that of the Pennsylvania's fight. The period covered in this installment includes the years 1874-78. So strong had the monopoly become at this time that there was an almost superstitious fear of resistance to any proposals to lease or to sell that might come from it. A proposal from Mr. Rockefeller was regarded popularly as little better than a command to "stand and deliver."

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

IN the March *Cosmopolitan*, Col. Avery D. Andrews, formerly one of the New York City police commissioners, writes an account of his recent observations on the police systems of Europe. Comparing the cities of London, Paris, and New York, Colonel Andrews finds that the proportion of police to population is 1 to every 307 in Paris, 1 to every 408 in London, and 1 to every 458 in New York. Comparing proportions of police to areas, he finds that in Paris there are 266 policemen to each square mile, in London 23 to each square mile, and New York 25. The great area of the metropolitan police district of London contains many rural communities, as does the present metropolitan district of New York, and perhaps a comparison with Paris is hardly fair.

THE SELECTION OF A HOME.

Prof. Clarence A. Martin, of Cornell University, contributes a paper dealing with the somewhat complex problem of the location of a home. It is clearly brought out in Professor Martin's article that, other things being equal, his preference is decidedly for elevated building sites. He has scant patience with those people who, appreciating neither sanitary science nor art in the location of a home, have built their houses on low, flat, sodden plains, "with the low-water mark anywhere from two to six feet below the surface of the earth, and the high-water mark anywhere from the surface of the lawns to the level of the first floor." Professor Martin mentions a city,—which we take to be Ithaca, N. Y., the seat of Cornell University,—which, he says, is surrounded by fine building sites with perfect drainage, commanding magnificent views over miles of hills, lake, and valley, well shaded by good forest trees of oak, maple, elm, pine, and hemlock, which had been to a good extent neglected by the people who it might be supposed would be the first to choose them. The lots are not only much larger than those in the valley, but

cost in the open market considerably less. What Professor Martin says of this city is undoubtedly true of hundreds of American towns and villages. Most of the people prefer to live in the valleys.

VON LENBACH, THE PAINTER.

A sketch of von Lenbach, the Bavarian artist who painted numerous portraits of Bismarck, is contributed by Louise Parks Richards. Von Lenbach, it seems, became a member of the Bismarck family circle. "Hitherto Bismarck had been an almost impossible man to the approach of a painter, his restless energies precluding the possibility of posing for an artist except in the most exceptional cases. The rapid strokes of von Lenbach, however, dissipated his antipathy against the ordeal of sitting. Besides, the open, unabashed, independent personality of the artist interested him."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen (2d) writes on "Beauty in the Modern Chorus," Mrs. Wilson Woodrew on "The Woman of Fifty," and President Charles F. Thwing on the profession of insurance. The second of Lord Wolseley's studies of the young Napoleon, and a chapter of Herbert G. Wells' on "Mankind in the Making," devoted to the subject of schooling, are other features of this number. We have quoted elsewhere from a sketch of Mr. James B. Dill, by William J. Boies.

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

MR. EARL MAYO'S article on "The Tobacco War," in the March *Frank Leslie's*, is quoted from in another department. The number opens with an account of the discoveries made by the government scientific expeditions aboard the U. S. S. *Albatross* by W. E. Meehan. A dramatic incident was the deep-sea soundings about one hundred miles from Guam, where the tough wire rope went down 28,878 feet before touching bottom. This is just about the height of Mount Everett,—about five and a half miles. Mr. Meehan tells of extraordinary finds of manganese on the red-clay bottom of the Pacific. This valuable mineral occurs in a pure state, in the form of nodules and disks, some of them as large as cannon balls.

Mr. Frederick Street gives a description of the "Dismal Swamp," the vast waste of spongy, thickly overgrown black soil that begins within twenty miles of Norfolk, Va., and extends twenty-five miles into North Carolina. This interesting wilderness was the favorite refuge of runaway slaves during and before the war, and it is still the best chance for escaped criminals. Its eight hundred square miles of area is as inaccessible and little known as in the days of Washington, who laid out a route through it. In the center of the wilderness is Lake Drummond, three miles long and two miles wide. The waterways flowing from this pond offer the only means of access to the heart of the swamp. A company has been formed to reclaim a large portion of this waste area.

LIPPINCOTT'S.

E BEN E. REXFORD contributes to *Lippincott's* for March, which is largely a fiction number, a brief, practical article on "Rural and Village Improvement Societies," his object being to show some of the benefits brought about by local-improvement societies and the means by which they can be realized. "Indi-

vidual effort," he says, "is the great factor of success in an undertaking of this kind. Improvement, like charity, should begin at home before it undertakes the broader work of the community." He advocates the planting of our native trees and shrubs on the village lots, gives the preference to hardy plants for decorating the home grounds, and lays especial stress on the lawn.

In her paper on "Intellectual Communism," Sara Yorke Stevenson dilates on the tax levied upon public men, and men and women in general who have achieved distinction of some kind, in the shape of requests to give opinions or advice, or to deliver addresses on the most heterogeneous subjects. She denounces the prevalent practice of indiscriminate public speaking, not only as a wasteful drain upon the intellectual energy of the speaker, but as tending to induce superficiality both in the speaker and the listeners.

EVERYBODY'S MAGAZINE.

THE most noteworthy article in *Everybody's Magazine* for March is Chalmers Roberts' paper on "Joseph Chamberlain: A Study of the Man and His Place in English Politics." A career like Chamberlain's could be possible only in England, "where it seems the accepted thing that a man's age shall thoroughly contradict his youth. He was first of all a pronounced Little Englander, opposed to all manner of expansion. In the late seventies, he bitterly opposed the Zulu war against Cetewayo. He opposed the policy of a confederated British South Africa. A year or two later, he was denouncing the British occupation of Egypt. In regard to the Transvaal, he strongly opposed annexation in 1877, but he was bound to accept it upon entering office with Gladstone, as the British foreign policy is supposed to be continuous.

When he accepted the colonial secretaryship, his imperialistic tendencies were already well developed. The growth of the feeling for a united empire "can be traced in a long series of acts of the colonial secretary, beginning further back than the great council of colonial premiers, which he originated and over which he presided so successfully during the Diamond Jubilee, through the war for the support of the colony in South Africa, so wonderfully upheld by the sister colonies, down to the consummation of Australian federation." Mr. Chamberlain "does not shine conspicuously as a diplomatist. He has in the last few years successfully angered almost every Continental nation, and is hated accordingly. But he always has a good word for the United States, and has done his best to see that good feeling is maintained between the two countries."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Stephen French Whitman contributes a picturesque paper on the elephant-catchers of India. Elizabeth Robbins Pennell writes entertainingly on English culinary art in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. J. W. Ogden describes the "River Gamblers of Old Steamboat Days." Lillian Pettengill, a graduate of Mount Holyoke College, has the first of four articles, "Toilers of the Home," describing her experiences as a domestic servant. Interested in social questions, she undertook to "look upon the ups and downs of this particular dog-life from the dog's end of the chain." "The Autobiography of a Life Assurance Man" is the personal narrative of the vice-president of one of the largest life assurance companies. Booker T. Washing-

ton has the fifth installment of his autobiographical paper, "Work with the Hands," describing the manual work at Tuskegee.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

IN the March *Atlantic*, President Arthur T. Hadley continues his discussion, begun last month, of "Academic Freedom in Theory and in Practice." So far from accepting the view that higher education must be controlled by the state in order to secure freedom of teaching, President Hadley holds that "the tendency to jeopardize the freedom of the teacher is probably more conspicuous among State universities than among endowed ones." It is conceded that the placing of the administration of the university in the hands of an independent board, as is done in many States, is a far better method than more direct control by governor or legislature; but, says President Hadley, "if the board is really independent, you have put the possibility of control as fully out of your hands as if it were a private corporation; and if you have not made it thus independent, you have the pretense of freedom without the reality."

A WORLD-LEGISLATURE.

The occasions for international conferences on various matters have been so frequent of late that Mr. Raymond L. Bridgman is able to make an argument of no little force and plausibility in favor of a world-legislature. He maintains that, as a matter of self-interest, the nations must soon have a permanent legislative body as a means of establishing regulations for the benefit of all. World-legislation has already occurred repeatedly, although no world-legislature has been organized. Special meetings have been held for special purposes. The only instance of absolute world-legislation thus far is that of the International Postal Union. The establishment of the Hague Court of Arbitration may also be regarded as an act of world-legislation, so far as the signatory nations were concerned. Mr. Bridgman's proposition involves the organization of a permanent system for dealing with all such international problems as now require the convening of separate bodies of delegates.

MUNICIPAL FRANCHISES.

Mr. George C. Sikes, writing on the question of franchises, emphasizes, as the most important feature of sound municipal policy, the retention by the public authorities of the right to terminate the grant at any time, in case the public interests render such action desirable, with full assurance to the grantee that his property will be taken off his hands at a fair valuation.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Captain Mahan contributes a broadly philosophical paper on "The Writing of History," and an excellent *résumé* of recent nature books is given by Mr. John Burroughs, under the title, "Real and Sham Natural History." The story of "Santa Teresa" is charmingly retold by Annie Fields.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

"THE Monroe Doctrine—Its Origin and Import," is the subject of an article in the February *North American* by the Hon. William L. Scruggs, formerly the United States minister to Venezuela and to Colombia. In concluding a somewhat elaborate historical review of the subject, Mr. Scruggs asserts that

the principles of the Monroe Doctrine are "precedents as old as our government itself. They have been sanctified by unbroken usage, and have given direction to our foreign policy for more than a century. Every one of our Presidents, from the first to the present, who has ever had occasion to refer to it, has specifically reaffirmed it. Every one of the Latin-American republics has, at one time or another, and in some form or other, affirmatively supported it. Not one of the European powers has ever entered formal protest against it; on the contrary, all have acquiesced in it, and thus tacitly assented to it. It is, therefore, a valid part of the public law of this continent; and until abandoned by us, or until formally challenged by Europe, or until modified or abrogated by public treaty, it will continue to be recognized as part of the modern international code of the Christian world."

DEVELOPMENT OF THE DRAMATIC ART.

Concerning "The Art of the Dramatist," Prof. Brander Matthews says: "The drama is an art which has developed slowly and steadily, and which is still alive; its history has the same essential unity, the same continuity, that we are now beginning to see more clearly in the history of the whole world. Its principles, like the principles of every other art, are eternal and unchanging, whatever strange aspects the art may assume."

AGAINST THE ARMY CANTEN.

Mrs. Lillian M. N. Stevens, president of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, replies to Dr. Seaman's argument for the restoration of the post canteen, from which we quoted in our February number. Mrs. Stevens cites the opinions of many army officers in support of her contention that the abolition of the canteen was a good thing. She declares that temperance advocates are well pleased with the result, thus far, of the non-beer exchange, but that the eighteen months' trial has been under the most unfavorable circumstances. Furthermore, substitutes for the canteen have not been established. No use has been made of the half-million dollars appropriated by Congress a year ago for libraries, amusement buildings, etc. These should have a trial before a decision to restore the canteen is reached.

THE INDUSTRIAL CRISIS IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. Brewster Cameron, who represents the Philippine chambers of commerce, makes a strong argument for the establishment of the gold standard in the archipelago and for a further temporary reduction of the Dingley tariff. The fluctuations of the Mexican dollar have already caused enormous losses to the Government and to individual business men. As a concrete example of individual losses, Mr. Cameron cites the case of a prominent contractor at Manila who took a contract to build a hospital for a stipulated price in Mexican silver, to be paid upon the completion of the work. During the time necessarily occupied in the construction of the building, the depreciation of Mexican silver was so great that he lost \$22,000, Mexican. Mr. Cameron urges the prompt adoption by Congress of the plans for currency reform embodied in Secretary Root's report for 1901. The disasters that have befallen the islands in the form of the rinderpest plague and the famine demand the immediate reduction of the tariff, as proposed in the bill that has already passed the House of Representatives. As a further measure of relief, Mr. Cameron calls for the repeal of the law of Congress limiting the

ownership of land by corporations to 2,500 acres, on the ground that this restriction hinders the agricultural development of the islands.

THE KING OF ITALY.

Mr. Sydney Brooks estimates King Victor Emmanuel III. as "a really strong king, who will not only lead, but control; who will not hesitate to command when suggestions fail, and who will see to it that his commands are obeyed." The powers intrusted to an Italian king, according to Mr. Brooks, are equivalent to those of an American President and an English premier combined; they are held for life, and no Italian Parliament would ever oppose the will of a popular ruler.

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is a deeply sympathetic appreciation of Phillips Brooks by the Rev. Dr. Washington Gladden. The discussion of the alleged lawlessness of the New York police in breaking into private houses is continued by Justice W. J. Gaynor and Assistant District Attorney Howard S. Gans. In our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," we have quoted at some length from Mr. Thomas F. Ryan's article on "The Political Opportunity of the South," and from Mr. Charles Johnston's interesting account of "Macedonia's Struggle for Liberty."

HISTORICAL QUARTERLIES.

TWO of the articles in the *American Historical Review* for January—the current issue—are concerned with the Protestant Reformation of the sixteenth century; there is an admirable survey of the literature of the Lutheran movement in Germany by Prof. James Harvey Robinson, while Prof. Herbert D. Foster writes on "Geneva Before Calvin (1587-1536): The Antecedents of a Puritan State."

Of the papers bearing directly on phases of American history, Mr. L. D. Scisco contributes a study of "The Plantation Type of Colony" and Mr. George H. Alden gives an instructive and highly interesting account of "The State of Franklin," that frontier government of our Revolutionary era which was maintained for three years in defiance of North Carolina and the other States of the federation.

In the department of "Documents" are presented letters, hitherto unpublished, of Gov. William Bradford and his assistant, Isaac Allerton, dated 1623, and of Samuel Cooper to Thomas Pownall (1769-77).

A NEW JOURNAL FROM IOWA.

The State Historical Society of Iowa (Iowa City) has brought out the first number of the *Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, to be issued quarterly, under the editorship of Dr. Benjamin F. Shambaugh, of the University of Iowa. Four contributed articles appear in this first issue—"Joliet and Marquette in Iowa," by Prof. L. G. Weld; "The Political Value of State Constitutional History," by Prof. Francis Newton Thorpe; "Historico-Anthropological Possibilities in Iowa," by the Rev. D. J. H. Ward; and "A General Survey of the Literature of Iowa History," by Johnson Brigham. There are also book reviews and a department of "Notes and Comment." The magazine is clearly printed, on good paper, and presents a dignified appearance. Such publications indicate a widespread interest in history on the part of our State societies.

JOURNALS OF ECONOMICS, POLITICS, AND SOCIAL SCIENCE.

THE *American Journal of Sociology* (January; bimonthly) opens with an illustrated article by Samuel MacClintock entitled "Around the Island of Cebu on Horseback." This writer, who is the principal of the Cebu Normal School, is impressed by the eagerness of the natives, old and young, to learn the English language and familiarize themselves with American institutions.

Mr. A. J. Roewade describes some of the advanced methods adopted by European countries in the management of public and quasi-public institutions as related to transportation and commerce,—notably the railroads, harbors, and markets.

An experiment in social fraternity successfully conducted in San Francisco by Miss Octavine Briggs, a visiting nurse, is described by Katherine A. Chandler. Miss Briggs rented a house in a crowded street, where her work was centered, and in that house she proceeded to establish an artistic and dainty home, where the demands of refinement and culture were fully met, and where representatives of all the social classes were invited to meet on a common plane and discuss topics of human interest. Miss Briggs' enterprise is in no way a rival of "settlement" work, but offers the more intimate home influence in the neighborhood.

Prof. Albion W. Small returns to the vexed question, What is a "sociologist?" Not every man, says Professor Small, who deals with facts of society is a sociologist, any more than every tinker and blacksmith is a physicist, or every cook and soap-maker a chemist, or every gardener and stock-breeder a biologist. A sociologist, on the other hand, is a man who is studying the facts of society in the spirit of a philosopher. The worst enemy of the sociologists, in Professor Small's opinion, is "defect of scientific patience." "Itch to be talked about, without having made any real contribution to knowledge, is the stigma of the pseudo-scientist."

Writing on "The Social Effects of the Eight-Hour Day," Prof. Frank L. McVey says, in conclusion:

"The eight-hour day will promote contentment and cheerfulness among the working people of the world. The economic value of this change is yet to be appreciated, but there can be no doubt of its great productive power when applied to industry. Under its influence, the old rate of daily production will be maintained, with little or no effect in the long run upon wages, profits, the unemployed, and foreign commerce."

"ANNALS" OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY.

In the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* (bimonthly; January) there is an interesting account by Mr. John W. Converse of the labor system at the Baldwin Locomotive Works. Interesting features of the Baldwin works are the unit system of production, the piecework-payment system, and the apprenticeship system.

Mr. A. E. Outerbridge, Jr., writes on "The Premium System of Wage Payment," described in a recent number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* by Mr. H. L. Gantt.

Analyzing "The Effect of Unionism Upon the Mine Worker," Mr. Frank Julian Warne concludes that such an organization as the United Mine Workers of America is the only force that can give the mine workers a standard of living conformable to American conditions.

Mr. Edward S. Meade sets forth the investment aspect of the anthracite controversy. He declares that if the miners obtain even half of their original demands, two of the five coal corporations concerned are in danger of severe losses, and the dividends of the other three, at least for some time to come, may have to be reduced. The controversy, in short, is not between the corporation and the miner, but between the miners and the investors.

Other interesting topics covered in this number are "Labor Unions as They Appear to an Employer," by W. H. Pfahler; "The Evolution of Negro Labor," by Carl Kelsey; and "The Labor Situation in Mexico," by Walter E. Weyl.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

IN the February number of *Gunton's* there is an interesting article on "Symptomatic Parties" by Mr. Henry W. Wilbur. Reviewing the returns of the Socialist vote at the last elections, this writer takes the ground that while Populism and Greenbackism in our political history were symptoms of adversity, socialism is a symptom of prosperity not satisfactorily diffused. "The exigencies of the coal strike, and certain matters connected therewith, have wonderfully though differently impressed all classes of society, and have intensified the prejudices of the superficial and the poorly informed to a marked degree. Baer's doctrine of the divine right of the holders of capital to possess the earth without a doubt helped to increase the followers of the symptomatic party of 1902. The lesson which the believers in the evolution of society rather than its revolution must learn is plain. It is the lesson of justice and enlarged opportunity for the masses of men, no matter what may be their part in the world's work."

UNCLE SAM'S STRONG-BOX.

In Mr. Julius Moritzen's article on the new mint at Philadelphia the safeguards of the great money vaults are described. In the old mint, occasional visitors were granted admission to these vaults, but now not even the mint officials, except those directly connected with this department, are permitted to enter. The vaults are said to be the largest and most perfect of their kind in the world. "Each is protected by a set of three doors. Of these, the outer door is of a ball-bearing construction in use nowhere else. The four combination locks, and the immensely thick armor plate of which the doors are made, are proof against whatever attack. The vaults, in fact, are invulnerable.

"Further safety in the mint is guaranteed through the complete electric-clock system. There are thirty of these time-pieces scattered throughout the building, besides forty others connecting with a master-clock. Fifty-one telephones, an ink-writing telegraph register, which indicates an alarm from any or all of the thirty-five alarm boxes, and the wonderful switchboard on which are mounted the fuse block, fire-alarm recorder, American District and Western Union call-boxes, the police telegraph and city fire-alarm boxes, are features of protection and convenience no other mint can boast."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE most fascinating paper in the *Contemporary* for February is Ashton Hillaire's "Vision of a Great Fight Between the English and the Danes," in old times, in Berkshire. It is supposed to represent what

he saw when he fell asleep in church, one Sunday, in the country. It is written with extraordinary *verve* and vividness, as if he had really seen the whole battle in a clairvoyant trance. This, indeed, he declares he did, although this may, of course, be merely a pretense; but, speaking of the fight, he says: "One thing is sure. I was there. Some inherited molecule of gray cerebral matter responded to some local stimulus and repeated its thousand-years-old experience."

THE NATIVE PROBLEM IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Mr. Alfred A. Macullah writes very wisely concerning the difficulties of dealing with the black, and still more with the half-breed, population of South Africa. He says: "To be thoroughly taught the lesson that the first duty of man in the world is to work, is the chief instruction necessary for the natives." But he is not contented with this,—his idea is to transport gradually all the colored population to the north of the Zambesi, where he would found "a great native state regulated by British officials after the manner of India;" by this arrangement, "those parts of South Africa which are now dwelt in permanently by the white man cannot be given back to the black man; but the latter should at least be encouraged to withdraw into those parts farther north which are still his own under the ægis of the British power."

THE VALUE OF AN ENGLISH UNIVERSITY DEGREE.

Sir William Ramsey says:

"In this country, the manufacturer looks askance on the applicant for a post who possesses a degree. He has found by experience that the training which the young man has received is of little value in implanting in him the qualities required for success in the world."

There must, therefore, he argues, be something wrong in the training. He pleads "for a conservative reaction,—a reaction which shall carry us back to the golden age, when master and pupil worked together for the acquisition and production of knowledge. I have tried to show that this is the aim of America and our Continental neighbors; that our present examination system is incompatible with such an aim; that it offers to a student a wrong goal; that it strains him at a critical period of his life, exciting him to a succession of fitful spurts, instead of to a calm, steady progression."

HOPE FOR THE JEWS IN ROUMANIA.

Mr. Bernard Lazare, after describing the various legislative methods by which the Jews are being driven out of Roumania, predicts that the remedy will be brought about by economic causes.

"The class of Roumanians who could be substituted for the Jews does not exist, either as traders or workmen. If Jewish emigration proceeds any faster, it will create gaps which it will be impossible to fill. The Roumanian peasant will have no more grocers, wheelwrights, tile-makers, masons, etc. The landowner will see the income from his property go down,—it has already diminished 23 per cent. in certain villages; a mass of small Roumanian traders who depend entirely on the Jew will in their turn be ruined; the Wallachian boyars will feel the injury with the departure of the last Jewish middlemen; the excise revenues will further decrease, and the state will be obliged to reduce more and more the number of official appointments; indeed, it is already being done. Roumania will be like the cities and nations of the Middle Ages,—after having driven out the Jews, she will send for them

back again, and by all sorts of concessions she will endeavor to retain in her land the remnant which will have remained of the Jewish settlement."

RAILWAYS IN CHINA.

Mr. D. C. Boulger writes in very good spirits concerning the prospects of British railway enterprise in China.

"British railway enterprise in China, after a long halt, is, therefore, about to make a practical start under favorable financial conditions. With the Shanghai-Nanking railway, a new departure will be made. We shall have, in the first place, a solid token of the magnitude of British interests in China. It will be something definite for the government to protect in that Yangtze Valley over which it has watched so long. It is certain to prove a most successful line in its commercial aspect. If any Chinese railway is to earn brilliant dividends, it will certainly be that traversing the thickly populated province of Kiangsu."

THE MECHANISM OF THE AIR.

The Rev. J. M. Bacon explains a theory which he has formed as the result of his study of the air currents.

"The atmosphere has been well compared to a vast engine of which the furnace is maintained by the sun's rays which traverse it, the boiler being the moist earth or the cloud-masses on which the heat of those rays is spent, while the condensing apparatus is supplied by the action of the earth's radiation into space."

His theory is that the heated air always ascends in eddies and bubbles. He gives many interesting details in support of this theory. He says:

"A veritable dust ocean lies over towns, often of great depth, yet always having a definite limit above which it is possible to climb and there to find one's self in a pure sky of extraordinary transparency and deepest blue."

In this lofty region, the rays of the sun seem to have no power; in very hot summer weather, the thermometer registered 29 degrees below zero when the balloon had ascended to the height of 27,000 feet.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Foreman pays a parting tribute to Señor Sagasta. Dr. Dillon writes on Macedonia, Venezuela, and the Dardanelles. A writer named "Togatus" pleads for a more intelligible method of presenting the army estimates to the House of Commons.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE *Fortnightly* for February opens with an anonymous paper on "Lord Kitchener and the Indian Army," in which Lord Rosebery is taken to task for underestimating the importance of the Indian command, which the writer maintains will require all Lord Kitchener's administrative and organizing powers. After this follows an analysis of the various departments of the Indian army which require revision, the writer's conclusion being that, though progress in many directions has lately been made, the organization is still much behind the times in a military sense. He insists that the main purpose of the Indian army is not to maintain internal order, but to repel the inevitable Russian invasion.

ENGLAND'S FOOD-SUPPLY IN WAR.

Admiral Fremantle contributes a few pages on this subject, in which he restates the problem without add-

ing anything new to it. He says that no remedy will be effective which does not provide for more of the food being grown at home. If England grew as much wheat as in 1854, she would be enabled to give half rations without importing any food from abroad. As for the navy, she would need 850 cruisers of all classes, whereas she has now only 190. Admiral Fremantle thinks that if the reserves were properly developed there would be enough men to man all these ships.

"It is enough to remark that even a second or third class cruiser cannot be built under two years, while a fair seaman gunner can be trained in six months or less to shoot straight; and surely, with our 123,000 active-service naval ratings, we should be able to afford a nucleus of experienced long-service men-of-war's men."

THE BLUEJACKET-MECHANIC.

"Excubitor," in a paper entitled "Admiral-Engineer and Bluejacket-Mechanic," says:

"The manning of British men-of-war is an anachronism. It is an absurdity that over one-fifth of the crew of the *Hogue* and her sisters should have no special qualification for taking their parts in an action. The time has come when the old system of training and manning must be revised and radically amended so as to suit better the ships of war of to-day, which are highly complex workshops for killing an enemy, and should be provided, not with old-fashioned seamen, with their lore of a bygone art, but with bluejacket-mechanics,—men who are really handy men, able to turn their hand to anything in day of battle, use the bit, handle a chisel, or work with dexterity with a hammer. In short, every officer and man in his majesty's fleet must have some knowledge of the mechanical arrangements on which the fighting efficiency of each ship depends. Many of the mechanical ratings in the fleet are taught how to use the cutlass and rifle; why, then, should not the seamen of the navy be given a limited mechanical training, so as to enable them to become in reality 'handy men' in the rough-and-tumble of battle, when much of the incidental work, which in peace is done by the specialist, will have to be performed by others, either in consequence of casualties among the specialist or because their hands will be too full to enable them to respond to all the calls upon them?"

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. J. L. Bashford writes appreciatively of the German merchant marine. Father Maher deals with Mr. Mallock's attack upon him, maintaining that Mr. Mallock has misstated his arguments. There are four pages by Maeterlinck entitled "Field Flowers," a miracle play by the Hon. Mrs. Anstruther, and several literary papers.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

THE *Quarterly Review* for January publishes no fewer than three signed articles, one of which is illustrated. The signed articles are, however, not the most important or interesting.

SOUTH AMERICAN ANIMALS.

The illustrated paper is Mr. F. Ameghino's essay on "South American Animals and Their Origin." In this paper he gives an account both of living animals and of those that have long since been dead. His pictures show extinct monsters, giant sloths, and other mammals which, happily for mankind, are only to be found

in a fossil state. There is a picture of a giant bird which had a skull as large and as heavy as that of a horse. Mr. Ameghino thinks that South America was at one time connected by isthmuses,—or land bridges, as he calls them,—with Australasia on one side and Africa on the other. He inclines to believe that the ancestors of the South American hoofed mammals must be sought in Africa.

EMILE ZOLA.

Twenty-four pages are devoted to an appreciation of the life and work of Emile Zola. The reviewer is not by any means a mere eulogist of an author who, he complains, represented man exclusively as a huddled unit of a herd of beasts; nevertheless, he admits the intense moral purpose of his writings, and he admits that he has an assured title to fame and immortality for his immense imaginative power. In spite of all his efforts, the poet is constantly discovering himself; the prodigious power of his imagination is unlimited,—it is unparalleled in its continuity and its steadfastness. "We feel confident that his work will survive for its splendid poetical imagery and vision, and that his name will be remembered as that of one who on a great occasion, at the cost of all he held dear, chivalrously raised his voice on behalf of the oppressed, and recalled his country to a sense of justice."

A CONSPECTUS OF SCIENCE.

Sir Michael Foster writes an article under this head which is chiefly devoted to an account of the "International Catalogue of Scientific Literature." This catalogue consists of seventeen closely packed volumes, which are devoted to an index of the scientific publications of a single year. The entries are exclusively confined to papers containing the results of original investigation. The catalogue takes no notice of any book or paper which is not in some way a record of an original scientific discovery, observation, method, or idea. Speaking of the catalogue, Sir Michael Foster says: "As the first fruits of a combined international effort to provide a ready practical analysis of the current scientific literature of the whole world, such as can be used by any man of science, wherever he dwells and whatever be the language he speaks, the volumes possess an interest which reaches beyond science and men of science, and deserve consideration from more points of view than one."

UNIVERSITY REFORM IN INDIA.

The writer of this article describes the recommendations of the university commission which reported last year. The writer advocates the replacing of the universities under European control, and the disuse of their entrance examination as a test for the government service. The central part of the proposed reforms is that the English teachers, or their representatives, should have due control over their own work.

"Inadequate pay, insufficient arrangements for pensions, the inferiority, in the public estimation, of the 'uncovenanted' services to the civil service and the army,—these and other disadvantages mark the grudging recognition which the English mind, especially the official English mind, is apt to pay to the cause of education. . . . It is time that we gave of our best educators, still young and keen and sympathetic, to train her youth in wisdom and strength of character. Side by side with the Indian staff corps and the Indian civil service, we need to establish an Indian educational service, equally honored, as its work is equally honorable ;

for the teacher, no less than the soldier or the councilor, has his share in the high responsibilities of empire."

THE REFORM OF THE PORT OF LONDON.

Even the *Quarterly Review* feels constrained to take up its parable against the scandalous way in which the City Corporation has neglected the welfare of the port of London. The writer strongly advocates the formation of a unified authority, or trust, which should be subsidized by the County Council and the City Corporation. Of the 112 courts of the United Kingdom, the municipality has complete control in 23 and more or less control in 66. The reviewer believes that the port authority will apply, before long, for a provisional order exempting all ships within the port from compulsory pilotage. He also expects that the provision and maintenance of lighthouses will be kept up by the state, as is the case on all other civilized coasts. The abolition of lighthouse dues and compulsory pilotage will reconcile ship-owners to the increased port charges which they will have to pay in the future.

THE FALLIBILITY OF THE BIBLE.

The writer of an article entitled "New Testament Criticism" takes as his starting-point the following statement of the results following the establishment of the antiquity of the human race on earth :

"The statements of fact which the Bible contains are not, by the mere fact that they stand in the Bible, stamped with the divine guarantee of truth. The biblical history may still compare, and we believe that it does compare, very favorably indeed, as history, with the annals of antiquity generally. But on grounds wholly prior to any critical question whatever, it has become impossible to claim that the Bible, in whatever sense divinely inspired, was produced under conditions which elevate it in all respects above the limitations to which everything written by man is subject ; impossible to rule out of court any conclusion of criticism on the sole ground of its collision with categorical words of Holy Scripture."

The reviewer then proceeds to examine the net results of textual and higher criticism in dealing with the New Testament.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The other articles are very considerable and of widely varied literary interest. The articles on "The Queen of the 'Blue-stockings'" and "Diarists of the Last Century" contain a great deal of interesting gossip concerning the world of letters and politics in the last two hundred years. Julia Ady writes enthusiastically about "The Early Art of the Netherlands." "The old Flemish masters," she says, "foremost among painters recognized the greatness and wonder of man and nature ; they were whole-hearted artists, and they attained a degree of finish and brilliancy which has never been surpassed." The review of Mr. Sydney Lee's "Life of Queen Victoria" is disappointing ; the *Quarterly* has accustomed us to better articles than this on the subject of the late Queen. The article on "Recent Sport and Travel" covers a wide field. The paper on the "Game of Speculation" is noticed elsewhere.

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

IN the *Edinburgh Review* for January, the political article entitled "Foreign Politics and Common Sense" passes in review the efforts which are being made to excite ill-feeling against Germany and other countries, and concludes with the following observation :

"In the nearer East, the middle East, and the farther East, existing conditions give rise to very troublesome problems, and troublesome problems are not confined to Asia. Mr. Balfour hopes and believes that the statesmanship of Europe will be found equal to their satisfactory solution. It will greatly assist the efforts of statesmen if the public of the rival countries can manage to retain a sense of proportion in discussing foreign politics. The real questions of the future are of the deepest importance; why, then, should every trumpety vexatious incident that may make discord between nations be employed to exasperate against each other those whose friendly dispositions are essential to the future peace of the world?"

THE PROGRESS OF MEDICINE SINCE 1808.

This paper is a painstaking, not particularly brilliant, survey of the advance that has been made in the healing art within the last hundred years. Anesthetics, antiseptics, antitoxin, are the three great divisions under which these improvements are marshaled, and to these must be added the X ray, the light treatment for lupus, and the discovery of the part which the mosquito plays in malarial fever.

HENRY JAMES AS A NOVELIST.

Henry James, who was born in 1843 and published his first tale in 1866, has been describing his impressions for thirty-six years, in the course of which he has written thirty-four books. The reviewer praises him very highly, but, he says:

"He knows so intimately the human heart, he has unraveled such a complexity of human motive, yet he has only once painted in woman an overmastering passion, and his analyses of motive have taught us chiefly how much we do not know. He has shirked no segment of the social circle, he has painted the magnificence and the pathetic meagerness of existence, yet he has scarcely drawn across one of his pages the sense of its struggle,—that endless groan of labor which is the ground bass of life."

But, nevertheless and notwithstanding, the reviewer concludes by saying:

"If he has dropped a line but rarely into the deep waters of life, his soundings have so added to our knowledge of its shallows that no student of existence can afford to ignore his charts."

EMILE ZOLA.

The article on Zola is chiefly devoted to an analysis and criticism of his three books on his three cities—*Lourdes*, *Rome*, and *Paris*. The art of Zola was that of a scene-painter, strong and vivid, his reproductions of places were lifelike, and his "*Rome*" is the very best guide-book that has ever been written even for *Rome*. His instinct for the nauseous bordered on genius, and it was equalled by his skill in presenting it. An immense pity for mankind filled him; the beauty and the

joy of the world escaped him; he saw only its reverse side,—its cruelty, its wretchedness, and its pain. His talent was that of a supremely clever journalist,—he never could get away from the standpoint of the average man. In his trilogy of three cities he embodied his philosophy and set forth his criticism of life. He saw things for the most part on the surface, and the impression left is one of superficiality and limitation. Nevertheless, the reviewer is constrained to pay a tribute of praise to Zola, whose immortal honor it is that in the Dreyfus case, in the eternal battle between light and darkness, he struck unhesitatingly and without flinching the side of light.

A PLEA FOR FACTORY LEGISLATION.

An article entitled "The Past and Future of Factory Legislation" leads up to the following conclusion:

"We all see now that the bodily and mental health and vigor of the industrial classes form an asset of priceless value in the fierce and ever-intensifying economic struggle between Britain and her eager and powerful rivals. We know, or may obtain the knowledge, how to preserve and develop that asset, so far as it depends on industrial conditions. If as a nation we do not avail ourselves of the means thus ready to our hands,—if we do not give our best help toward the extension and realization of the best intentions of our Parliament for the preservation and enhancement of the economic efficiency of the people,—we shall certainly not deserve to escape from the consequences which such apathy and self-indulgence must inevitably entail."

MODERN MOTOR CARS.

The reviewer says that steam is the best for heavy work in a hilly district, but in the hands of a novice the steam motor has the greatest possibility of accident. An electric motor is the best for town work, but it is restricted to a range of thirty or forty miles. The petrol car is least liable to accident, its range is two hundred miles, and its great defects are noise, smell, and vibration. The reviewer pleads for greater elasticity by permitting higher speeds on country roads, and urges that a departmental committee or a royal commission should be appointed to provide a basis for legislation and to advise as to the best method of reforming the existing system of highway administration.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The article on "Pan-Slavism in the Near East" is chiefly interesting for the account which it gives of the operations of the Imperial Palestine Society and the opposition offered to Russian propaganda by Turks, Greeks, Jews, French, Italians, Germans, English, and Americans. The first article is devoted to the account of the blockade of Brest at the beginning of the last century. The article on "Double Stars" will be chiefly interesting to astronomers.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

LA REVUE.

"**L**A REVUE" for January keeps up its reputation as the most actual of French monthly publications. The number for January 1 opens with a long unsigned article on the great crisis in the French Church, in which the repeated warnings which we have lately had as to the danger of disruption within the Church are repeated. During four or five years, there

have been annually two hundred secessions of priests from the French Church, while the number who remain, but who would fain secede, is innumerable. These priests remain in the Church, not because they have kept the faith, but for fear of misery and hunger. This writer says: "This I affirm because I know it, because my desk is full of letters of pitiful confidence on this subject, and because I receive, constantly, visits from

priests who come to confide in me their distress." And Italy is in the same way as France "a prey to the spirit of independence and revolt."

La Revue also publishes the second installment of Count Tolstoy's "Political Science and Money," in which the count denounces money as "the new and terrible form of personal slavery which depraves slave and master." M. Finot contributes a short but interesting paper on "Thuggee in India," under the title of "The Religion of Murder," and announces the republication in book form of his series, of which this article forms part, entitled "Among the Saints and the Possessed."

Kammerer contributes a paper on the Republic of Andorra. Andorra is under the joint suzerainty of France and of the Spanish Bishop of Seo d'Urgel. The inhabitants seem to live chiefly by contrabandage, and in other respects to be models of virtue. They have no prisons, and send their criminals to France for incarceration. The capital of the republic contains only 600 inhabitants, and the president draws a salary of only 160 francs a year. There are no roads in the country, nobody worth more than \$10,000, and the taxes *per capita* amount to 25 centimes per annum.

In the number for January 15, M. de Norvins continues his illustrated papers on "The Trust Mania," and M. L. de Persigny writes on the famous Ems dispatch which precipitated the war of 1870-71. M. Camille Melinaud writes on "The Idea of Punishment as a Moral Prejudice," concluding that reward and punishment must come from within and not from without. Wickedness does not deserve suffering, nor virtue happiness. "The man truly wise must desire the happiness of all his kind, wicked as well as good." The same number contains a translation of the first part of one of Korolenko's characteristic stories; a paper by Emile Gautier on "The Philosophy of Digestion;" and an article by A. de Roy on "George Sand, Liszt, and Chopin."

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

THE *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January is not very rich in articles of general interest. We have noticed elsewhere M. de Fonville's paper on aerial navigation, and Mme. Carlier's journal, kept during the Armenian massacres.

M. Pierre Loti continues his intensely interesting Indian articles with two papers on famine-stricken India, including Haidarabad, Golconda, Udaipur, Jaipur, and Gwalior. M. Loti almost surpasses himself in his description of Golconda, which was for three centuries one of the marvels of Asia, and of which the ruins of cyclopean grandeur must affect profoundly even the least imaginative spectator. The Indian legend is that these great blocks of masonry represent the surplus of material which God had left over when He had finished creating the world, and which He consequently tossed away, and they happened to fall here. Here lie buried the ancient kings of Golconda, and their tombs, thanks to the respect which Indians paid to death, seem to have escaped the surrounding desolation, and the funeral gardens are still piously tended. But it is useless to give a mere catalogue of what M. Loti saw. The charm and vividness of his style it is impossible to convey in any summary. Unforgettable also are his descriptions of the famine-stricken population, and of the poor little skeletons, with their great brilliant eyes, who sing the song of famine. He also draws for us with terrible vivid-

ness a picture of the loads of rice being carried past these starving wretches to the towns for the benefit of those who had money to buy the precious grains.

M. Loti went to visit the Maharajah of Meswar, and it is interesting to note that this prince, though he is building a new palace, prefers the old dwelling-place of his ancestors, so that he, at any rate, is not so much in love with Western fashions as to bear out the charge which Lord Curzon recently brought against the Indian princes as a whole.

REVUE DE PARIS.

WE have noticed elsewhere M. Corday's account of "Life in a French Open-Air Cure." As regards other articles in the *Revue de Paris* for January, the amazing domination of the great Napoleon over the literary section of the twentieth-century world remains as strong as ever.

LUCIEN BONAPARTE.

The editors give the place of honor in their January numbers to an account of Lucien Bonaparte, the one of Napoleon's brothers of whom the world knows comparatively little, although in some ways Lucien was the most romantic member of that wonderful family. He married for love, greatly to his brother's anger, and, further, refused, with great courage, the latter's order to him to obtain a divorce in order that he might contract a grander marriage. This proposal was the more monstrous in that Lucien had by the time been married many years, and was the father of several children, notably a very charming daughter named Charlotte. The whole story,—one which throws a very curious light on the Emperor's character, and even on that of his mother, the redoubtable Madame Mère,—is told by M. Masson, who is becoming the leading authority on the Bonaparte family. Lucien remained true to the wife of his youth, and actually took the important step of emigrating with her and their six children. The whole party started for America, being accompanied by seventeen servants, which shows that Lucien had no notion of giving up his position as brother of the great Napoleon. At Malta, however, the whole party was stopped, and M. Masson publishes a curious letter from the then Marquis of Wellesley (later Duke of Wellington), informing Lucien that the King of England would neither allow him to stop in Malta nor to go on to America, but was willing to allow him to reside in the United Kingdom. Accordingly, this plan was put into execution, and Lucien, his wife, and their children spent some time in England. Thus, the all-conquering Corsican had the humiliation of feeling, not only that he had been beaten in a family quarrel by his favorite brother, but also that the latter had been practically taken prisoner by the English.

THEOPHILE GAUTIER'S DAUGHTER.

Mme. Judith Gautier continues her charming reminiscences of her childhood and youth, and those who wish to realize what French family life is at its best, even when spent in a wholly Bohemian and literary circle, should read these pages,—the more so that there are occasionally references to men and women whose fame is world-wide. Touching and absurd, for instance, is the account of a short sojourn made by the Gautiers in London. "We once saw Thackeray; he seemed colossal and superb, and was very kind to my sister and myself. I remember that he admired the way we did our

hair, and asked us to give him details as to how the effect was produced, in order that he might tell his daughters."

OF INTEREST TO NAVAL EXPERTS.

The second number of the *Revue* opens with an anonymous paper dealing with the French navy, or, rather, with the important question as to what kind of vessel is the most valuable from a defensive and combative point of view. The writer does not believe in large men-of-war; on the other hand, he is inclined to suspect that the practical utility of submarines has been overrated, and fears that the French are about to attach to their excellent submarine fleet more importance than is wise. The paper, which is highly technical, should prove of interest to naval men of all ranks.

Other articles consist of a number of letters written in Morocco by a French officer some twelve years ago; a curious reconstitution of the life of a great Roman financier, Caius Curtius, who seems to have flourished about 50 B.C.; and an elaborate account of the relations between Germany and Venezuela as seen through French eyes before the Anglo-German alliance had been made public.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE editors of the *Nouvelle Revue* give the place of honor for January to a long and cleverly illustrated article on Madagascar, and the part taken by General Gallieni in making the island, as he claims to have done, an ideal colony. The writer of the paper claims that in this soldier France has a remarkable organizer, and certainly, if only half of what is here told is true, Gallieni may look forward to a great career at home.

IS THERE A MUSSULMAN PERIL?

Yes, says M. Pommerol, whose book is reviewed in the *Revue*. Europe has sometimes discussed the yellow peril; she should rather fear a Mohammedan peril, for even now there is much to show that the more ambitious followers of Mohammed are only biding their time to make a determined effort to reconquer North Africa and a portion of Asia. How many of us realize that there are at this moment 200,000,000 living Mohammedans, and further, that they are increasing at a rate unknown among the other great religions of the world, for Mohammed makes converts, and serious converts, not only in China and India, but also in central Africa. Many of these men are first-rate soldiers, and as time goes on they are being armed by their foreign masters with the newest engines of war.

A LACK OF CONSCRIPTS.

Yet another paper which deals indirectly with coming conflicts refers to the army of to-morrow. Even now, French military authorities are very much divided as to whether the largest army is the most efficient army. It is to be hoped, from the French point of view, that numbers do not spell strength, for every year it becomes more and more difficult to obtain sufficient recruits, every kind of excuse being brought forward; in fact, the very term "compulsory military service" is becoming, in France, a farce. And, of course, the more intelligent and the better educated the unwilling conscript be, the more easy he finds it to invent an excuse which will release him from many weary years spent in the ranks!

FINLAND: RUSSIA'S CASE.

A Russian, who does not sign his name, attempts to make his French readers understand the Russian point of view about Finland, and it must be admitted that he makes out a very good case. He points out that when Finland belonged to Sweden, Finnish patriots were quite as opposed to Swedish laws and Swedish authority as they are now to Russian, and yet now these very same people set up Swedish manners, Swedish customs, and even Swedish law, in opposition to those of their new masters; and this although in the Middle Ages, and later, Finland was far more Russian than anything else. The writer attempts to prove that the situation in Finland is much what would be that in Alsace-Lorraine were the conquered provinces to become once more French and then to cling with redoubled energy to German customs, to the German language, and even to the German form of religion!

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE *Rivista Moderna*, which is an organ of advanced thought, writes with positive virulence in favor of the divorce bill now before the Italian Chamber. In the opinion of R. Simonini, marriage is vitiated by its irreparable character, and to the enlightened society of the future the indissolubility of the marriage tie will appear monstrous and inexplicable. However this may be, Mrs. Humphry Ward will certainly be surprised to learn that "Robert Elsmere" supplies an argument in favor of divorce.

Emportum starts the new year with an excellent number, containing, among others, a well-timed and profusely illustrated article on the Brera Gallery at Milan, which has recently been subjected to a thorough rehanging and overhauling by the curator, Corrado Ricci.

The *Nuova Antologia* is scarcely up to its usual level of excellence this month. The editor, Maggiorino Ferraris, summarizes the financial progress of Italy during the year 1902 in an article bristling with facts and figures. Less serious reading is provided by A. Panzini, who describes the castle of Miramar, near Trieste, and by R. Garzia, who contributes an illustrated account of the development of church architecture in Sardinia.

The *Rassegna Nazionale* continues its agitation against dueling, and issues sheets for the signatures of adherents to the Italian Anti-Dueling League. Lovers of Napoleonic lore will be interested in an account of the Emperor's life on the island of Elba. The *Rassegna* also publishes a long article on the lamentable condition of the little Italian boys sent into slavery in the glass factories of France, but the author adds little to what has already been published on the subject. It is curious to observe that both an American and an English novel, one by Sarah Orne Jewett, the other by Mrs. Hungerford, are being run simultaneously as rivals.

GERMAN MAGAZINES.

ULRICH VON HASSELL, in *Monatsschrift für Stadt und Land*, gives some interesting information about Germany's early relations with Venezuela. Of course, his article was written previous to the bombardment of San Carlos, and therefore gives no information on that incident. It appears that in 1535 the Augsburg banking house of Welser had accepted

the almost unknown land now called Venezuela as security for sums lent to the Spanish Government. Spaniards and Germans wanted nothing but gold, and more gold, from Venezuela and the unfortunate inhabitants. Every means, even murder, was resorted to to get gold. After all, civilization has not progressed very much since then. This attempt at colonization on the part of the Germans was an utter failure, and the house of Welser was ruined thereby. The Spaniards were supported by their government, and succeeded in driving out the inhabitants and settling there themselves. To-day, three hundred and sixty years later, German merchants have succeeded by peaceful means in establishing themselves in Venezuela. There are forty German places of business in the larger towns. Germans own land, chiefly coffee plantations, valued at \$5,000,000. The principal railway was built and is controlled by Germans. In other ways, the situation has changed. Then the house of Welser was backed by Charles V., who could hardly be called a German prince. Now, Germans in Venezuela have behind them the German Empire and a real German Emperor—a state of things with which every German should be as pleased as with the fact that German and English warships are united for common action.

HELMHOLTZ THE PHYSIOLOGIST.

The most interesting article in the *Deutsche Rundschau* is contributed by M. von Brandt. He deals with the miners' strike in America and the problem of the trusts. H. Oldenberg concludes his series of articles on the literature of ancient India. Marie von Bunsen concludes her life-study from the eighteenth century, entitled "Mary Delany." "The Memoirs of August Schneegans," the first installment of which is published in this month's magazine, should prove interesting. He was born in 1835, in Strasburg; was therefore an Alsatian, but was loyal to Germany. He was the founder of the Autonomy party in Strasburg. He was elected to the Reichstag after the war, and in 1879 became counsel of the ministry in Strasburg. He resigned because of the attacks made on him for his German leanings. He became consul at Ravenna in 1890, and died as consul-general at Genoa in 1898.

The *Deutsche Revue* contains few articles of general interest. Leo Koenigsberger writes upon Helmholtz as professor of physiology in Heidelberg. He had then but recently been married, but his library and work-room were already under the charge of his wife, and in consequence, order began to reign there at last. Just before her marriage, she wrote to him rejoicing that she had found a human failing in him—namely, his untidiness, and the disorder in which his writing-table was generally found. She prophesied that before long she would sort things up with an energetic hand,—and apparently she carried out her intention.

THE DUTCH MAGAZINES.

THE First Exhibition of Modern Decorative Art in Turin gives a writer in *Elsevier* an opportunity for a well-illustrated article on the Dutch contribution to the show. There are illustrations of smiths' work, architecture, sculpture, and porcelain, naturally including some samples of the famous Delft ware. The Dutch make a good exhibit at this international exposition,

and if other countries send contributions to equal or approach it, the result ought to be excellent and take many visitors to what some Italians call the "cold Northern city."

"Wig Time" is an article on the customs and costumes of the Dutch during the eighteenth century. The writer describes the dwelling-house with the fantastic figures of lions and escutcheons outside, and the attempts, sometimes grotesque from a modern point of view, at ornamentation within. The ways of the people, especially the women folk, are sketched, and the reader is referred to the Royal Museum and other institutions for pictures of these ladies. Some of the illustrations are curious, showing various fashions of dressing the head and hair. The writer points out that modern Dutch ideas sprang, to a great extent, from these eighteenth-century notions, which is not a very surprising fact.

THE BOER WOMEN.

In *De Gids*, Mr. Andriessen gives us a sketch of the Boer women which is full of sympathetic admiration. Beginning with a quietly stirring account of the reception of the news that peace had been concluded on that Sunday evening in 1902, he refers to the heroic struggle made by the Boers against the might of Great Britain, and then says that behind the Boers was something—a force—that urged them on. That force was the influence of their women folk, so ready to help and to suffer for the cause of the fatherland. To properly understand the Boer women, says Mr. Andriessen, you must know their history; and he tells us all about it, beginning with 1650, when the old Dutch East India Company asked the women of Holland to send some of their poorer sisters to the Cape as wives for the almost womenless colonists. All through the struggles of the Boers in South Africa have the women been a strong force, and their influence culminated in the war so recently ended.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Quack gives us another article of a socialistic nature, by dealing with yet another old English writer, John Francis Bray, and his book on "Labour's Wrongs and Labour's Remedies." "Unequal exchanges" between capital and labor is the keynote. "The workmen have given the capitalist the labor of a whole year in exchange for the value of only half a year."

Professor van Hamel has an interesting article on a philological subject, and the remaining contents include the first installment of a novel, "In High Regions," by G. van Hulzen.

We welcome a new arrival in *Onze Eeuw* (Our Century), which somewhat resembles *De Gids* in style. It opens with a study of Dutch colonization as it affects India and Africa, followed by a story, and essays on Attic speech, or Attic eloquence, and the benefit to modern peoples of a study of that eloquence as shown in Greek authors, Byzantium, and Dante in Paradise. The last-named is specially interesting.

Vragen des Tijds again deals with the housing question, this time in connection with the proposed international congress on the subject, to be held in 1905. The circumstances differ so greatly, not only in different countries, but in different towns of the same country, that it seems impossible to lay down general rules; yet a congress may be of great utility in solving a vexed question.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

VOLUMES OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

Nearly all of the most entertaining and most important among the travel books published within the past ten years have been concerned with Asia. In that vast continent great tracts of country still remain that may be as fitly labeled "unexplored" as any region of Darkest Africa itself; but the works of Sven Hedin, Dr. G. Frederick Wright, Sir Henry Norman, and others have added greatly to the Anglo-Saxon stock of knowledge concerning those distant lands and peoples. A traveler who has done much in recent years to make accessible to English readers a body of reliable information relating to Tibet and other portions of interior Asia is Mr. A. Henry Savage Landor. A new work in two volumes by this author, entitled "Across Coveted Lands" (Scribners), has to do with the somewhat better-known route through Persia from northwest to southeast. Mr. Landor describes the manners and customs of the people in detail. Reproductions of many photographs taken by him on this journey add impressiveness to the author's pen pictures of present-day social and economic conditions in the Shah's dominions.

"Around the World through Japan," by Walter Del Mar (Macmillan), is a volume of notes and impressions the interest of which is largely personal. The writer's judgments are distinctly unfavorable to many phases of the Japanese character, and to many his strictures will doubtless seem unduly severe. The book is illustrated from photographs.

An English artist's studies in Egypt are embodied in a volume by R. Talbot Kelly, published in London by Adam and Charles Black, and in the United States by the Macmillan Company. The reproductions (in color) from Mr. Kelly's paintings, while not uniformly successful from the artistic point of view, at least serve the present purpose well by affording a graphic representation of the life and the scenery described in the text. Mr. Kelly has been a resident of Egypt for many years. In all that time he has been a faithful and sympathetic student of the institutions of the country, and especially of Mohammedan art. To American readers, Mr. Kelly is chiefly known through his contributions on Egyptian subjects to the *Century Magazine*, several of which are included in the present volume.

Since the Spanish-American War, there has been a revival of interest on this side of the Atlantic in all things Spanish. Among the books that have been recently written with a view to satisfying the demand for information about that ancient land is a volume by Dr. Jeremiah Zimmerman, entitled "Spain and Her People" (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.). Dr. Zimmerman has made an extended tour through the country, visiting many quaint and out-of-the-way towns and villages, and closely observing the customs and conditions of the people. There is much to be learned from Dr. Zimmerman's book regarding the commercial and industrial interests of the country and their promise for the future.

Mrs. James Edwin Morris has written an account of "A Tour in Mexico" (New York: The Abbey Press),

illustrated by some seventy photographs taken by the author. The principal cities and towns of Mexico, as well as the most interesting regions and many of the mountains and table-lands, are described by Mrs. Morris with great amplitude of detail.

In "Mont Pelée and the Tragedy of Martinique," by Angelo Heilprin (Lippincott), we have the most authoritative account of the great eruptions of 1902 from a scientist's point of view that has yet been published. Professor Heilprin visited Martinique shortly after the great eruption of May 8, and again in August, when it was his privilege to be a close witness of the second great death-dealing eruption of Mont Pelée. He has had quite



PROFESSOR ANGELO HEILPRIN.

exceptional opportunities for scientific observations of volcanic phenomena, and in the present volume he embodies full accounts of the observations thus made. A remarkable feature of this work is the series of photographs taken by the author himself, representing the consecutive stages in the paroxysmal eruption of a very active volcano.

"Highways and Byways in London," by Mrs. E. T. Cook (Macmillan), is a chatty and entertaining description of the sights of the modern metropolis, with numerous references, of course, to historical associations of this and that locality. The book has been illustrated by Hugh Thomson and F. L. Griggs.

BOOKS ABOUT ART AND ARTISTS.

The triumphant success of the half-tone in magazine and book illustration sometimes leads to the hasty inference that wood engraving is already a lost art. The work of such a master among the wood engravers as

Timothy Cole, much of which has been done since the era of process pictures began, is enough to convince the most radical advocate of the mechanical process that engraving on wood still has its distinctive function, which no technical perfection in mechanism can take away. Mr. Cole's volumes on "Old Italian Masters" and "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters," in which are reproduced upon wood many of the most famous paintings in the European galleries, are now followed by "Old English Masters" (Century Company), containing forty-eight specimens of Mr. Cole's work and representing such painters as Hogarth, Reynolds, Gainsborough, Lawrence, Turner, Constable, Wilkie, and Landseer. Biographical and historical notes on eighteenth-century art in England have been furnished by Prof. John C. Van Dyke to accompany Mr. Cole's engravings. There are also valuable notes on the paintings by the engraver himself.

Another work that reminds us of the honor once accorded to the engraver's art is Lady Dilke's "French Engravers and Draughtsmen of the Eighteenth Century" (Macmillan). This volume not only reproduces many rare prints, but contains a mass of curious information not easily accessible even in French literature



LADY DILKE.

and certainly never before brought together in any English publication.

All art-lovers will value the unusual opportunity for the study of the works of Corot and Millet presented in the annual supplement to the *International Studio* (New York: John Lane), edited by Mr. Charles Holme. This volume contains critical essays by M. Gustave Geffroy and M. Arsène Alexandre, translated from the French by Mr. Edgar Preston, and notes on the etchings of Millet have been contributed by Mr. Frederick Koppel. In the matter of illustration all the modern processes of reproduction have been utilized in presenting many of the choicest etchings, sketches in chalk and

water color, and oil paintings of these famous French masters. Many of the most notable collections in Europe have been freely drawn upon in assembling the originals of these pictures, and it is safe to say that the art of both Corot and Millet has been fully and fairly represented in this book. Short of access to the masterpieces themselves, which is denied to most people, the most satisfactory key to the interpretation of the artists and their work is afforded by these studies.

In Mr. Charles H. Caffin's "American Masters of Painting" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), we have brief appreciations of a dozen American painters whose art is everywhere recognized as truly representative. Not to name them all, Mr. Caffin's inclusion of such men as Inness, La Farge, Whistler, Sargent, Homer, Fuller, and Abbey in his list sufficiently indicates the range of these critical and biographical studies. Mr. Caffin's writings are notably free from technical discursiveness; his style is clear and pointed. There is also a freedom from obtrusive prejudice in his estimates of living artists. His essays are decidedly helpful to the reader seeking to gain a reasonably clear comprehension of the aims and tendencies of American art. In the illustrated edition of "American Masters" there are reproductions of many of the best examples of the painters' work.

Late issues in Bell's "Miniature Series of Painters" (Macmillan) are "Sir Edward Burne-Jones," by Malcolm Bell; "Frederic, Lord Leighton," by George C. Williamson; "Corregio," by Leader Scott; "Alma Tadema," by Helen Zimmern; "Holman Hunt," by George C. Williamson; and "Greuze," by Harold Armitage. These little books are so excellent and useful in their way that we wonder why greater care was not taken in the preparation of some of their minor features. Thus, in the list of Alma Tadema's pictures, with which it is attempted to give the names of owners as far as they can be ascertained, half a score of paintings are indefinitely assigned to "America." It stimulates the curiosity of the American reader to learn that these masterpieces are owned by some of his countrymen, but why should not the book locate for us so famous a painting as "The Coliseum," which is one of the seven specimens of the artist's work selected for reproduction? Is a painting lost to the world of art when it comes to America?

The Rev. Amory H. Bradford, D.D., has written "Messages of the Masters" (Crowell), a series of spiritual interpretations of great paintings. The author frankly disclaims the rôle of art critic, and states that his object in writing the essays was either to interpret the spiritual meaning of the painters or to follow the suggestions of their work. Thus, the book is essentially a treatment of art masterpieces from a religious point of view. The pictures considered are "The Nativity" by Burne-Jones, "The Sistine Madonna" of Raphael, "Les Nuées" by Giron, "The Holy Family" by Murillo, "Christ on the Cross" by Munkacsy, "The Pilot" by Renouf, "Sir Galahad" by Watts, "The Light of the World" by Holman Hunt, "The Old Téméraire" by Turner, and "The Transfiguration" by Raphael. Each chapter is illustrated by a full-page photogravure of the painting under consideration.

In Bell's series of "Handbooks of the Great Craftsmen" (Macmillan) there is a volume devoted to Peter Vischer, the great German bronze worker who lived at Nuremberg in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The author, Mr. Cecil Headlam, writes with enthusi-

asm of this idealist among the early craftsmen who was all his life developing and adopting the new ideas and revelations of Italian art, discarding the traditions in which he had been brought up.

Prof. John V. Van Pelt, of the College of Architecture, Cornell University, has written "A Discussion of Composition, Especially as Applied to Architecture" (Macmillan). This work is intended for the general public



JEAN-BAPTISTE CAMILLE COROT.

as well as for students of the subject. Of the six parts into which the book is divided, the first treats of the general laws of character in art; the second of general technical laws; the last four contain theoretical discussions of decoration and plan, and offer practical suggestions. All who are in any way concerned with building operations, whether on a large or a small scale, will find valuable hints in this treatise, while for those who wish a brief and clear exposition of architecture as an art, Professor Van Pelt's method of dealing with the subject is in the main highly satisfactory.

"Representative Art of Our Time" (New York: Office of the *International Studio*) is a collection of original etchings and lithographs and reproductions of paintings, pastels, etc. The first of the eight parts in which the publication is to appear contains an etching by Edgar Chahine, a monotype in colors by Alfred East, a pastel by E. Aman-Jean, a wood engraving by W. O. J. Nieuwenkamp, a tinted chalk drawing by G. Dupois, and a water-color by Josef Israëls. Purchasers of this interesting work, which is sold by subscription, obtain not only a choice collection of pictures, but also an important essay in each part on some phase of modern art, written by an acknowledged authority. In the first part, there is a good exposition of "The Modern Aspect of Wood Engraving" by Charles Hiatt.

TREATISES ON COOKERY.

The new cook books that have appeared within the past twelvemonth would make a small library of themselves. We venture no opinion as to the comparative merits or demerits of individual books, but so far as we may judge from the externals, we should say that the publishers of the "old stand-bys" in this field will have to bestir themselves, lest their new rivals capture their constituencies. Here, for instance, is Harper's "Cook Book Encyclopædia." We should call it the REVIEW OF REVIEWS of the culinary art, but for the fact that it is built on the dictionary plan,—that is, the arrangement of the material is alphabetical by topics. As a reference book it is a model of convenience, simplicity, and completeness. Experts in cookery have contributed to its pages, and the volume has been edited by the able and gifted editor of *Harper's Bazar*.

Hardly less comprehensive is "Mrs. Seely's Cook Book" (Macmillan), a manual of French and American cookery. A special feature of this work is the exposition of the rights and duties of servants, which occupies the first forty pages.

"Practical Cooking and Serving," by Janet McKenzie Hill (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is a book quite outside the category of ordinary cooking manuals. In the first place, it has a distinctively scientific basis; the author has begun with a study of the chemical composition of the various food products. Furthermore, as a partial result of this scientific method in the preparation of the book, the matter is arranged in a more systematic manner than is usual in such works.

Mr. Sidney H. Beard's "Comprehensive Guide-Book to Natural, Hygienic, and Humane Diet" (Crowell) is a vegetarian cook book. It is evidently not put forth with a view to the converting of the flesh-eating world by argument, but rather as an attempt to answer practical questions in a direct and practical way. It assumes that the meat-eaters are ready, in this period of high prices, to adopt adequate substitutes, and it proceeds to tell us what the vegetarians have learned in regard to the possibilities of salads, soups, etc., of a purely vegetable composition.

"Luncheons: A Cook's Picture-Book," by Mary Ronald (Century Company), is a supplement to the "Century Cook Book," and hence it gives no general rules for cooking. It is well illustrated, as its title implies, and should prove suggestive in a thousand ways to mistress and maid. It is so arranged that housekeepers may readily make up a menu.

It is something of a relief to turn from this accumulation of kitchen handbooks, excellent and useful as they are, to Mr. George H. Ellwanger's frankly unpractical historical account of "The Pleasures of the Table" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). Never before, we are told, has the full history of the science of eating from the earliest times been written. Mr. Ellwanger has mastered the literature and aesthetics of the subject, and has made a really interesting book.

Another volume of quaint and curious interest is "With a Saucepan Over the Sea," by Adelaide Keen (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The book is made up of recipes from foreign countries, and embodies much information that has heretofore been inaccessible, so far as Americans were concerned.

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Punch, Some Precursors and Competitors of—II., F. C. Burnand, PMM.
Raeburn, Sir Henry, R. A. M. Stevenson, Bkman.
Reformation Period, Pictures of the, Miss J. M. Stone, Dub.
St. Louis Exposition, Sculptural Embellishments at the, E. T. Henderson, BP.
Sardinia, History of Art in, R. Garzia, NA, January 16.
Society of Western Artists, Work of the, C. M. Kurtz, BP.
Tariff on Works of Art, Abolition of the, BP.
Van der Stratens, Georges, Sculptor, F. Lees, Arch.
Villa d'Este, Tivoli, Evelyn M. Phillips, MonR.
Waterlow, Sir Ernest Albert, E. Staley, AJ.
Artillery, French Rapid-Fire Field, A. Hero, Jr., JMSI.
"Asia and Europe," E. R. Bevan, MonR.
Astronomy of the Unseen, R. A. Gregory, Corn.
Astronomy, Science of, A. Hall, PopS.
Atonement, Modern Theories of the, B. B. Warfield, PTR.
Aurora Borealis, The, F. W. Stokes, Cent.
Australia, Health Conditions in, F. L. Oswald, San.
Australia, Naval Defense of, RRM, December.
Australian Naval Defense, T. H. Smeaton, USM.
Bacon-Shakespeare Question, New Facts Relating to the—II., W. H. Mallock, PMM.
Bacteria, Relation of, to Disease, H. J. Lipps, San.
Bank of England's Weekly Accounts, A. W. Kerr, BankNY, January.
Banking in Great Britain and Ireland in 1902—II., BankL.
Barrett, Eaton Stannard, Mary Moss, Bkman.
Barrie, J. M., as a Dramatist, J. M. Bulloch, Lamp.
Beaconsfield, Viscountess, J. H. Harris, Gent.
Belgian University Extension, E. Rod, RGen, January.
Belmont, August, R. H. Graves, Cos.
Bible, Interpretation of the, G. G. Findlay, LQ, January.
Bible, Latest Translation of the—IV., H. M. Whitney, BibS.
Bible, Literary Loss of the, R. Ogden, Cent.
Birds: A Case of Protective Coloring, L. A. Fuertes, CLA.
Birds, Classification of Certain Groups of, R. W. Shufeldt, ANat, January.
Birds: Passing of the Pigeons, C. W. Nash, Can.
Bird-Song, Development of, R. McLeod, LQ, January.
Bismarck, Otto von, and his Early Education, A. Rutari, Kind.
Björnson, Björnsterne, Out; Dial, January 16.
Blockades, L. Irwell, GBag.
Bonaparte, Lucien, F. Masson, RPar, January 1 and 15.
Boston Commerce, Episodes of, M. A. De Wolfe Howe, Atlant.
Boston, Literary Age of, G. E. Woodberry, Harp.
Boston: New Home of the Woman's Club House Corporation, J. M. Chaplin, NatM.
Brest, Blockade of, Edin, January.
Bride, The American, H. H. Boyesen, 2d, Cos.
Brooke, James, Rajah of Sarawak, H. S. Canfield, Ev.
Brooks, Phillips: An Estimation, W. Gladden, NAR.
Browning, Robert and Elizabeth, in Italy, Mary B. Whiting, TW.
Brussels Sugar Convention, M. W. Ridley, NatR.
Cables Across the Pacific, T. C. Martin, AMRR.
Cain's Wife: Who Was She? W. H. Kesteven, NineC.
Caissons, E. S. Valentine, Str.
Calvin, Brunetiere on the Work of, H. D. Foster, BibS.
Camel in War, J. du Taillis, Nou, January 1.
Campbell, Thomas, the Poet, L. Campbell, MonR.
Campbell-Bannerman, Sir Henry, J. McCarthy, Out.
Canada, Lower: The Children of the Bush, L. Hubbard, Jr., O.
Cannon, Joseph G., The Next Speaker, W. L. McPherson, Mun.
Carnation and How to Grow It, E. Lonsdale, CLA.
Casanova, Jacques, C. Whibley, Mac.
Catherwood, Mary Hartwell, W. E. Simonds, Crit.
Charles II., Eldest Son of, P. Sidney, West.
Chesterton, G. K., C. F. G. Masterman, Bkman.
China, Railways in, D. C. Boulger, Contem.
China, Roads in, F. H. Nichols, O.
Chinamen, The, in the United States, A. Inkersley, FRL.
Christ of the Koran, F. R. Wagner, Luth, January.
Christian Experience, Psychology of, A. A. Berle, BibS.
Christian Science—III., "Mark Twain," NAR.
Christianity, Dr. Cremer on the Essence of, C. E. Hay, Luth.
Church and the World, U. A. Hankey, Luth, January.
Church of England; The Ebb and Flow of the Oxford Movement, W. Braithwaite, Cath.
City Transportation, I., G. d'Arvenel, RDM, February 1.
Clark, William Andrews, H. R. Knapp, Cos.
Clay, Henry, as a Lawyer, ALR.
Climate and Man, W. M. Wilson, San.
Coal Deposits of the Northwest, F. A. Wilder, AMRR.
Coal Regions, Child Labor in the, F. H. Nichols, McCl.
Coal Strike, Anthracite, RRM, December.
Coal Strike, Passing of the, J. Cummings, JPEcon, December.
Cochin, Augustin, L. Lefebvre, RDM, January 15.
Cock Shooting in Canada, A. P. Silver, Bad.
Combustion in the Living Organism, K. B. Hofmann, Deut, January.

- Conspiracy, Judge-Made Law of, F. P. Blair, ALR.
 Cost Keeping for Moderate-Sized Shops, H. L. Arnold, Eng.
 Country Home, Making of a—XII., The Renter in a Country Town, A. French, CLA.
 Country Life, In Praise of, Irene Sargent, Crafts.
 Courage or What? Some Incidents of Service in the Philippines and China, O. K. Davis, Ev.
 Court, The Opinions of the, C. Caverno, ALR.
 Crop Statistics, Adjustment of, H. P. Willis, JPEcon, December.
 Currency, Elasticity in the, W. B. Ridgely, BankNY, January.
 Czars, The Romanoff, R. H. Titherington, Mun.
 Dam, Power, The Greatest, C. E. Parsons, FrL.
 Damascus, D. Hunter, Cos.
 Damascus, Water Supply of, E. W. G. Masterman, Bib.
 Darwinism in the Light of Modern Criticism, T. H. Morgan, Harp.
 Del Mar, Eugene, Sketch of, C. B. Patterson, Mind.
 Delaware, Addicks and, True Story of, G. Kennan, Out.
 Diarists of the Last Century, QR, January.
 Dickens, Charles, The Country of, W. Sharp, PMM.
 Digestion, Philosophy of the, E. Gautier, Revue, January 15.
 Dog, The St. Bernard, Anna H. Whitney, CLA.
 Dogs: Caring for the Bird-Dog in Close Season, E. Sandys, O.
 Dogs: The Bench Show Type of Setters, B. Waters, O.
 Doukhobor Pilgrimage, J. Riddington, Can, January.
 Doukhobors, Crusade of the, J. Riddington, FrL.
 Drama, Future of the, B. Matthews, MonR.
 Dramatist, Art of the, B. Matthews, NAR.
 Dutchman in His Own Land, L. Irwell, Ros.
 Education: see also Kindergarten.
 Chicago, Legislation for the Schools of, Dial, February 16.
 Classical Education, Advantages from a—II., Caroline R. Gaston, Ed.
 Co-education in the United States, A. S. Draper, EdR.
 Degree, Value of a, W. Ramsay, Contem.
 Disadvantages of Education, O. Eltzbacher, NineC.
 Education, On, A. Galbraith, West.
 Elementary Schooling, Shortening the Period of, F. L. Soldan, EdR.
 Freedom, Academic, in Theory and in Practice, A. T. Hadley, Atlant.
 Geography and the Other Subjects of an Elementary Course of Study, T. H. Armstrong, Ed.
 Greek, Study of, H. Paul, NineC.
 Home Study, E. C. Broome, Ed.
 Manual Training, Moral Value of—IV., B. T. Washington, Ev.
 Moral Training of a Child—IV., E. H. Griggs, LHJ.
 Normal School, Passing of the, J. W. Abernethy, Ed.
 Rhodes Scholars, The, W. B. Thomas, Mac.
 Rhodes Scholarships in the United States, G. P. Baker, Corn.
 School and College, Relations Between, W. Farrand, EdR.
 Secondary Education in France, G. Compayré, EdR.
 Teacher, The American, W. H. Maxwell, EdR.
 Egypt and Syria, Ancient, W. M. Patton, BibS, January.
 Egypt: Khartum to Cairo—II., W. G. Erving, Cent.
 Elizabeth's Supremacy Bill, Passing of, J. Pollen, Dub.
 Ems, Dispatches of, L. de Persigny, Revue, January 15.
 Engines, Early High-Speed, J. E. Sweet, CasM.
 England: see Great Britain.
 England, Roman Wall Across, E. L. Arnold, Harp.
 English History, Constitutional Phases of, J. O. Pierce, ALR.
 Esther, Authenticity of the Book of, W. S. Watson, PTR.
 Ethical Movement in 1902, F. Thomasson, West.
 Europe, England and Russia in the Politics of: The Eastern Question, F. A. Ogg, Chaut.
 Evansville, Indiana, H. Roosa, NatM.
 Eve's Creation, Story of, S. W. Howland, BibS, January.
 Excursion, Modern, and Its Beginning, D. A. Willey, O.
 Fabre, J. H., Naturalist, and His Work—II., A. Glardon, BU.
 Factories, Baths in, F. G. Ford, SocS.
 Factories, Commercial Management of, I. Andrews, Eng.
 Falconio, Mgr. Dic mede, Cath.
 Fall, The, as a Composite Narrative, W. W. Martin, BibS.
 Farming with the Aid of Steam Power, D. A. Willey, Pear.
 Father: What He Can Do for His Daughter, H. T. Peck, Cos.
 Fencing, Rise of the Sabre in, E. Breck, O.
 Fiji, Some Notes on, W. Burke, PhoT, January.
 Finsen, Dr. Niels, and His Healing Rays, C. Moffett, McCl.
 Finsen System in America, G. G. Hopkins, McCl.
 Finsen System in England, A. Harmsworth, McCl.
 Florida Camping, Pleasures of, A. R. Dugmore, CLA.
 Florida, Playground of the Millionaires, W. Packard, NatM.
 Flowers, Field, M. Maeterlinck, Fort.
 Football, Ethics of, R. J. Sturdee, West.
 Football, Rugby, in France, P. Longhurst, Bad.
 Foreign Affairs, Monthly Review of, W. C. J. Reid, Gunt.
 Forestry, Economic Importance of, O. W. Price, PopS.
 Forestry Legislation in the United States, J. F. Lacey, Gunt.
 Forgiveness of Sins: What Is It? W. H. Walker, BibS.
 Foundry Management—III., R. Buchanan, Eng.
 France:
 Army in 1903, L. Boudenoot, RPP, January.
 Commune, Recollections of the, G. Toudouze, Nou, January 1 and 15.
 Financial Situation, T. Ferneuil, RPP, January.
 Glass Factories, Little Martyrs of the, F. T. Gallarati-Scotti, RasN, January 1.
 Religious State of France, L. D. de St. André, MiaR.
 Franklin, Benjamin, Great Days in the Life of, A. H. Lewis, Ev.
 Franklin, Lost State of, W. M. Clemens, NEng.
 Freedom, Attainment of, E. Del Mar, Mind.
 Frémont, Jessie Benton, C. A. Moody, OutW.
 Gambling, Concerning, W. A. Raleigh, NatR.
 Germany:
 Agrarian Cooperation, F. Virgili, NA, January 1.
 Business Methods in Germany, L. J. Magee, WW.
 Mercantile Marine, J. L. Bashford, Fort.
 Prussian Power, Rise and Character of, R. Blennerhassett, NatR.
 Socialism, German, L. Winterer, RGen.
 Goethe and Italy, A. de Gubernatis, Deut, January.
 Goethe's Air of Living and Ways of Life, H. S. Wilson, Gent.
 Gold Mining in Wales, W. H. Booth, CasM.
 Golf in Ireland, E. Lyttelton, Bad.
 Gospels, Encyclopædia Biblica and the, E. A. Abbott, Contem.
 Government of Laws, Not of Men, W. J. Gaynor, NAR.
 Great Britain: see also Ireland, and South Africa.
 Admiralty, Lord Selborne's Memorandum on the, MonR.
 Admiralty Scheme, USM.
 Agricultural Parcel Post, J. H. Heaton, NineC.
 Army Estimates, House of Commons and the, Contem.
 Australian Loyalty and the British Navy, N. Young, USM.
 Cabinet, Warning to the, NatR.
 Companies Act, New: Is it a Failure, BankL.
 Corn Laws, Effect of, H. Cox, NineC.
 Corn, Price of, in War Time, W. B. Webb, Contem.
 Education Bill for London, C. Brereton, Fort.
 English Court and Society, 1883-1900—II., Mary K. Waddington, Scrib.
 Factory Legislation, Past and Future of, Edin, January.
 Federation, Imperial, L. H. Horden, USM.
 Food Supply in War Time, Black: E. R. Fremantle, Fort.
 Foreign Politics and Common Sense, Edin, January.
 Gunnery and the Nation, A. White, NatR.
 Indian Army, Lord Kitchener and the, Fort.
 Industry and the Labor Problem, F. Henley, LQ, January.
 "King in Council," S. Low, NineC.
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 London Education Problem, T. J. Macnamara, Contem.
 Marines, Royal—A Naval Problem, USM.
 Navy League, H. F. Wyatt, Can, January.
 Service and Farm-Service, D. C. Pedder, Contem.
 Trade Unions, Workingman's View of, J. G. Hutchinson, NineC.
 Great Salt Lake: Why It Has Fallen, L. H. Murdock, NatGM.
 Greeley, Colorado: A Study of a "Decreed" Town, R. T. Ely, Harp.
 Griscorn, Clement Acton, Sketch of, CasM.
 Guiana, British, W. P. Kaufmann, Can.
 Hapsburg Monarchy, A. Gessmann, A. Stransky, and F. Kossuth, MonR.
 Harrison, Mrs. Mary St. Leger, Conversation with, W. Archer, PMM.
 Hartford, Connecticut, W. De L. Love, NEng.
 Harvard Professors Who Are Men of Letters, F. W. Noxon, Crit.
 Hearn, Lafcadio, P. E. More, Atlant.
 Heredity in Royalty—VII., F. A. Woods, PopS.
 Hewitt, Abram S., a Great Citizen, E. M. Shepard, AMRR.
 Hockey—A National Winter Game, C. Patterson, O.
 Holy Shroud of Turin, D. B. Mackey, Dub, January.
 Hunting from a Woman's Point of View, Augusta Fane, Bad.
 Hydrographic Office, United States, Work of the, W. H. H. Southerland, NatGM.
 Hygiene of Occupations, San.
 Ice, How to Harvest, Susan B. Hawks, CLA.
 Ideal as a Dynamic Force—II., Agnes Procter, Mind.
 "Idylls of the King," A Study of, Maud E. Kingsley, Ed.
 Illusions, Sensational Magical, Str.
 Immortality, Some Ancient Beliefs in, G. P. Curtis, Ros.
 India: Courts of the Rajahs, E. Russell, Ev.
 India, Famishing—II., P. Loti, RDM, January 15.
 India, Shortcomings of High Courts in, W. M. Wood, West.
 India, Southern, Sport in, G. B. Wolseley, LeisH.
 India, University Reform in, QR, January.
 Indian Money in New England Colonies, F. A. Ogg, NEng.
 Indigo in Salvador, Cham.
 Individual, Primacy of the, A. Boutwood, LQ, January.
 Ireland, A Policy for, Black.
 Ireland, Dawning Day for the Prosperity of, J. Murphy, Cath.
 Ireland from Within, QR, January.
 Ireland in 1798, French Adventurer in, W. L. Clowes, Corn.
 Ireland's Emancipation, W. Wellman, AMRR.
 Irish Land—Another Crisis, Fort.
 Iron Trade, Labor Problem in the, A. Sahlin, CasM.
 Irrigation, Ethics of, W. E. Smythe, OutW.

- Irrigation, Source of Water Supply for, S. Armor, OutW.
 Irving, Edward, M. C. Williams, PTR, January.
 Isle of Pines, The, J. Finley, Scrib.
 Italian Finance, Progress of, M. Ferraris, NA, January 16.
 Italian *Popolino*, H. Aubert, BU.
 Italy, Agrarian Cooperation in, F. Virgili, NA, January 1.
 Italy, Foreign Opinions on, G. Prato, RasN, January 1.
 Italy, The King of, S. Brooks, NAR.
 James, Henr.; Novels of, Edin, January.
 Japan, Everyday Life in, Mary Pierce, Over, January.
 Japan, Flower Festivals of, C. E. Lorrimer, Over, January.
 Japan, Miracle-Making in, A. Fisher, Over, January.
 Jefferson, Joseph, E. H. Sothorn, FRL.
 Jerrold, Douglas, Centenary of, L. Melville, Bkman.
 Jerusalem, Modern, "The People and, O. M. Green, MonR.
 Jewels, Barbaric, as Worn by Modern Women, Emma B. Kaufman, Cos.
 Jewish Immigration, Recent, R. Mitchell, PopS.
 Jews in Roumania, B. Lazare, Contem.
 Journalism for the Future, F. A. Munsey, Mun.
 Journalism: New England Editors in the South, G. F. Mel-
 len, NEng.
 Journalism, Sensational, and the Law, G. W. Alger, Atlant.
 Judaism and Jewish Evangelization, T. Nicol, LQ, January.
 Judicature, Federal, Century of—II., Van V. Veeder, GBag.
 Jupiter, Physical Constitution of, G. W. Hough, PopA.
 Justification, Doctrine of—III., J. W. Richard, Luth.
 Keats, John, and Charles Lamb, Suburbs of, G. H. Pike, LeisH.
 Kindergarten:
 Child, Memoirs of a—V., Annie S. Winston, KindR.
 Christmas at the Pestalozzi-Froebel House, M. M. Glidden, KindR.
 Industrial Arts, Use of the, Clara J. Mitchell, Kind.
 Rhythm, KindR.
 Sand, Uses of, Katherine Beebe, KindR.
 Statistics About Public School Kindergartens, Stella A. McCarty, KindR.
 Story, Function of the, Mary D. Bradford, Kind.
 Kipling, Rudyard: Where Does He Stand? W. Whitten, Bkman.
Labor:
 Baldwin Locomotive Works, Labor System and Manage-
 ment at the, J. W. Converse, Annals, January.
 British Trades Unionists in America, A. Mosely, CasM.
 Eight-Hour Day, Social Effects of the, F. L. McVey, AJS.
 Elliot, President, and Union Labor, B. O. Flower, Arena.
 Incorporation of Trade Unions, A. Shortt, Can.
 Incorporation of Trade Unions in England, W. G. S. Adams,
 JPEcon, December.
 Iron Trade, Labor Problem in the, A. Sahlin, CasM.
 Labor Problem, H. Mann, Arena.
 Labor Syndicates, A. E. Vossen, RefS, January 1.
 Labor Unions as They Appear to an Employer, W. H. Pfahler, Annals, January.
 Labor Unions, True Mission of, C. W. Elliot, BibS, January.
 Negro Labor, Evolution of, C. Kelsey, Annals, January.
 Northwestern States, Wage-Earners of the, J. Moersch, JPEcon, December.
 Premium System of Wage Payment, A. E. Outerbridge, Jr.,
 Annals, January.
 Strikes, Remedy for, C. F. Adams, CasM.
 Taft Vale Decision in England, A. M. Low, AMRR.
 Unionism, Effect of, Upon the Mine Worker, F. J. Warne,
 Annals, January.
 Lacordaire, Centenary of, A. Dumont, RGen, January.
 Lang, Andrew, and "The Mystery of Mary Stuart," N. W. Sibley, West.
 Lansing Skull and the Early History of Mankind, G. F. Wright, BibS, January.
 Laessle, Ferdinand, and Helene von Dönniges, R. Le Gal-
 lenne, Cos.
 Law, Status of the Profession of the, H. D. Nims, WW.
 Lawyer's Patron Saint, A. V. D. Watterson, GBag.
 "Les Misérables," Unwritten Chapter of, P. Chenay, Lipp.
 Liberalism and Political Ideas of the Eighteenth Century,
 E. Rod, BU.
 Libin, a New Interpreter of East Side Life, C. Rice, Atlant.
 Libraries and Schools, Dial, February 1.
 Libraries, Public, Rapid Growth of, Helen F. Haines, WW.
 Library Enterprises, Modern, W. H. Brett, Dial, February 1.
 Lieven, Madame de, Edin, January: Florence M. Parsons,
 Temp.
 Life and Death, Professor Marchand, Deut, January.
 Lincoln, Abraham, D. Mowry, GBag.
 Lincoln, Abraham, Religious Beliefs of, R. C. Roper, OC.
 Liquefaction of Gases and Low Temperatures, PopA.
 Literary Tendencies of the J. Habberton, LeisH.
 Literature, Contemporary, Study of, E. Tissot, RGen.
 Literature, Real Forces in, E. Fuller, Atlant.
 London, American Women in, H. Wyndham, Mun.
 London Life, Comedy and Tragedy of, H. Smith, YM.
 London, Port of, QR, January.
 Louis XVIII., A. de Marcourt, Revue, January 15.
 Louvain, a Belgian University Town, J. G. Daley, Cath.
 Maistre, Robert, the French Pecksniff, L. E. Roussillon,
 Bkman.
 Macaulay's First Essay, W. L. Cross, Lamp.
 Macedonia's Struggle for Liberty, C. Johnston, NAR.
 Machine Tools with Individual Motors, R. T. E. Lozier,
 CasM.
 McCalmont, The Late Col. Harry, A. E. T. Watson, Bad.
 McKinley, President William, Tours of, W. W. Price, Cos.
 Maeterlinck, Maurice, M. Sylvestre, OC.
 Majority Rule, Vigorous March of, G. H. Shibley, Arena.
 Mankind in the Making—V., H. G. Wells, Cos.
 Marble Quarries of Carrara, E. St. J. Hart, Pear.
 Marlowe, Julia, The Actress We Know as, G. Kobbé, LHJ.
 Marquand, Henry G., as an American Art Patron, E. Knauff, AMRR.
 Marriage and Divorce, H. F. Harris, Arena.
 Martinelli, Cardinal, Grace V. Christmas, Ros.
 Matter, Ultimate Analysis of our Concept of, F. C. Kolbe,
 Dub, January.
 Medical Science of Prevention, New, T. L. Stedman, Ev.
 Medicine, Preventive, G. M. Sternberg, PopS.
 Medicine, Progress of, since 1893, Edin, January.
 Men, Eminent, Statistical Study of, J. McK. Cattell, PopS.
 Mexican Dollar: Is It Played Out? W. R. Lawson, BankNY,
 January.
 Mexico, Labor Situation in, W. E. Weyl, Annals, January.
 Mexico: Regeneration of the Army and Navy, S. G. Andrews, NatM.
 Milan, Picturesque, Edith Wharton, Scrib.
 Milton, Epic Verse of, T. W. Hunt, PTR, January.
 Miners, Anthracite, Investor's Interest in the Demands of
 the, E. S. Meade, Annals, January.
 Mines, Metalliferous, Management of, A. Williams, Jr., Eng.
 Ministry as a Profession, J. L. Jones, Cos.
 Ministry, Success in the, W. Irvin, PTR, January.
 Mint, United States, at Philadelphia, J. Moritzen, Gunt.
Missions:
 China, Young Men of, D. W. Lyon, MisR.
 Chinese Christian Martyrs, Some, A. D. Reill, MisR.
 Dubois, Abbé, and Missions in India, J. P. Jones, MisR.
 France, Religious State of, L. D. de St. André, MisR.
 Gilmour, James, of Mongolia, A. T. Pierson, MisR.
 Health Economics, Missionary, C. C. Thayer, MisR.
 India, Noteworthy Facts About, W. B. Stover, MisR.
 India of To-day—"Behold a Shaking," C. A. R. Janvier,
 MisR.
 India, the Prize of the East, J. T. Gracey, MisR.
 Prayer and the Extension of the Kingdom, E. I. Bosworth,
 MisH.
 Support of Individual Missionaries by Local Churches,
 C. S. Mills, MisH.
 Mistress and Maid, Mrs. F. Harrison, NineC.
 Mithraism and Its Influence on Christianity, P. Carus, OC.
 Money, Evolution of, C. A. Conant, BankNY, January.
 Monroe Doctrine, A. T. Mahan, NatR.
 Monroe Doctrine—Its Origin and Import, W. L. Scruggs,
 NAR.
 Monson, Sir William, W. J. Fletcher, Mac.
 Monticello, the Home of Thomas Jefferson, AMonM.
 Morgan, John Pierpont, S. E. Moffett, PMM.
 Morocco and the Powers, S. L. Bensusan, Contemr.
 Morocco, Crisis in, W. B. Harris, NatR.
 Morocco, Outbreak in, G. C. Reed, MisR.
 Morocco, the Moors, and the Powers, A. J. Dawson, Fort.
 Moth, A Humming-Bird, M. V. Slingerland, CLA.
 Motor Car, Modern, Edin, January.
 Municipal Art, Lucy F. Perkins, Chant.
 Municipal Baths and Wash Houses, W. H. Tolman, SocS.
 Music, Sacred, in Tuscany, P. Amatucci, RasN, January 16.
 Musical Stars, Portraits of, from an Old Album, Mun.
 Napoleon at Alba, M. Foresi, RasN, January 16.
 Napoleon, The Young—II., Viscount Wolsley, Cos; PMM.
 Naval Observatory, United States, W. W. Payne, PopA.
 Navy, The New American—IV., J. D. Long, Out.
 Navy, The New, at Work, A. Gleaves, WW.
 Negro Labor, Evolution of, C. Kelsey, Annals, January.
 Negro, Two Generations of the, Under Freedom, B. T. Wash-
 ington, Out.
 New Mexico, People of, M. P. Watson, Out.
 New Testament, Canon of the, B. W. Bacon, Bib.
 New Testament Criticism, QR, January.
 New York City:
 Dutch Founding of New York, T. A. Janvier, Harp.
 Fight for the City—IV., A. Hodder, Out.
 Home for the Friendless, W. H. Tolman, SocS, January.
 Horse Show, New York, C. B. Davis, O.
 "Lawlessness of the Police," In the Matter of the, H. S. Gans, NAT.
 Literary Landmarks—VII., C. Hemstreet, Crit.
 Squirrel Inn, A. C. Tolman, SocS.
 Union Settlement Association, E. R. McAlpin, Jr., SocS,
 January.
 Nicholson, John, 1867, USM.
 Nile Dams, Completion of the, J. Ward, CasM.
 Nile Dike Near Assouan, E. Oberli, RasN, January 1.
 Norris, Frank, B. Millard, OutW, January.
 "Novel, The Decay of the '": A Symposium, Crit; YM.
 Novel, The Society, J. L. Ford, Mun.
 Nymphs, Unknown Ephemerid, E. W. Berry, ANat, January.

- Oakland, California, C. J. Woodbury, OutW.
 Odyssey, Sea-Power and the, W. M. Fullerton, Corn.
 Old Testament, Canon of the, Latest Criticism and the, W. M. McPheeters, Hom.
 Old Testament, Ethical Teaching of the, G. R. Berry, Bib.
 Old Testament, Poetizing of the, E. Konig, Hom.
 Orange-Growing in California, C. F. Holder, CLA.
 Orange Industry in Florida, H. J. Webber, CLA.
 Pacific Coast, Early English Voyages to the—IV., OutW.
 Palmer, Alice Freeman, G. P. Morris, AMRR.
 Pan Slavism in the Near East, Edin, January.
 Paris: Musée Social, E. Cheysson, SocS.
 Paris, Open-Air Life in, J. Schopfer, Arch.
 Parties, Symptomatic, H. W. Wilbur, Gunt.
 Paul's Theology, Genesis of, W. H. H. Marsh, BibS, January.
 Persia and the Persians in Our Time—II., M. Delines, BU.
 Persian Hair Apparent, Sport with the, Bad.
 Persian Literature, Early, A. V. W. Jackson, Atlant.
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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly
 Review, Phila.
 AHR. American Historical Review,
 N. Y.
 AJS. American Journal of Soci-
 ology, Chicago.
 AJT. American Journal of The-
 ology, Chicago.
 ALR. American Law Review, St.
 Louis.
 AMonM. American Monthly Magazine,
 Washington, D. C.
 AMRR. American Monthly Review of
 Reviews, N. Y.
 ANat. American Naturalist, Boston.
 AngA. Anglo-American Magazine,
 N. Y.
 Annals. Annals of the American Acad-
 emy of Pol. and Soc. Science,
 Phila.
 Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y.
 Arena. Arena, N. Y.
 AA. Art Amateur, N. Y.
 AI. Art Interchange, N. Y.
 AJ. Art Journal, London.
 Atlant. Atlantic Monthly, Boston
 Bad. Badminton, London.
 BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London.
 BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.
 Bib. Biblical World, Chicago.
 BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.
 BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lau-
 sanne.
 Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edin-
 burgh.
 BL. Book-Lover, N. Y.
 Bkman. Bookman, N. Y.
 BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago.
 CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y.
 Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto.
 Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London.
 CasM. Cassell's Magazine, N. Y.
 Cath. Catholic World, N. Y.
 Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y.
 Cham. Chambers' Journal, Edin-
 burgh.
 Chaut. Chautauquan, Springfield, O.
 Contem. Contemporary Review, Lon-
 don.
 Corn. Cornhill, London.
 Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y.
 CLA. Country Life in America, N. Y.
 Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y.
 Crit. Critic, N. Y.
 Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.
 Dial. Dial, Chicago.
 Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin.
 Edin. Edinburgh Review, London.
 Ed. Education, Boston.

EdR. Educational Review, N. Y.
 Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y.
 Era. Era, Philadelphia.
 EM. España Moderna, Madrid.
 Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y.
 Fort. Fortnightly Review, London.
 Forum. Forum, N. Y.
 FRL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.
 Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, Lon-
 don.
 GBag. Green Bag, Boston.
 Gunt. Guntton's Magazine, N. Y.
 Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y.
 Hart. Hartford Seminary Record,
 Hartford, Conn.
 Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y.
 IJE. International Journal of
 Ethics, Phila.
 Int. International Quarterly, Bur-
 lington, Vt.
 IntS. International Studio, N. Y.
 JMSI. Journal of the Military Ser-
 vice Institution, Governor's
 Island, N. Y. H.
 JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy,
 Chicago.
 Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chi-
 cago.
 KindR. Kindergarten Review, Spring-
 field, Mass.
 LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.
 Lamp. Lamp, N. Y.
 LelsH. Leisure Hour, London.
 Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.
 LQ. London Quarterly Review,
 London.
 Long. Longman's Magazine, London.
 Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettys-
 burg, Pa.
 McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y.
 Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, Lon-
 don.
 MA. Magazine of Art, London.
 Meth. Methodist Quarterly, Nash-
 ville.
 MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y.
 Mind. Mind, N. Y.
 MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston.
 MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y.
 Mon. Monist, Chicago.
 MonR. Monthly Review, London.
 MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y.
 Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.
 Mus. Music, Chicago.
 NatGM. National Geographic Maga-
 zine, Washington, D. C.
 NatM. National Magazine, Boston.
 NatR. National Review, London.
 NC. New-Church Review, Boston.

NEng. New England Magazine, Bos-
 ton.
 NineC. Nineteenth Century, London.
 NAR. North American Review, N.Y.
 Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
 NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome.
 OC. Open Court, Chicago.
 O. Outing, N. Y.
 Out. Outlook, N. Y.
 OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal.
 Over. Overland Monthly, San Fran-
 cisco.
 PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London.
 Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
 Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y.
 PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin,
 N. Y.
 PL. Post-Lore, Boston.
 PSQ. Political Science Quarterly,
 Boston.
 PopA. Popular Astronomy, North-
 field, Minn.
 PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N.Y.
 PRR. Presbyterian and Reformed
 Review, Phila.
 PTR. Princeton Theological Re-
 view, Phila.
 QEcon. Quarterly Journal of Econom-
 ics, Boston.
 QR. Quarterly Review, London.
 RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
 Refs. Réforme Sociale, Paris.
 RRL. Review of Reviews, London.
 RRM. Review of Reviews, Mel-
 bourne.
 Revue. Revue, Paris.
 RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
 RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels.
 RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris.
 RPP. Revue Politique et Parlemen-
 taire, Paris.
 RSoc. Revue Socialistic, Paris.
 Rosary. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
 San. Sanitarian, N. Y.
 School. School Review, Chicago.
 Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
 SR. Sewanee Review, N. Y.
 SocS. Social Service, N. Y.
 Str. Strand Magazine, London.
 Temp. Temple Bar, London.
 USM. United Service Magazine,
 London.
 West. Westminster Review, London.
 WPM. Wilson's Photographic Maga-
 zine, N. Y.
 WW. World's Work, N. Y.
 Yale. Yale Review, New Haven.
 YM. Young Man, London.
 YW. Young Woman, London.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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POPE LEO XIII.

(The third in the history of the Papacy to "see the years of Peter,"—that is, to fill the Papal throne for full twenty-five years.)

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No. 4.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The
President's
Western Tour.*

The President of the United States had by the middle of March fixed the itinerary of his great tour, which was to begin on April 1, to have the Pacific coast as its principal objective, and to continue until the first week in June. The plan of this journey comprised the visiting of more than twenty States and stops at more than a hundred different places, with scores of longer or shorter addresses and speeches. The whole thing would appear too formidable for any man of ordinary physical or mental constitution. President Roosevelt's powers of endurance, however, are not ordinary. He has come through a winter and spring of most incessant and arduous labors, with a great number of matters of moment and urgency pressing upon his time and attention. And none of those matters has been treated by him either with negligence or with any lack of diligent regard and concentrated interest; yet he has emerged from the past four or five months of intense application without the slightest indication of being fagged or stale.

How Mr. Roosevelt Lives and Works.

The young men of the country will be entitled some time to know even more than they have as yet been told about the way in which President Roosevelt accomplishes so much and yet keeps in prime order. His physical constitution was, of course, built up, as everybody knows, years ago by systematic exercise and much outdoor life. His mental vigor would seem to have been acquired by a somewhat analogous method. The President does not flinch from the task in hand. He has schooled himself to do the day's work as it comes. He has acquired to a marvelous degree the power of concentration and the habit of decisiveness. He arranges his day well, is very abstemious in eating and drinking, does not allow himself to be cheated out of a fair amount of exercise, does not rely in the least upon stimulants or tobacco, and, perhaps above all, never

tries to surpass himself or to expend his reserve strength in the achievement of something exceptional. With matters of colossal importance to attend to, he simply does his best as he goes along, deals with every problem that arises in a simple, direct, and natural way, and thus finds the day sufficient unto itself. He borrows no trouble, sleeps soundly, and meets the morrow refreshed and with full courage.

*His
Remarkable
Popularity.*

It is not strange that this frank, straightforward American citizen, so high-minded in his motives and so democratic in his sympathies, should have won a great place in the confidence and affection of the American people. He has also taken a marvelous hold upon the imagination and the interest of the peoples of Europe. A discerning resident of Amsterdam informed this office, the other day, that, with the exception of their own queen, Wilhelmina, there was no personage now living in whom the people of Holland took nearly so much interest as in President Roosevelt. The people of France read eagerly all his utterances. His practical philosophy of life falls in most usefully with the wholesome point of view that the best political and social elements in our great sister republic are earnestly teaching to the new generation of Frenchmen. As for Germany, it is not merely the Emperor and Prince Henry, and the leaders of the army and navy, who have expressed their liking for President Roosevelt and their appreciation of his versatility; for the German people as a whole have a remarkably warm feeling toward him, which is shown in their newspapers and in many private as well as public ways. All parties and organs in England, of late, with hardly any exceptions, have vied with one another in expressions of friendliness toward the people of the United States; and, if one may judge by the overwhelming tone of the English press, President Roosevelt's popularity is greater in

that country than that enjoyed by any contemporary head of a foreign country in recent times. He seems, in short, to embody, to Europeans, the best and most honorable American traits of mind and character,—to typify those qualities that belong to a gentleman in a democratic republic like ours, and to represent the best intellectual aims and aspirations of this Western world.

*A Respite
After Great
Achievements.*

Although the President's projected Western trip is so long, and involves appearances before so many audiences, it ought for him to be a pleasant rather than a difficult and trying experience. He can enter upon it with a clear conscience and a light heart. He knows that he has given the very best that is in him toward the performance of his duties as President; and he can afford to say, without affectation on the score of modesty, that a great deal of important and valuable public business has been achieved during the past few months, in most of which his own guidance and leadership have played a part. Knowing that the people of the West even more than those of any other part of the country appreciate and understand him, he will doubtless feel the more free to review, in his speeches, the recent course of public affairs, and to give some outlook upon the future from his standpoint as Chief Executive. His journey comes at a lull in public affairs due not only to the necessary adjournment of Congress by limitation on the 4th of March, but, further than that, due to the completion—almost simultaneously with the expiration of the life of the late Congress—of a number of pending episodes and affairs of unusual concern.

*Some Things
Accomplished.*

Among these matters are to be mentioned the fortunate settlement of all the acute phases of the controversy of the allied European powers with Venezuela; the completion of the labors of the anthracite-coal commissioners; the practical settlement of the interoceanic canal question; the agreement upon satisfactory arrangements, commercial and otherwise, between the United States and Cuba; and the wholly auspicious establishment of the new Department of Commerce at Washington. The President, therefore, can well enter upon this journey with the pleasant feeling that a winter's hard work has produced substantial results, and that his speech-making might very suitably take the form, in large part, of a summing up and an interpretation of those achievements, without any undue or irritating appeal to party feeling, and with less necessity than usual for argument or exhortation. The people of the West, on the other hand, will be most delighted

to do what they can to make the President's tour restful and agreeable, rather than wearisome through too much formality or too incessant speechifying.

*A Ship Canal,
at Last!*

To Americans in general, and to the world at large, doubtless, the most striking of recent public achievements at Washington is the final settlement, after more than half a century of discussion, of the main features of a ship canal to connect the Atlantic and the Pacific, and to afford the world a new trade route destined to have a profound effect upon commerce and international relations. The abandonment of the long-cherished American preference for the Nicaragua route has a good deal dampened public enthusiasm, while the details of the arrangement made for Uncle Sam's occupation of the Panama Canal strip are in some respects so far from being clean-cut and satisfactory that intelligent Americans will prefer not to read the text of the treaty between the United States and Colombia. We may, however, compliment Colombian diplomacy upon the success it has had in dealing with Uncle Sam, and we may reasonably take an optimistic view of the whole business. The American ideal was an interoceanic canal that should in a true sense be an extension of our own shore line. Although this is not what we have secured in legal fact and form (since



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND OLD EUROPE.

From *Le Ritré* (Paris).



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SARGENT'S NEW PORTRAIT OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

(John S. Sargent, the greatest living portrait painter, finished a picture of President Roosevelt, last month meets with favor at the White House, and which we are permitted to reproduce herewith by the *Collier's Weekly*, which has the sole right of reproduction.)

we have gone to the opposite extreme and made solemn compact that the canal shall forever be Colombia's and never ours in the public sense, —it being ours only in a private way, just as it would have been the Panama Canal Company's if that concern had been able to finish it), we shall nevertheless be in a position to exercise in practical ways a dominant governmental influence, even though, theoretically, we lack public rights.

It will be a trifle anomalous, and from the sentimental standpoint a little humiliating, to find that we have entered upon the construction of our greatest and most permanent public work under conditions forever preventing our government from displaying its own flag upon its own property. Since in the treaty we declare that over the entire canal strip the sovereignty of Colombia remains absolutely unimpaired, it is plain that all the emblems of sovereignty must be Colombian. The Senate in special session, however, has ratified the treaty; and down in Colombia they are going to resume, for this one occasion, the pretense of having a constitutional government, in order to observe the formalities necessary before Uncle Sam will pay his money. Thus, there has been an alleged Congressional election, and for the first time in years there will be a session of the Colombian chambers. In the nature of the case, there would seem to have been due to us

from Colombia a large bonus for selecting the Panama rather than the Nicaragua route. Colombia could well have afforded to give almost any possible price for having the canal constructed upon its soil rather than across Central America. But Colombia is to have all the benefits of the canal on equal terms with our own people, together with a ten-million-dollar bonus and annual rental money. If the Colombian Congress, under these circumstances, should not ratify the treaty promptly, it would only be because of a quarrel among the Colombian statesmen as to the division of the spoils.

In short, the arrangement with Colombia, in nearly all its details, is as absurd as a chapter of "Alice in Wonderland." Yet there were reasons which seemed of controlling importance in Washington why an arrangement of some kind should be completed, and it is generally believed that in spite of our payment of \$40,000,000 to the French company for an abandoned and otherwise unmarketable enterprise, and our further payment of \$10,000,000 to Colombia for permission to render Colombia a benefit of inestimable value, we are nevertheless making a very good business bargain. And, indeed, there is some truth in this view. Our able canal commission, headed by Admiral Walker, estimated that if we paid more than \$40,000,000 for the assets of the French company we should pay more than they were worth. We agreed, therefore, to pay exactly \$40,000,000; and, theoretically, we are merely buying a certain amount of work accomplished which would have cost us an equivalent sum if we had had to do it ourselves.

Meanwhile, it is worth remembering that this handsome treatment of the French company meets with the approval of the government and the people of France, and decidedly enhances the good relations between the two peoples and governments, —relations which have never been more friendly than they are at the present moment. Again, it is to be said with regard to the treaty with Colombia that there is a point of view from which the cession to the United States would seem closely analogous to the granting of a commercially lucrative franchise; and the Colombian mind had accustomed itself to look upon canal charters as proper sources of public income. We could readily afford, therefore, to pay Colombia a bonus and a moderate rental for the sake of neighborly relations, especially in view of the fact that we shall be able so to adjust the canal



THE ADOPTED CHILD.

MR. ROOSEVELT: "It'll be some time before he's fully developed, but I expect he'll be big enough to help me in 1904, in the Presidential fight."—From the *Moon* (Toronto).

Financial
Aspects of the
Enterprise.

Good-will of
Neighbors as
an Asset.

tolls as to make international commerce in the end foot the bills. The more powerful a nation becomes, the better it can afford to be polite, and even indulgent, in its dealings with other countries. Even from the pecuniary standpoint, friendly international relations are a valuable asset for any government. It is therefore to be set down to the credit of the present administration that it has succeeded in removing all obstacles toward the construction of an American interoceanic ship canal without offending the susceptibilities of any foreign government, but, rather, with the remarkable result of increasing good relations at every step. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty in its final form does, indeed, contain certain provisions and guarantees that many of us would prefer not to find in it. Nevertheless, its main effect was to remove finally and completely every vestige of opposition in England to the construction of an American canal. Thus, in turn, the English claim to joint oversight and control of an isthmian canal was abrogated, the French were superseded at Panama without any jealousy or ill-will toward the United States, and Colombia was dealt with so generously and with such assurances respecting our general policy as to allay apprehension, not only in Colombia, but throughout South America. Thus, we must frankly admit that there is a large and beneficent spirit of international good-will in all this series of negotiations and transactions which may prove in the end to be more valuable to this country than that more assertive American policy as respects matters of detail for which some of us have at times expressed a frank preference.

*Roosevelt and
the Monroe
Doctrine.*

President Roosevelt never hesitates to declare that, formalities and details aside, we must and will, in fact, exercise just as much control over the Panama Canal as is desirable for purposes of our own national defense and for the maintenance of the Monroe Doctrine. All Europe is discussing the Monroe Doctrine with a degree of understanding and respect never before expressed. President Roosevelt is regarded abroad as the uncompromising champion of this cardinal point in American policy. There are several hypothetical questions as to the possible application of the Monroe Doctrine to future contingencies that are not altogether easy to answer. But this country does not have to declare in advance what it would do under circumstances which may never arise. The main fact is, that whereas we have in recent years seen Africa carved up among the imperial and colonizing powers of Europe, and have seen those powers steadily



A RESOUNDING WORD IN THE PRESIDENT'S MOUTH.
From *Nebelspatter* (Zurich).

endeavoring to increase their dominions in Asia, we take the firm ground that they are not to make imperial or colonial acquisitions in North or South America. It is, indeed, the underlying assumption of the Monroe Doctrine that the process which began with our own achievement of independence, and which next resulted in the independence of Spanish and Portuguese South America, of Mexico and Central America, of San Domingo, and—last of all—of Cuba, is ultimately to end in the complete withdrawal of European sovereignty from the Western Hemisphere. We are not, however, obliged to express that assumption in any disagreeable way.

*The Venezuelan
Affair
in Retrospect.*

Although the controversy between the allied powers and Venezuela over the payment of certain debts and claims did not directly involve the Monroe Doctrine, the spirit in which the Government of the United States interested itself in all phases of the business served well to illustrate the character and value of leadership of the United States in Western Hemisphere matters. Seldom has the influence of any government been used at once more helpfully and courteously than was ours in securing the raising of the blockade of the Vene-

zuelan coast and the reference of all essential matters of controversy to fair and impartial processes of settlement by arbitration. As now provided, Venezuela will not have to pay anything that is not justly due, while, on the other hand, honest creditors find an adequate means of collecting their proper claims. Whatever motives England and Germany may have had in making their assault upon Venezuela, the episode has ended most fortunately for the cause of justice and of right methods in international dealing; and this result is fairly to be credited to the administration of President Roosevelt.

*Value of the
Precedents.*

The precedents that this solution establishes are of the most extraordinary importance. Every Central and South American state will be the more careful henceforth in its dealings with foreign creditors, knowing that it cannot find shelter under the Monroe Doctrine to save it from the consequences of repudiation or extreme neglect. European investors, on the other hand, will be more careful henceforth, knowing that they must not expect to have their speculative and dubious transactions made safe and solid through the use of their home governments as debt-collectors. Again, naval expeditions, blockades, and bombardments will be reserved as a last resort, since they are ridiculous as well as expensive if they are to have no bearing upon the settlement of the questions at issue. The fact is, that a whole book would be needed to expound the importance of the final settlement that was urged at Washington under the President's influence, by virtue of which ten or a dozen different powers agree to accept arbitration in settlement of their claims against Venezuela, while certain principles of international law are to be determined for the benefit of all governments by a resort to the Hague tribunal. Thus, the completion of the arrangements for building an interoceanic canal, the settlement of the Venezuelan trouble, and the reassertion of the Monroe Doctrine have all been brought about in such a way as to give our government a prestige and standing among nations of the world greater by far than it has ever enjoyed at any time before in all our history.

*A Day of
Large Things.*

A very remarkable thing is the fact that nobody has expressed the least concern about the vast sum of money that the United States Government is going to expend for digging the canal. We have entered upon a century of huge enterprises and of unprecedented resources. Wall Street sets afloat undertakings whose capitalization is in the hundreds of millions. But powerful, nowadays, as

are the allied forces of private finance, there is nothing in the financial world to compare with the resources and power of the treasury of the United States Government. The \$50,000,000 needed at the outset to pay the French and the Colombians will be paid by Uncle Sam out of surplus cash on hand. The \$150,000,000, more or less, that will be needed to finish the canal, provide its terminals, and meet all other charges connected with the enterprise will be provided by the sale of 2 per cent. bonds at par. No other government at the present time can borrow so advantageously as ours. Thus, English consols, which are henceforth to draw 2½ per cent., having previously been at a higher rate, were selling, last month, at a little above 90. The actual capital, therefore, for the Panama Canal will be furnished by private investors who are satisfied to have Uncle Sam's guarantee of 2 per cent. interest on their money.

*The Canal
as a Good
Investment.*

This superior borrowing power is what makes it feasible for our government to go ahead and dig an interoceanic canal where the private French company had to give up for lack of ability to get the necessary capital, and the American Nicaragua company had to abandon operations for a like reason. The Panama Canal will cost the United States nothing more than an annual interest charge of possibly \$4,000,000. The more quickly the work is pushed to completion, the sooner this charge on the Treasury will be met in whole or in part by the earnings of the canal as a productive investment. The Suez Canal, after paying all charges of operation, maintenance, and improvement, regularly earns a net profit of about \$10,000,000, or 10 per cent. on the amount invested in the enterprise, which is approximately \$100,000,000. With the immense improvements that have been made in the mechanical methods for canal-digging, and resultant economies, it is quite possible that the Panama Canal may be built for the \$144,000,000 that was set down in the careful estimate made by Admiral Walker and the engineers of the Isthmian Canal Commission. It is not unreasonable to believe that the traffic through the canal would soon become very large, and that the canal tolls would amount to enough not only to pay the interest upon the bond issue, but also to provide an ample sinking fund for the ultimate redemption of the entire cost of the enterprise. Thus, as a financial undertaking, we may confidently predict that the Panama Canal will be a brilliant success for the Government of the United States. All further steps in the business must, however, await the action of the Colom-

bian Congress. Our readers should understand that there was no such body as a Congress in existence in Colombia. But it was arranged to go through the form of holding a Congressional election, and some ostensible parliamentary action will be taken at Bogota in the course of the present month. It is reported that there will be some bitter opposition to the ratification of the treaty, although it must not be supposed that such an attitude is assumed in good faith upon the public merits of the project. The treaty is favorable to Colombia beyond all reasonable anticipations, and it will, of course, be ratified. Our government is likely to be notified of such action within the next few weeks. The Treasury will then, pay to the French company its \$40,000,000, and to Colombia its \$10,000,000.

*The Men to Do
the Work.*

President Roosevelt, meanwhile, is carefully considering the make up of the board of seven commissioners who are to have full control of the work of constructing the canal. According to the law, at least four of the seven must be engineers, of whom one must belong to the army and one to the navy. Much will depend upon the selection of a thoroughly efficient board. It is to be assumed that the four engineers will be selected with sole reference to their qualifications and entire fitness. The country would be pleased if the President should select the other three members with very scant regard for political or merely personal considerations. The entire board ought to be thoroughly alive, practical, and business-like, and it ought not to have a single member selected for the mere sake of giving somebody a job. Since this is to be much the largest public work ever undertaken by our government, its conduct will be watched very critically, as having a bearing upon the relative capacity of governments to finance and carry on vast practical enterprises. The sanitary problems to be faced are in some regards even more difficult than the mechanical and engineering problems. The French company lost hundreds, and even thousands, of its workmen by the ravages of fever and other malignant diseases. To face this health problem, and to deal with the various difficulties involved in the problem of labor on the Isthmus, will add not a little to the burdens of the commission; and it will, therefore, be selected with extreme care.

*The Irrigation
Policy.*

A number of the States that the President will visit on his Western trip will receive him with especial enthusiasm because of the active part he took in

securing the new legislation that is to make the American desert blossom as the rose. In hardly any recent achievement has the President had more satisfaction than in the adoption of the new irrigation policy. Some of our readers may like to be reminded that this also, like the inter-oceanic canal, is in its prospective growth an immense governmental venture in the sphere of productive business enterprise. The United States Government owns vast areas of unsalable arid or semi-arid lands. It also controls mountainous areas, and sources of water-supply. These areas lie chiefly within the limits of the sixteen States and Territories which are named in the law. Henceforth, the money received by the Government from the sale of public lands lying within these States is to be used for irrigation works. The reclaimed land will be sold to actual settlers on terms which will pay back to the reclamation fund the full cost of the irrigation project. Thus, the work of reclamation will be carried on by a revolving fund increasing in amount from year to year, and making it feasible gradually to undertake larger and more difficult projects of water storage and distribution. The details of the scheme have been worked out with great care, and the result will be a marked growth in the population and agricultural wealth of a large portion of the country.

*A Great
Productive
Enterprise.*

As a measure of public finance and of constructive statesmanship, this irrigation project is entitled to great praise. President Roosevelt's decisive support secured favorable action that might otherwise have been considerably postponed, and the Western States most concerned will not fail to appreciate his intelligent regard for their interests. At a moment when, with the greatly increased expenditures of the Government, there is in some quarters a feeling that we are wasting our resources and must some time pay the penalty of lavish and reckless outlay, it is well to consider, on the other hand, the economic value of a measure like this irrigation act, which is destined to develop unused resources and greatly to increase public and private wealth, while adding nothing appreciably to the burdens of the national treasury. Secretary Hitchcock announced, last month, the definite selection of irrigation plans in five different States, surveys of which have been made, so that work will begin at once. About seven million dollars will be spent on these projects. Surveys will meanwhile be pushed in other States, where projects will be made ready for final approval. Large current receipts from the sale of public lands give the irrigation movement a fine financial start.

Cuban Relations Established.

Another important achievement is the establishment on a proper basis of relations between Cuba and the United States. The steady pressure of the President and the administration has at last secured the ratification of a Cuban reciprocity treaty. This measure was due to Cuba as a part of the consideration which led to the acceptance of the "Platt amendment" to the Cuban constitution that gives us naval bases and in other ways gives us a preferred position. When the reciprocity negotiations began, a 50 per cent. rebate on Cuban sugar seemed necessary to restore the agricultural prosperity of the island. But within the past few months the world price of sugar has improved so much that the 20 per cent. rebate provided in the new reciprocity treaty will avail to give the Cuban planters sufficient incentive to cultivate the land, and to restore the farm improvements that suffered so much during the war period. The reciprocity treaty is not to be regarded as an act of favor to the Cubans, for it secures return concessions of great value to American agriculture and commerce. The capitalists of this country are taking an interest in Cuban railway development, and the island is doubtless about to enter upon a period of prosperity. Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, in February and March, aroused expectations by visits to Havana and inspection of the new trunk railway lines built by Americans and Canadians.

Effect of the Treaty Deferred.

It is to be regretted that the ratification of the reciprocity treaty, like that of the Panama Canal treaty, was left to be accomplished in an extra session of the Senate called by President Roosevelt immediately after the expiration of Congress, on March 4. Since a commercial reciprocity treaty involves revenue changes, it is the established opinion that it must be confirmed by action of the House of Representatives. Thus, although the treaty was ratified on March 19, it cannot be put into practical effect for a good many months. In the usual course of things, the new Congress will assemble next December. It is possible, however, that the President may decide to convoke the houses in October or November. The Cuban Congress at Havana, meanwhile, had adjourned on March 17. The Cuban Senate had adopted the reciprocity treaty by a vote of 16 to 5. The Cuban treasury is to negotiate a loan of \$35,000,000, from the proceeds of which the soldiers of the army of liberation will receive their back pay and other pressing needs will be met. The Cuban outlook is now so good that there is no reason why this money should not be borrowed upon favorable terms.

Our New Naval Stations.

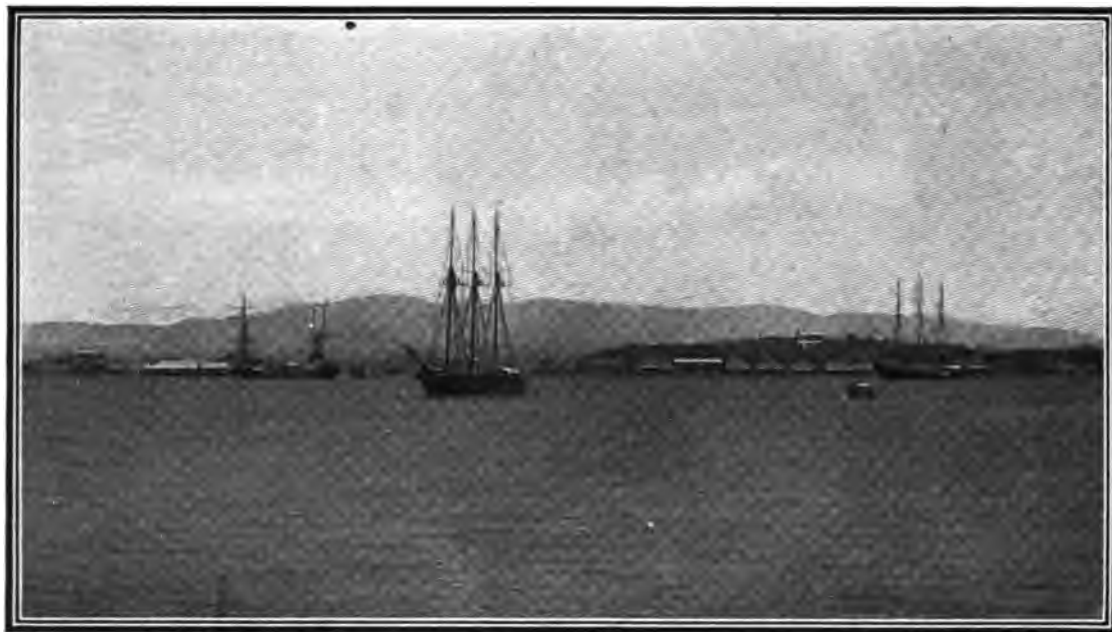
A party of prominent officials, headed by the Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Moody, and including members of Congress prominent on the naval committees, was in Cuba, last month, inspecting the two sites agreed upon for United States naval stations. One of these is Guantanamo, on the south coast, and the other is Bahia Honda, which is not far from Havana, on the north coast. The more important of the two is the one first named. The harbor of Guantanamo is spacious, and the conditions are favorable for the creation there of a very important naval base. Trustworthy reports pronounce President Palma's administration a capable and successful one. Good order prevails throughout the island; the sanitary system established under American administration has been maintained; there is widespread interest in education, and the relations of the Cubans with the Spanish element of the population, which were formerly so strained, are said to be improving constantly.

Our Need of a Navy.

There is no question upon which President Roosevelt has firmer convictions than that of naval expansion. The two sessions of Congress since he came to the White House have each made liberal provision for naval increase, and have been influenced in doing it by the President's constant interest and enthusiasm. It was finally agreed, at the very close of the last session, early in March, to reconcile the differences between the two houses as to the kind of new ships to



A VERY STOUT "STRING" TO IT
From the Record (Philadelphia).



THE HARBOR OF GUANTANAMO,—OUR NEW NAVAL STATION.

be ordered, by providing for five battleships, three of them to be of 16,000 and two of 13,000 tons displacement. The total naval appropriation bill for the coming year amounts to nearly \$84,000,000, as against about \$80,000,000 for the current year. The naval experts all believe strongly in the relative value of the very large type of battleship. The famous *Oregon* will be a small affair by the side of the *Connecticut* and the *Louisiana*, now building, and the other big vessels just ordered. The *Oregon* is a ship of about 10,000 tons. We have now definitely provided for several battleships of at least 16,000 tons. Our navy is decidedly short of officers and men, and the large ship is relatively economical in that respect, since it needs no more officers, and scarcely a larger crew, than the smaller type. Moreover, our principal naval competitors are building ships of the large type, and England has even begun to build some of 18,000 tons displacement.

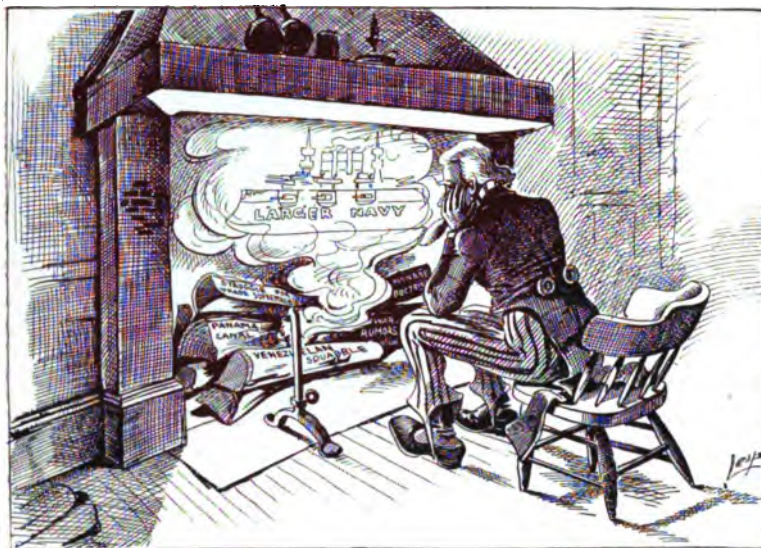
It has become the habit of our naval officers constantly to compare our naval strength with that of Germany. According to present indications, we shall not be far behind that country at the end of another five years. It is a very significant fact that some of the foremost German naval authorities have deeply regretted Germany's recent joint expedition against Venezuela because of its effect in stimulating the American Congress to

make liberal shipbuilding appropriations, and to take more seriously the American naval programme. There is very little attempt at concealment in Germany, even in governmental circles, of the German ambition to annex Holland. Such a consummation may be prevented for many years, and, indeed, it may never come about at all. But that Germany would seize the first opportunity to take Holland is not to be doubted, in view of the history of Germany in the past forty years, beginning with the seizure of a part of Denmark. The future of Holland is a matter of concern to the United States because of the Dutch possessions in the Western Hemisphere. Germany would like very well to acquire Dutch Guiana, on the north coast of South America, and the Dutch Islands in the West Indies; but America does not want Germany's militant system brought across the Atlantic, and would not willingly allow German naval bases to be established in the vicinity of the Panama Canal.

It is true that Germany has most distinctly declared to our government that it has no intention to acquire territory or naval stations in the West Indies or on the South American coast. Yet it is also notably true that Germany's intentions change rapidly under altered conditions. It may be set down as true that one of the reasons for the almost unanimous ratification by the Senate, last

*Comparisons
With Germany.*

*Germany's
Aims and
Intentions.*



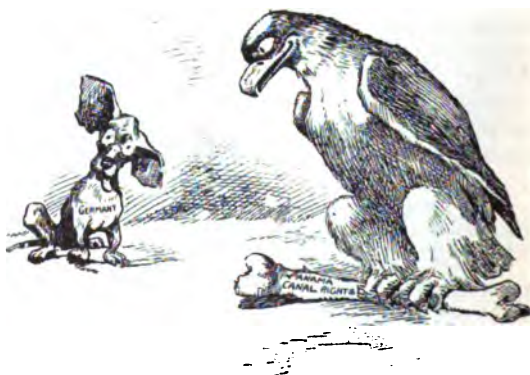
SOMETHING IN THE SMOKE.
From the *News-Tribune* (Detroit).

month, of a Panama Canal treaty which many of the Senators would have been glad to amend in various ways, was the knowledge that a strong German movement had been organized to buy the French Panama company's assets and secure a Colombian franchise, in case the United States should lose its French option by delay beyond the time limit. Moreover, not many well-informed people suppose that the trifling debts which formed the pretext for Germany's expedition against Venezuela supplied the real motive for that enterprise. Such expeditions often lead, by a chain of occurrences, to the gaining of some sort of foothold. Thus, England's obligation to keep out of Egypt was almost, if not quite, as clear as Germany's to keep out of Venezuela. Yet Egypt's debt led to a foreign regulation of finances, which, in turn, gave excuse for interference to suppress a revolution, followed, in further turn, by a temporary occupation that has now grown into a permanent control, together with the open annexation of a large part of the Egyptian Sudan. It would have seemed impossible at one time that anything of this sort could have come about without plunging England into a great war with France. The German colonial party has been hoping that by an analogous streak of luck Germany might somehow gain a foothold in the West Indies and in South America without having to fight the United States. Germany is not seeking war any more than we are; and Germany's desire for friendly relations with the United States is perfectly sincere. But it is doubtless the opinion

of President Roosevelt, and of the leaders in Congress as well, that the way to make our present good relations with Germany secure for the long future is to keep our navy fully equal to hers, and to insist without hesitation upon our full present interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine. Meanwhile, our government will welcome every indication of growing strength and stability in the other republics of the Western Hemisphere.

What Has Been Done About Trusts. The President will have both the right and the disposition to set forth to his Western audiences what has been done in the direction of bringing trusts

under federal regulation, in the confident tone of one who has a good report to make. In some quarters, there is a studied effort to belittle what has been done at Washington with this great question. The real surprise is not that so little has been done, but that such remarkable progress has been made without disturbance of business conditions. To begin with, the work of the Industrial Commission had done much to enlighten the country as to the facts of recent consolidations of capital and of prevailing trust methods. The vigorous attempts of Attorney-General Knox to enforce such laws as were found on the statute books had also helped to



THE WATCHFUL EAGLE.
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

clear the atmosphere and to elucidate the relations between the Government and interstate commerce. The appropriation by Congress of a large sum of money to facilitate the prosecution of offenses under the Sherman anti-trust law, and the act to give such cases the right of way in the courts, are measures of no little practical importance. A portion of the press constantly insists upon tariff reform as the one feasible method by which to abolish the evils of the trusts; but it must be plain to every careful student of the subject that it is not the tariff system, but the transportation system, that is most fundamentally accountable for those evils that have accompanied the rapid growth of great industrial aggregations.

*Fair Play and
Publicity.* The Elkins bill, therefore, is to be regarded as a measure of the greatest possible significance. It undertakes to abolish that system of rebates and discriminations by means of which the great shippers have been enabled to destroy their small competitors or place them at a serious disadvantage. It seems to be the practical opinion of railroad men that the Elkins bill will actually succeed in breaking up the widely prevalent system of favoritism in transportation rates. Finally, legislation establishing the new Department of Commerce and Labor places in the hands of the President as much power as could well be utilized at the present time. It gives to the new Bureau of Corporations full authority to investigate all trusts and to make such use of the information obtained as is deemed beneficial. Under this power, the much-advocated remedy of publicity can be applied to the methods of trusts and great corporations to as complete a degree as experience may show to be necessary. It is quite true that further legislation relating to trusts may be imperative in the future; but we shall only know what that legislation ought to be by virtue of the knowledge and experience that will result from the faithful and impartial application of the laws that have been enacted in this recent session of Congress.

*What Next
in the Trust
Question?* In all his dealing with this subject, President Roosevelt has been faithful to the interests of the great American public as he has understood those interests. The new Congress might do well to let the subject of trusts alone, in order to give the Department of Commerce, the Attorney-General, and the Interstate Commerce Commission time to develop the possibilities of the legislation that is now on the statute books. As for certain corporation interests that have

been deeply hostile to President Roosevelt and have resented all measures for the increase of federal control over interstate commerce, it would seem clearly to their interest to relax their political efforts. President Roosevelt has a reasonable mind; he is courageous, he is honest, and he has a well-balanced sense of justice. If the great corporate interests of the country should endeavor to elect to the Presidency a man more pliable and more susceptible to their suggestions, they would not only be quite likely to fail in their attempt, but they would certainly be exposed;—with the result of provoking a public hostility that might lead to fanatical anti-trust measures and to the widespread injury of legitimate business.

*Mr. Root's
Efficiency.* Secretary Root was obliged to give up his plan of accompanying the President on the long Western tour by reason of the urgency of the business of his department. No other member of the cabinet has had even a fraction of the important affairs on his hands that have taxed the energies of the Secretary of War. With Mr. Root absent, the President will have the more freedom to express his appreciation of the remarkable efficiency of this leading member of his cabinet,—an efficiency probably unequalled by that of any other cabinet minister now in the service of any government in the world, not excepting Mr. Chamberlain or M. de Witte. M. Waldeck-Rousseau, the most successful of all French ministers, has exhibited a combination of qualities in many ways suggestive of those that distinguish Mr. Root in his public work. The great French ex-premier is a distinguished lawyer, a persuasive orator, a man of marked executive talent, and a statesman of constructive mind who quickly grasps the salient elements in any problem or situation. Mr. Root's work at the War Department has been one long series of brilliant achievements. The new militia law and the general staff measure, both secured under his leadership, will in the end quite transform our military conditions,—the one as respects our potential strength in the rank and file for purposes of defense, the other as respects the efficiency of the army at the top. Mr. Root's success in mastering and dealing with army problems is in marked contrast with the failure of the English war secretary, Mr. Brodric. The laying of the corner-stone of the new War College at Washington, late in February, on which occasion President Roosevelt and Secretary Root both made able speeches, was merely one incident in the development of a well-coördinated scheme for the advanced training of our army officers in the various branches of military

science. The aim of the President and the War Secretary is not to have a large army, but, in the President's language, to have our comparatively small army represent "the very highest point of efficiency of any army in the civilized world."

Mr. Root's work, however, has been *in the Philippines.* vastly greater than that ordinarily belonging to a Secretary of War, for he is also a colonial secretary. He had to deal with all the problems of the administration and reconstruction of Cuba, until we set up the new republic there. He has had to give constant attention to the affairs of Porto Rico, Hawaii, and, above all, to those of the Philippines. The bill appropriating \$3,000,000 for the relief of distress in the Philippines,—growing out of crop failures, the death by disease of domestic animals, the cholera epidemic, and other adverse conditions,—was duly passed by Congress, although the pending measure for the reduction of tariff charges on commerce between the Philippines and the United States failed of action and will have to go over to the next Congress. For present purposes, however, the Philippine coinage act that was passed will be even more useful than a measure of tariff concessions. The Philippines have been on a fluctuating silver basis, to the great embarrassment and detriment of commerce. The new standard of value is to be a gold *peso* of the weight of 12.9-10 grains. The Mexican silver dollar has been the coin of common circulation. In place of this there will be a Philippine silver dollar, or *peso*, of 416 grains' weight, and this will be coined by the Government from bullion bought for the purpose. It will be redeemable at the ratio of two of these silver coins for one standard gold *pesa*.

The Statehood Fight and Its Cost. The protracted fight against the omnibus Statehood bill so occupied the Senate through nearly all of the recent session that it was responsible for the failure of the Philippine tariff bill, as well as for the failure of expected and needed legislation for the improvement of our currency arrangements at home. It had been hoped

that a measure might be passed to give elasticity to our money system by making it easy for small banks to issue notes in times of stringency. But the Fowler bill failed. There also seemed a good chance that Senator Aldrich might secure the passage of his measure making it possible to deposit with national banks—and thus restore to channels of circulation—the large accumulations of money that often lie in the government vaults as surplus revenue. It is to be hoped that there may be some currency legislation next winter. The Statehood fight is worth to the country all that it cost, however, because it has at last aroused the public to an appreciation of the danger of log-rolling schemes for the admission of ill-qualified Territories to the rank of sovereign States. As a result of the work done by Mr. Beveridge, with the support of the majority of his committee and of Mr. Hanna, Mr. Aldrich, Mr. Allison, Mr. Spooner, and other Senate leaders, all Statehood bills will henceforth have to make their way on their own sheer merits. The principle will be laid down that Statehood is not to be achieved by "massed plays"—to quote a football term; "one at a time" must be the order of procedure. Oklahoma, with proper arrangement for including what remains of the Indian Territory, may be admitted at any time in the future, provided the measure is brought forward in proper shape on its own merits. Al-



THEY FAILED TO MAKE A HIT.

The new Three Star Theatrical Company returning home after a disastrous season of their new sensational play, entitled STATEHOOD.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

though not as yet properly prepared for Statehood either singly or jointly, it is quite possible that Arizona and New Mexico might secure admission if they were willing to unite their fortunes and accept Statehood as one commonwealth.

*Addicksism
and the
"G. O. P."*

The long fight in Delaware against the evil political methods of J. Edward Addicks ended ingloriously at the very moment when there was a good chance to gain a permanent victory for honest and decent politics. On March 2, the regular Republicans of the Legislature surrendered to the Addicks Republicans on the compromise plan of sending the leader of the Addicks men to the Senate for the long term and a regular Republican for the short term. This compromise was brought about through the intervention of Charles H. Dick, of Ohio, in his capacity as secretary of the National Republican Committee, who did his party as bad a turn in thus meddling with the Delaware situation as could well be conceived. Mr. Dick's zeal in politics is of that partisan quality that would save Delaware for the party at the risk of losing the country through sheer disgust. Little Delaware, by all normal tests, belongs in the Democratic column. Its present Republican complexion is the personal work of J. Edward Addicks; and a wise

national Republican committee would prefer not to identify itself in any manner with Mr. Addicks' achievements. All the best public opinion of the Republican party throughout the nation was prompt, a few weeks ago, to approve the proposition of the Delaware Democrats to elect a regular Republican for the long Senate term.



Hon. J. Frank Allee.



Hon. L. Heisler Ball.

DELAWARE'S NEW SENATORS.

and an eminent and reputable Democrat for the short one. So determined, indeed, were the honest and decent Democrats of Delaware to have Addicks and his methods defeated at any price, that they had practically resolved to join the little handful of Republican regulars and fill both Senate vacancies with honorable and eminent Republicans of the type of Higgins and Dupont. But at this juncture Mr. Dick and the Republican National Committee must needs intervene with fervent gush about the necessity of Republican party harmony; and the result is an Addicks man for the long term, the disarming of the anti-Addicks Republican forces, and the noisy renewal of the campaign on behalf of J. Edward Addicks, who expects to win a majority in the Legislature to be elected next year, in order to succeed Mr. Ball, who has only the fag end of a Senate term to serve.

*What It All
Means.*

The ordinary differences of political conviction between Republicans and Democrats are too trivial to be mentioned in the face of such political dangers as honest men now have to face in the State of Delaware. The Democrats, who were twice as strong in the Legislature as the regular Republicans, were willing to make a complete party sacrifice on the altar of sound political morals and common decency. There are a great many Republicans all over the United States who would much rather see their party defeated in the next national election than have it assume such responsibilities as that of Addicksism in Delaware.



TWO OF 'EM, AND NEITHER NAMED ADDICKS.
From the Pioneer Press (St. Paul).

Apart from the moral aspects of the case, nothing could be a cheaper or more fatuous kind of politics than for the Republican National Committee to go partners with Addicks in the scheme to make a Republican State out of Delaware at the risk of losing the independent Republican vote throughout the country. Mr. Addicks has already begun to sound the glorious Republican slogan for 1904 with that irrepressible hilarity which has characterized his audacious career. He proposes to "carry the State in 1904 for the President,"—but frankly admits that his object in doing so is to create a wave upon which he himself may be borne triumphantly into the United States Senate. There are some victories which cost too dear; and if Mr. Dick, of Ohio, were a wiser politician, he would know that the prospect of carrying Delaware in 1904 under present circumstances is not a happy omen for the Republican party at large. Tammany Hall, in New York, is a model of political virtue when compared with Addicksism in Delaware. Even a dull political intelligence can understand the reasons why the National Democratic Committee might be tempted to conspire with Tammany Hall, even at the risk of some odium, when the thing at stake is the great block of electoral votes cast by the imperial and pivotal State of New York. But for the National Republican Committee to incur the odium of plunging boldly into the mire of Addicksism in Delaware, with no possible prize to be won except the electoral vote of a State that has only one Representative in Congress, looks like a reckless bid for the nation's ridicule and contempt.

Let Us Have Popular Election of Senators. This long fight in Delaware would have been obviated if United States Senators were elected by direct vote of the people. The Delaware House of Representatives took time between its balloting for Senators, one day in February, to declare itself unanimously in favor of an amendment to the Constitution of the United States to permit the people of the States to elect their Senators, as they do their governors and Congressmen, by direct vote. The public sentiment of the country, as expressed in the newspapers and in the formal action of legislatures, is in favor of such an amendment. If the question could be submitted to the people to vote upon, they would decide it in the affirmative by an overwhelming majority in every single State. Each succeeding House of Representatives at Washington votes for this proposition with entire or practical unanimity. The only obstacle to getting the proposed amendment before the country is the Senate itself, which has the bad taste to block

the plan of allowing the States to pass upon the question. The reform will certainly come about in the course of time. Meanwhile, public opinion should bring constant pressure to bear on the Senate; and constituents should demand of their own Senators that they allow the proposed amendment to be submitted, in the constitutional way, to the decision of the country. It is perfectly well known that the protracted Statehood fight, which monopolized the time of the Senate during the recent session, was not a little due to the personal schemes and ambitions of certain men who were proposing to bring a group of undeveloped Territories into the Union because they had well-laid plans for controlling the legislatures and putting themselves into the United States Senate. Direct election of Senators by the people would serve a twofold purpose,—it would make the upper house at Washington a more representative and efficient body, and it would improve political conditions in a large number of States, and leave the legislatures free to do their proper work.

Reform of Senate Methods.

It is not necessary to take the extreme tone of those who have of late adopted the fashion of vilifying the Senate. It has a number of excellent leaders, and it has lately accomplished a good deal of valuable work. There are periods when one house at Washington seems to have superior efficiency and prestige, and there are periods when it is the other house to which the country looks for strength and wisdom. For several years past, the Senate has been relatively the more potent and conspicuous body. For that very reason, the defects of the Senate have been the more glaring. With the increase in the volume of important public business, the parliamentary wheels must be well lubricated; otherwise there results a creaking, a delay, and a confusion that attract universal notice and harsh criticism. For a century or more, the Senate has done business in a leisurely way, on the principle of so-called "Senatorial courtesy." It never votes upon a measure so long as any Senator wishes to protract the debate. It confirms or refuses to confirm appointments to office on a sort of feudal principle that accords to each Senator seigniorial rights over the patronage of his own State. In short, the Senate has been continuing its old stage-coach methods of doing business in a day of steam and electricity. The masterly mind and force of Speaker Reed reformed the parliamentary methods of the House of Representatives. The gentleman who is by common consent to be the Speaker of the next Congress, the Hon. Joseph G. Cannon, of Illinois,

stood in his place on the floor of the House just before Congress adjourned, early last month, and denounced, impolitely and unsparingly, some of the objectionable results of the deference shown by the Senate to the whims of any individual Senator. Mr. Cannon's plain language was much resented at the other end of the Capitol; but it was approved by the newspapers.

An Instance or Two. Leading members of the Senate like Mr. Allison, and Mr. Platt of Connecticut, have now concluded that

there must be a new code of rules adopted, and that there must be some provision made for shutting off debate. When in the extra session of the Senate the Panama Canal treaty was ratified, on March 17, there were 73 votes for it and only 5 against it. Yet the extra session had been made necessary solely by the attitude of Senator Morgan, of Alabama, who, without any support whatever in his position, had insisted upon discussing the treaty day after day, with the express purpose of preventing a vote. It is true that the treaty might well have been subjected to a searching scrutiny and a thorough debate. But since the majority of the Senators were definitely pledged to vote for it, they would not even take the trouble to read its provisions in detail. Thus, Senator Morgan's methods were not resulting in a genuine debate on the subject; and it was not a business-like or useful system that permitted a single Senator to overrule the judgment of all his col-



SENATOR MORGAN (speaking against time in opposition to the Panama Canal bill): "I wish to read a few volumes in support of my claims."—From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



SENATOR GORMAN, OF MARYLAND.

leagues. A well-devised system of rules, on the other hand, ought to have made impossible the method by which the Alaska arbitration treaty was ratified in the absence of the opposition, without notice, and without opportunity for discussion. With proper rules governing the proceedings of the Senate, we should have secured the passage of the Philippine tariff bill, and of Mr. Aldrich's currency measure, and Cuban reciprocity could have taken effect at once.

Some New Senators.

The completion of Senatorial elections in various States allowed several of the newly elected men to appear in the extra session. The most conspicuous of the changes was that which brought Mr. Gorman, of Maryland, back after a term's absence. His Democratic colleagues in the Senate at once rallied around Mr. Gorman as their leader, and there was fresh talk in all the newspapers of his prospects as a Presidential candidate. A long deadlock in the Oregon Legislature resulted finally, on February 21, in the election of an able Republican lawyer, Charles W. Fulton, to be Senator Mitchell's colleague. The promotion of Congressman Long, of Kansas, to the Senate, is an encouraging recognition of real merit and ability. The opposition to Mr. Reed Smoot, of Utah, on the ground of his being a Mormon apostle, has not prevented his election and ad-

mission to the Senate. Albert J. Hopkins, who succeeds William E. Mason from Illinois, will from the start be one of the strong Republican figures of the Senate chamber. In like manner, William J. Stone, who succeeds the venerable George G. Vest, of Missouri, brings the prestige of a great position in the Democratic party.

New England Politics. New England has been a good deal stirred up by the official attack of the Democratic governor of Rhode Island, Mr. Garvin, upon the widespread and open practice of bribery in elections. Bishop MacVicar and other good citizens of Rhode Island declare that the situation is about as bad as it could be, and that corrupt election methods have become so intrenched in custom that many of the clergymen of the State are afraid to denounce them for fear of offending their congregations and losing their places. It is deeply regrettable, but true, that such methods are prevalent not only in Rhode Island, but in various localities in other Eastern States. New Hampshire has had a popular vote on ten proposed amendments to the State constitution. It is interesting to observe that New Hampshire has followed the recent example of most of the Southern States and adopted an educational qualification for the franchise. By a large majority, the proposition to extend the franchise to women was rejected. A plan of reapportioning representation in the Legislature was adopted, as was the so-called anti-trust amendment.

The Liquor Question. There is a strong movement in New Hampshire for the repeal of the laws prohibiting the sale of liquors. In Vermont, the abandonment of the prohibitory system in favor of a local-option plan gave the voters of the towns a chance to express their preferences in the local elections of March 3. All the cities of the State have voted in favor of licensing saloons; and of the rural towns, about half, or more than a hundred, have similarly voted to grant licenses. The fact is, that under the half-century prohibition régime there had grown up a widespread illicit business of saloon-keeping; and there is now to be substituted for it an orderly and regulated license system. It is the Southern States which are now the stronghold of prohibition, New England and the Northwest having almost wholly receded from the ground formerly held. Under the county-option system, a great part of Texas now prohibits the liquor traffic. There is at present a lively agitation of the subject in that State, the Prohibitionists endeavoring to extend their system throughout the commonwealth, while the liquor

men are proposing to substitute a high-license system guarded by drastic provisions. In Mississippi, Tennessee, and other Southern States, the liquor question is also under renewed and vigorous discussion.

Large Issues at Albany,—the Erie Canal. The Legislature of the State of New York has been occupied, during the present session, with a large number of measures of great practical importance about which there are wide differences of opinion among men of intelligence and high character,—these being measures which in their nature have little or no relation to party politics. The one that involves the most money is the proposal to improve the Erie Canal so that it may have a minimum depth of about ten feet and may be navigable for barges carrying a thousand tons. It is estimated that to accomplish this result it would be necessary to expend, in round figures, \$100,000,000. The commercial interests of the port of New York are strongly supporting such canal improvement. Parts of the State lying at a distance from the waterways to be improved are naturally not eager to have so large an expenditure made at the cost of the State treasury. Some years ago, all canal tolls were abolished. The chief benefit from the radical improvement of the Erie Canal will accrue—through the cheapening of freight rates—to the Northwestern producers of wheat and other supplies seeking Eastern or foreign markets. The advantage of a modernized Erie Canal would be so great to interstate traffic that it could easily afford to pay a considerable part of the cost. It would seem to be good financiering, therefore, to restore the canal tolls for the sake of providing a sinking fund for the gradual paying off of the hundred million dollars of canal bonds. If this were done, the State could well afford to pay the interest on the outstanding indebtedness.

Taxation Questions. Meanwhile, Governor Odell has been bending all his energy toward the enactment of certain measures for so increasing the revenues of the State as to make it possible to dispense altogether with direct property taxes for other than municipal and local purposes. The income from the tax on corporations and from the State's share of the liquor-license fees, with certain other sources of income, have already so increased the revenue of the State as almost to have accomplished Governor Odell's object as respects direct taxation. But State expenses are also increasing, and a larger income is desired. The governor now proposes a material increase in the liquor licenses, the benefit of which will accrue in part to the State and in part

to municipal and local governments. Another financial measure provides for a specific tax of four mills on mortgages, to be collected through county officers and to be divided between the State and the local governments within whose jurisdiction the mortgaged property is situated. At present, in the State of New York, mortgages are assessable as personal property at their full face value, and are thus liable to pay the ordinary tax rate, which averages about 2 per cent., or twenty mills. But it is a notorious fact that nearly all personal property in the State of New York escapes taxation altogether. Thus, the governor estimates that his four-mill annual tax on mortgages, under a system that would work with certainty and uniformity, would produce far more revenue than the present system yields, and be free from existing objections to the taxation of personal property. The real-estate interests of New York City, however, have shown strong opposition to the governor's plans. The present unenforced personal-property tax ought to be abolished, and in place of it a series of moderate but effective special taxes, on some plan like this of Governor Odell's, might well be substituted. It is proposed to increase the liquor-tax fees by 50 per cent. This would make the maximum license fee in New York City \$1,200, and the lowest fee in rural neighborhoods \$300. It is estimated that the change would reduce the number of saloons by one-tenth, and increase the revenue from liquor licenses to about eighteen million dollars, of which half would go to the State treasury. The proposed four-mill mortgage tax is expected to yield \$12,000,000, this also to be equally divided between State and local treasuries.

Educational Control. New York State has long had a strangely anomalous dual system of central oversight and control of educational matters. It has a Department of Public Education in charge of the common schools, with a superintendent at its head chosen by the Legislature for a term of three years. It has, on the other hand, a body known as the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, made up of a group of men appointed for life by the Legislature. There is no such thing as a University of New York in the usual sense of the term, but the Board of Regents performs an important function in exercising an advisory supervision over the whole business of secondary and higher education. At the point where the public grammar school ends and the public high school begins, the two central educational organizations find themselves in a chronic dispute over jurisdiction. Sooner

or later, one of these systems must develop at the expense of the other. Rival bills pending at Albany provide opposite solutions. Among the leaders of education, the preference seems to be for an increase of the authority of the Board of Regents, to be followed subsequently by a change in the organization of that body, with an abandonment of life tenure.



RT. REV. W. C. DOANE.
(Episcopal Bishop of Albany, Chancellor of the University of New York.)

Child Labor, and Housing. In the field of social reform, several matters of uncommon significance have been pending before the New York Legislature. One of these is the improvement of legislation to prevent the employment of young children. The evasions of existing child-labor laws in New York City have been widespread, and deplorable in their consequences. It is proposed to extend the scope of the present prohibition of child labor, and to improve the laws as regards their enforceability. Far from being exaggerated, the evils of child labor have generally been understated, because few people have gone into the subject far enough to comprehend the startling facts. If pending legislation at Albany succeeds, the lot of thousands of newsboys in the city of New York will be alleviated. Those under ten years of age will be taken off the streets altogether. The fight against certain valuable features of New York's recent tenement-house legislation is destined to fail. The so-called compromise tenement-house bill that is likely to pass does not injure in any material respects the admirable tenement-house code that Mr. De Forest has been administering. The sweatshop evil in New York has been largely broken up.

Municipal Progress.

New York City is preparing for some sort of modest celebration, on May 26, of the two-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the municipal organization of the city. The celebration will occur in a season of marvelous local expansion and prosperity. Never before were so many great projects on foot. The underground transit system, as now approaching completion, proves to be merely the beginning of an immense ramification which has been outlined by Mr. Parsons, the engineer of the lines. As its second year advances, the good work of the Low administration begins to be manifest in all departments. Police reforms proceed apace under General Greene's vigilant eye and unrelenting hand; the transformation of the health department under Dr. Lederle has been set forth in a remarkable pamphlet issued by the City Club; and in almost all the departments, good work is producing recognized results. It is now confidently expected that Mr. Low's renomination will be demanded by the Republicans, the Citizens' Union, and the anti-Tammany Democratic organizations that united to elect him in the fall of 1901,—New York's next municipal election occurring in the first week of November of the present year.

City Contests in Ohio.

In various other large cities of the country, municipal elections occur in the springtime. The most important city campaign now pending is that of Chicago. For an account of the issues and the candidates, we refer our readers to an article contributed to this number by Dean Judson, of the University of Chicago, himself a model type of the scholar in politics. In Cincinnati, there is a citizens' municipal ticket in the field whose candidate for mayor is the widely known president of the "Big Four" Railroad, Mr. M. E. Ingalls, who has long been a vigorous exponent of sound-money ideas and a citizen of public spirit. The Democrats are supporting this Ingalls ticket. The Republicans declare that the real significance of Mr. Ingalls' candidacy lies in a scheme to advance him from mayor to governor of Ohio, in order to make him a Presidential candidate next year. The Republicans have renominated Mayor Fleischmann, who is opposed by an alliance of the churches on the ground of his being at the head of a great distillery business and naturally an exponent of the liquor interests. In Cincinnati, the local and municipal questions involved are the predominant ones; but elsewhere the contest is interesting chiefly because Mr. Ingalls' victory would almost inevitably lead to his being a candidate, next fall, for the governorship. Meanwhile, another interesting Demo-



MR. M. E. INGALLS.

cratic figure, the Hon. Tom L. Johnson, has been renominated for the mayoralty of Cleveland, Ohio's largest city. The Republicans have nominated against him Hon. Harvey D. Goulder, a well-known lawyer.

Affairs in St. Louis.

In St. Louis, a mayor is not to be elected this spring, but a number of vacancies in the City Council and the House of Delegates are to be filled, and it is reported that the Republicans have nominated for these an exceptionally strong and clean ticket. Our advices are not quite so complimentary regarding the Democratic nominees, although the subject is not a matter about which we have made special inquiry. At the end of the present month, St. Louis is to celebrate the centenary of the Louisiana Purchase with an elaborate programme, and the President of the United States has so arranged his itinerary as to arrive in St. Louis on the afternoon of April 29, leaving in the early morning of May 1. These exercises will be under the auspices of the exposition management, and will in a sense be preliminary to the holding of the great exposition next year. Ex-Gov. David R. Francis, president of the exposition, came back, last month, from a highly successful European tour,



HON. D. R. FRANCIS.

(President of the St. Louis Exposition.)

where he basked in the favor of royalty, met the most important commercial bodies, and helped to secure promises and appropriations that will result in more extensive and attractive exhibits from public and private sources abroad than were expected a few months ago.

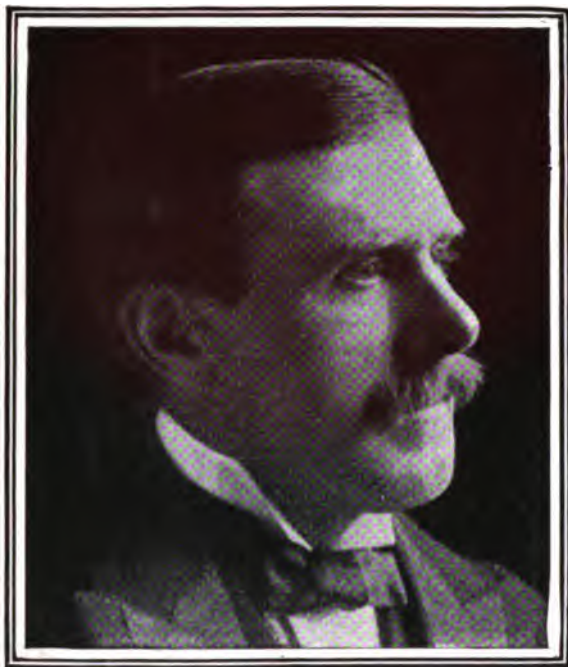
*Canal and
Railroad
Projects in
Canada.*

While the New York Legislature at Albany has been discussing the plan of expending \$100,000,000 on the enlargement of the Erie Canal, the Canadian Parliament at Ottawa has been interesting itself in what is really a rival project of the most formidable kind,—the proposed canal from the Georgian Bay to the St. Lawrence at Montreal. When first proposed, this canal was to have had a depth of ten feet. The plans were changed five years ago to provide for a depth of fourteen feet, and now another change has been adopted which calls for a depth of twenty feet. This would give a direct outlet to the ocean for large freight steamers. A glance at the map shows that the Georgian Bay route follows an almost direct line from the Lake Superior ports to Montreal. Its advocates say that it can be completed in much less time than the Erie Canal enlargement, and for much less money. Moreover, its projectors do not ask the Canadian government to pay the cost, but only to guarantee their bonds, in order to enable

them to borrow at a low rate of interest. It is expected that the canal's tolls will fully support the undertaking. If this canal were built, much of the wheat, flour, and various other export products of our Northwest would probably go to Europe by way of Montreal and the St. Lawrence. It seems probable that the project will be indorsed by the Dominion Parliament now in session. Apropos of the energy of our Canadian neighbors in the development of canals, we publish elsewhere in this number an article from the pen of Mr. E. T. D. Chambers describing the interesting project of a new transcontinental railroad which is to run considerably north of the Canadian Pacific. The whole subject of grain-transportation and trade routes is likely to be brought under consideration by a special government commission.

*Other
Canadian
Interests.*

The Canadian Parliament now in session is also to readjust representation according to the findings of the recent census, a railway commission is to be created, and a considerable legislative programme has been laid out for the session. The Canadians have not been pleased with the selection by President Roosevelt of Messrs. Lodge, Root, and Turner as the American members of the tribunal to decide the Alaska boundary question. Of the three British members, Canada will supply two, these being Sir Louis Jette, Lieutenant-Governor of Quebec, and Justice Armour, of the Supreme Court of Canada. Sir Louis was for a long time a member of the Quebec bench. The other British member will be no less eminent a personage than Lord Alverstone, Chief Justice of England. The Canadian case is to be in charge of the Hon. Clifford Sifton, minister of the interior, with whom there will be associated some eminent British and Canadian lawyers, among whom are named Mr. Christopher Robinson, of Toronto, and the Hon. Edward Blake, now one of the Irish Nationalist members of the British Parliament, but formerly, for a long time, a distinguished statesman in Canada. The Alaska tribunal will meet in London, probably in September. There is talk of an early resumption of the sessions of the dormant Joint High Commission, of which Senator Fairbanks is the ranking American member. If this commission could get together and devise a broad and liberal measure of commercial reciprocity between Canada and the United States, it would accomplish a most beneficent work, and one for which conditions on both sides of the international boundary line are now ripe. In Cleveland, Detroit, Chicago, Minnesota and the far Northwest an enthusiastic Reciprocity League is at work.

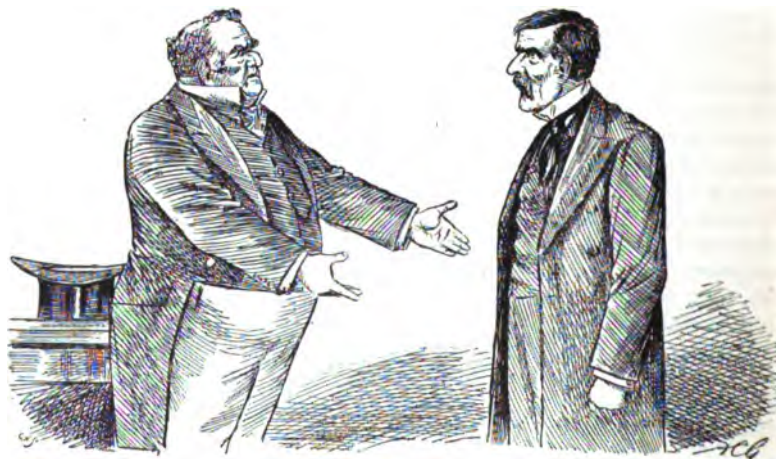


MR. BRODRICK, ENGLISH WAR SECRETARY.

*The Empire
and its De-
fenses.*

With their thousands of hardy fishermen and mariners on the eastern seaboard, the Canadians are about to enter in earnest upon the organization of a naval militia to serve Dominion or imperial needs in time of war. This will be to some extent a contribution toward that voluntary system of mutual and joint defense which Mr. Chamberlain now declares the whole empire must enter upon or face inevitable dissolution. Mr. Chamberlain has come back from South Africa with such enhancement of prestige, when the rest of the Balfour administration is under sharp criticism, that everything he says attracts profound attention. He has much to say about a certain "new conception of empire," which means, when reduced to hard and business-like terms, that England's army and navy bills have outgrown the ability of John Bull to pay them

alone, and that Canada, Australia, and South Africa are to be asked, in the future, to share in the support of the British army and navy. It is to be remembered that the shipbuilding programme of Germany and other countries is of peculiar interest to the "Mistress of the Seas," and the English have not by any means given up their idea that their navy must be equal to the combined fleets of any two or three foreign powers. Mr. Arnold-Forster, the admiralty secretary, whose position corresponds to that of our Secretary of the Navy, has introduced a naval budget for the coming year that calls for the unprecedented expenditure of \$180,000,000. Mr. Arnold-Forster's argument is that England's great navy is a grim necessity to a country that imports two-thirds of its food-supplies. Germany has no need of a navy except for purposes of aggression. It is the growth of the German navy that is compelling the United States to spend so much money on ships, and that is at the bottom of England's costly and regrettable increase of naval armaments. England is not building ships for aggression, but as a form of national insurance. At the present date, according to Mr. Arnold-Forster, England has seventy-one warships in process of construction. Mr. Brodrick, the war minister, has also a very formidable budget. Never before, in time of peace, have England's expenditures for the two armed services been so huge. Mr. Brodrick's reorganization of the army has given so little satisfaction that there will be a good deal of grumbling about paying the bills. His army estimates amount to



WHAT HE WANTS TO KNOW.

JOHN BULL: "What I want to know is this, Mr. Brodrick—am I an island? or am I a continent? If I'm an island, I want a big navy and a small army. If I'm a continent, I want a big army and a small navy. I can't afford to be an island and a continent, too!"—From the *Westminster Budget* (London).

almost the same total as the navy bill, and may be set down, in round figures, at \$175,000,000. In apologizing, last month, for the increase of army expenditure, Mr. Balfour, the premier, called attention in a somewhat sensational way to Russia's activity in the direction of India. John Bull is disposed to say that he could stand an increase of army expenditure, or could bear the cost of naval expansion, in the face of a clear emergency; but he hates mightily to pay the bills for expansion in the two services at the same time, with no well-defined reason for either.

The Irish Situation.

It is this state of mind of the overburdened taxpayer, and nothing else, that somewhat threatens the brilliant consummation of the government's Irish land scheme. The Irish landlords will not sell for less than a certain scale of prices based upon average rental, the tenants will not buy them out except upon a lower basis similar to that established by earlier precedent, and it has been expected that the national treasury would pay the difference in order to settle forever the Irish land question and pave the way for economic prosperity and political harmony. It would be a good investment for England, even with the present weight of her financial burdens. Meanwhile, the Irish Nationalist members of Parliament have thus far through the session abstained from annoying the Balfour government, and are on their good behavior, awaiting the presentation of the promised land measure. The government, last month, further placated the Irish by introducing some detailed bills in the line of increasing the powers of the Irish county councils and local-government bodies. We publish elsewhere an interesting article by the Hon. Horace Plunkett, in the form of an interview, on the progress of agriculture in Ireland under the auspices of the coöperative societies which he has done so much to promote. It is almost needless to say that if the great land-purchase scheme should go through in the near future, there would doubtless be a very rapid development of the sort of rural coöperative progress of which Mr. Plunkett is the best exponent.

Mr. Chamberlain and South Africa.

Mr. Chamberlain's trip is regarded in England as having accomplished wonders toward bringing about a better feeling between the races in South Africa. He extols the plan of visitations by colonial secretaries, and declares that personal acquaintance and contact can accomplish wonders in settling difficult problems. He praises the Boers, and expects their leaders to show loyalty to their



HON. HORACE PLUNKETT.

new government. His particular contribution to the improvement of political affairs in Cape Colony seems to be the forming of a friendly personal alliance with Mr. Hofmeyr, Mr. Sauer, Mr. Merriman, and the other leaders of the so-called "Afrikander Bond," which really controls and will continue to dominate the affairs of South Africa. Mr. Merriman and Mr. Sauer are the present leaders in the House of Assembly. Mr. Hofmeyr was Mr. Rhodes' chief political ally in the old days, and although not in the Cape Parliament now, he is the real head of the Dutch-speaking element. If one asks what Mr. Chamberlain actually accomplished, it is enough to point to the fact that he succeeded in arranging for the payment of \$150,000,000 toward the South African war debt by the owners of the Johannesburg gold mines. Further than that, a second sum of \$150,000,000 on that debt is to be assumed by the taxpayers of the Transvaal and Orange River colonies; that is to say, they will issue bonds for that amount, and will provide for interest and sinking fund,—with a British guarantee of the debt, in order to make the bonds marketable. Mr. Chamberlain has not solved the difficulties that involve the labor problem in South Africa, nor



Mr. Merriman. Mr. Hofmeyr. Mr. Sauer. Mr. Chamberlain.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN AND THE LEADERS OF THE NEW "SOUTH AFRICAN PARTY."

has he greatly changed the feelings of the Boers toward England; but all elements in South Africa have rather liked his sharp, direct methods of discussion, and are the better disposed to settle down to the peaceful pursuit of agriculture and industry. On March 19, Mr. Chamberlain made the interesting statement in the House of Commons that one hundred thousand Boers had been "repatriated,"—that is to say, restored to their homes,—a large proportion of them from the military prisons in St. Helena, Ceylon, Bermuda, and elsewhere. Mr. Chamberlain also stated that the government was giving the new colonists, under the peace provisions, the sum of \$75,000,000 toward the expenses of their resettlement. He has been treated in London like a conquering hero, and the newspapers were full of talk, last month, of a reconstructed ministry with Chamberlain as premier and Balfour as foreign minister.

German Affairs. The German chancellor has naturally been defending the Venezuelan expedition before the Reichstag, although he has had to face some sharp criticisms. Count von Bülow has also pointedly denied the report that the German Government had been

communicating with Holland in remonstrance against the inconvenience to German traffic of the Dutch railway strikes. It is none the less true that there is much apprehension in the Netherlands on the ground of Germany's supposed desire for an excuse to interfere in Dutch affairs. The expressions of displeasure in Germany at the tone of American public opinion in respect to the question of naval expansion are decidedly bitter. The German naval budget as presented by the naval secretary, Admiral von Tirpitz, and slightly modified in the Reichstag, amounts to approximately \$50,000,000. The feeling in Germany on the score of American trade rivalry has risen to maximum height. The industrial depression to which this feeling is somewhat due is, however, reported as less serious from month to month. The Emperor's versatility has been shown in recent theological pronouncements (see page 467), in an attempt to secure reforms in German literary style, and in sundry other directions.

French Topics.

In France, the most important public topic, last month, was the action of the Chamber of Deputies in supporting the extreme policy of Premier Combes and the ministry on the school question. The principle established in the law of associations as enacted under the former premier, M. Waldeck-Rousseau, was that schools carried on by men and women of the religious teaching orders must apply for express governmental authorization. The latest law, as adopted last month, simply refuses in a wholesale way to grant the applications. Some months will be required to make the extremely important changes and transfers requisite to an execution of this radical measure. The principal argument of Premier Combes had to do with the anti-republican character of the instruction in the monastic schools. It is to be feared that so harsh a policy will have unfortunate reactions. It seems to be the prevailing opinion that the Combes ministry cannot last very much longer, and that M. Rouvier or M. Ribot will be the next premier. Although President Loubet's seven-year term, which began in 1899, has three years yet to run, there is already definite talk of making M. Waldeck-Rousseau his successor. In a recent address in the Chamber of Deputies, the foreign minister, M. Delcassé, declared it a necessity for France that Morocco's independence should be maintained, expressed satisfaction with the status of the Franco-Russian alliance, mentioned hopefully the *rapprochement* of France and Italy, and took an altogether favorable view of the international position of the republic.



POPE LEO IN PONTIFICAL STATE.

Russian Domestic Reform.

The leading Russian topic of the month is the new manifesto of the Czar dealing with the governmental conditions of the empire, and promising various reforms. It has impressed the world at large as a matter of profound significance. It would seem to us, however, chiefly an evidence of dismay and alarm in Russian governmental circles over the ever-increasing boldness with which the popular discontent is expressing itself. In this connection, our readers will find it well to give especial attention to an article on the political situation in Russia by a well-informed contributor published elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW. The edict has not been hopefully received by any of the discontented elements, whether Finns, Poles, Jews, or political Liberals. There is no reason to doubt the Czar's sincerity, but to translate the proposals into definite reforms will be no easy matter. In view of the Macedonian uneasiness, there has been especial activity in the Russian army, and the fervent religious sentiment of the Russians on behalf of persecuted Christians in European Turkey has

been made to do service in diverting attention from the political discontent at home.

The Macedonian Situation.

Undoubtedly, the situation in Macedonia is a bad one, and the prospect of an earnest and honest enforcement by Turkey of the reforms demanded by Russia, Austria, and the other great powers is very remote indeed. The activity of revolutionary bands of Macedonians and Bulgarian adventurers gives the Turkish soldiers and military police the excuse for atrocities of the same sort as those perpetrated several years ago in Armenia. Nobody knows to what this situation will lead. The Sultan has promised to institute the desired reforms, and the associated ambassadors at Constantinople are endeavoring to see that his promises are kept. If Russia had not been interfered with by England and Germany twenty-five years ago, the present troubles would not have arisen.

The Pope's Twenty-five Years.

On the third day of March, the Pope celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of his accession. Being only a year or two short of three score and ten when crowned, and of frail physique, he was not expected to fill the Papal office very long. Yet he bore the splendid ceremonies, last month, with the interest and vigor of a young man. There is a fair prospect that he may live to be a hundred years old. His pontificate has been marked by wondrous tact and breadth of mind. There seems, however, no prospect of reconciliation between the Vatican and the government of Italy, while the harshness of anti-clerical measures in France and some other Catholic countries has been painful to the venerable Leo. It is in the Protestant countries like the United States and Germany that the Roman Church finds least to give it trouble.

The Strike Commission's Report.

One American Catholic prelate, Bishop Spaulding, deserves especial praise for the valuable service he has rendered upon the Anthracite Strike Commission, the report of which was made public on March 21. The commission's services to humanity in the work it has done are almost inestimable. We publish elsewhere an article from the competent pen of Dr. Weyl dealing with the whole subject. This commission has made the most important of all contributions to the cause of industrial peace.



RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From February 17 to March 30, 1903.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

February 17.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the army appropriation bill....The House begins consideration of the naval appropriation bill.

February 18.—The Senate discusses the question of closure....The House sends the army appropriation bill back to conference.

February 19.—The Senate, in executive session, considers the Panama Canal treaty....The House passes the naval appropriation bill, with an amendment authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to expend \$500,000 for submarine torpedo boats.

February 20.—The House passes the fortifications appropriation bill, and adopts conference reports on the bill for the protection of Presidents and the legislative appropriation bill.

February 21.—The House debates the Fowler currency bill.

February 23.—The Senate passes an omnibus public buildings bill; in executive session, the nomination of William R. Day, of Ohio, to be an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court is confirmed....The House passes the general deficiency appropriation bill.

February 24.—The Senate considers the post-office appropriation bill and the Aldrich banking bill....The House passes the Senate Philippine currency bill.

February 25.—The Senate passes the Philippine



HON. LEVI ANKENY.
(The new Senator from
Washington State.)

currency and the agricultural and post-office appropriation bills....The House discusses the Fowler currency bill.

February 26.—The Senate passes the sundry civil appropriation bill.... After a filibustering contest in the House, the Republican majority unseats Representative James J. Butler (Dem.), of the Twelfth Missouri District, and swears in George C. R. Wagoner (Rep.).



HON. A. C. LATIMER.
(The new Senator from
South Carolina.)



HON. CHESTER I. LONG.
(The new Senator from Kansas.)

February 27.—The Senate passes the naval and Military Academy appropriation bills....The House sends four appropriation bills to conference.

February 28.—The Senate passes the fortifications appropriation and immigration bills, and debates the Aldrich banking bill....The House passes the omnibus public buildings bill.

March 1.—The House adopts the report on the District of Columbia appropriation bill.

March 2.—The Senate passes the general deficiency appropriation bill.

March 3.—Agreements are finally reached between the Senate and the House on all appropriation bills.

March 4.—All the appropriation bills having been passed and signed by President Roosevelt, the Fifty-seventh Congress comes to an end.

SPECIAL SESSION OF THE SENATE.

March 5.—The Senate meets in special session and receives a message from President Roosevelt urging the ratification of the Cuban reciprocity and Panama Canal treaties; in executive session, the pending treaties are referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations.

March 9-10.—The Panama Canal treaty is favorably reported by the Committee on Foreign Relations and discussed in executive session.

March 11.—Extradition treaties with Mexico and Guatemala are ratified.

March 12.—The Cuban reciprocity treaty is favorably reported by the Committee on Foreign Relations, with amendments.

March 13-14.—Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.) and Mr. Spooner (Rep., Wis.) speak on the Panama Canal treaty, the former assailing and the latter defending the title of the Panama Canal Company.

March 17.—The Senate, by a vote of 73 to 5, ratifies the Panama Canal treaty without amendment.

March 19.—The Senate, by a vote of 50 to 16, ratifies the Cuban reciprocity treaty, with amendments providing that there shall be reciprocity in sugar with no other country than Cuba and requiring the approval of the House of Representatives. The special session of the Senate then comes to an end.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

February 17.—John Weaver (Rep.) is elected mayor of Philadelphia....In the Pittsburgh (Pa.) municipal election, W. B. Hays, a Republican, nominated for mayor by the Citizens' party and indorsed by the Democrats, is elected by about 8,000 majority....Governor Hunt appoints Ramon Latimer mayor of San Juan, Porto Rico.

February 18.—George B. Cortelyou takes the oath of office as Secretary of Commerce and Labor; he is succeeded by William Loeb, Jr., as secretary to the President....Associate Justice Shiras resigns as a member of the United States Supreme Court.

February 19.—President Roosevelt nominates William R. Day, of Ohio, to be an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court.

February 20.—President Roosevelt signs the Elkins anti-rebate bill.

February 21.—The Oregon Legislature, on the forty-third ballot, chooses Charles W. Fulton (Rep.) United States Senator:

February 23.—The United States Supreme Court decides that Congress has the right to prohibit the sending of lottery tickets from one State to another, under the power to regulate interstate commerce.

February 25.—Melville E. Ingalls, president of the "Big Four" Railroad, accepts the nomination of the Democratic and Citizens' parties for mayor of Cincinnati.

February 28.—The last bonds of the State of Missouri (for \$487,000) are paid.

March 2.—Governor Jennings, of Florida, appoints S. R. Mallory (Dem.) United States Senator to succeed himself....President Roosevelt calls an extra session of the Senate to meet on March 5...."Union" and "Regular" Republican members of the Delaware Legislature combine to elect J. Frank Allee (Union Rep.) for the long term in the United States Senate, and Dr. L. H. Ball (Regular Rep.) for the short term.

March 7.—Chicago Republicans nominate Graeme Stewart for mayor (see page 434).

March 10.—Governor Garvin, of Rhode Island, in a special message to the State Senate, charges wholesale bribery in connection with the election of members of the lower house....The proposed woman suffrage amendment in New Hampshire is decisively defeated by popular vote.

March 12.—President Roosevelt appoints a commission to report on the organization, needs, and condition of government work.

March 14.—Cleveland Republicans nominate Harvey D. Goulder for mayor.

March 16.—Chicago Democrats renominate Mayor Harrison unanimously (see page 434).

March 17.—President Roosevelt appoints S. N. D. North director of the census, to succeed William R. Merriam, resigned....Cleveland Democrats renominate Tom L. Johnson.



MR. CLARENCE DARROW.

(The award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission is universally accepted as a distinct triumph for Mr. Darrow, the counsel of the United Mine Workers before the commission.)

March 18.—President Roosevelt nominates Hamilton Fish to be Assistant Treasurer of the United States in New York City.

March 20.—President Roosevelt reappoints Dr. W. D. Crum collector of customs at Charleston, S. C., and William M. Byrne district attorney for Delaware.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

February 17.—The British Parliament is opened by King Edward in person.

February 19.—The Italian Chamber of Deputies decides, by a vote of 269 to 64, against reducing the expenditure on the army....Lieut.-Gen. Sir N. G. Lyttelton is appointed to the command of all the British forces in South Africa.

February 20.—The Mexican Monetary Conference meets at Mexico City....The Austrian army bills pass the Reichsrath.

February 24.—Debate on army reorganization is closed.

in the British House of Commons, the government being sustained by a vote of 261 to 145.

February 27.—The Portuguese cabinet resigns office. The budget committee of the German Reichstag makes reductions in the army estimates.

February 28.—In voting an oil tax, the French Chamber of Deputies incorporates a provision asking for the establishment of a government monopoly in petroleum. A new Portuguese cabinet is formed.



M. VON PLEHWE.

(Russian minister of the interior, appointed as head of the commission to carry out the reforms advocated by the Czar in his recent manifesto. See page 441.)

March 1.—José Batele Ordoñez is chosen President of Uruguay.

March 2.—A motion to disfranchise County Galway for the election of Colonel Lynch to Parliament is defeated in the British House of Commons. General Regalado hands over the presidency of Salvador to General Escalon.

March 4.—In the elections to the Japanese Parliament, 183 members of Marquis Ito's party, 92 Progressives, 14 Imperialists, and 74 Independents are chosen; the opposition numbers 275. The French Chamber of Deputies votes an annual appropriation of \$200,000 for increasing old-age pensions paid by the mining companies to miners and employees.

March 5.—The British army estimates for the year amount to £34,500,000 (\$172,500,000).

March 6.—President-elect Bonilla, of Honduras, captures the fort and town of Ceiba.

March 9.—The British naval estimates provide for nearly \$180,000,000.

March 11.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 245 to 154, rejects an amendment to the army estimates providing for the reduction of the army by 27,000 men.

March 12.—The French Chamber of Deputies resumes debate on the enforcement of the associations law. The Czar of Russia issues a manifesto promising to

grant freedom of worship to his subjects and to extend local self-government in the villages. The Canadian Parliament is opened.

March 14.—A commission, headed by Minister von Plehwe, is appointed in Russia to carry out the reforms proposed in the Czar's manifesto.

March 15.—The new Swiss protective tariff is adopted by a referendum vote of 329,000 to 222,000.

March 17.—The decree for higher import duties in Colombia goes into effect.

March 18.—A parliamentary by-election in Sussex, England, results in a Liberal victory by a majority of 534, as against a Conservative majority at the preceding election of 2,500. The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 300 to 257, sustains the government's refusal to permit the male congregations to teach throughout France.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

February 17.—A protocol providing for the settlement by a commission of claims of American citizens against Venezuela is signed at Washington.

February 18.—A Venezuelan court awards an American claimant \$700,000 damages for annulment of a concession by the Venezuelan Government.

February 19.—The joint note of the European powers regarding Macedonian reforms is handed to the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, with instructions to deliver it to the Turkish Government. Diplomatic relations between Germany and Venezuela are resumed.

February 23.—It is announced that the Sultan has agreed to the measures for reform in the Turkish administration of Macedonia proposed by the powers. The Dominican Government agrees to pay the Ros claims presented by United States Minister Powell.

February 24.—President Roosevelt signs an agreement with Cuba by which the United States secures a naval station at Guantanamo and a coaling station at Bahia Honda.

February 25.—Russia issues a warning to the Slav states of eastern Europe not to try to change the *status quo* in the Balkan peninsula.

February 26.—The protocol for the settlement of Mexico's claims against Venezuela is signed at Washington.

February 27.—A protocol providing for the settlement of the French claims against Venezuela is signed at Washington.

February 28.—Provision for the settlement of the claims of the Netherlands against Venezuela is made in a protocol signed at Washington.

March 3.—Ratifications of the Alaskan boundary treaty between the United States and Great Britain are exchanged at Washington.

March 7.—The Belgian protocol for the settlement of Venezuelan claims is signed at Washington.

March 10.—The Newfoundland legislature renews the French shore *modus vivendi*.

March 11.—The Cuban Senate, by a vote of 16 to 5, ratifies the treaty of reciprocity with the United States. The Bolivian minister to the United States protests against the transfer to Brazil of the concession held by the Anglo-American syndicate in Acre.

March 17.—Venezuela pays over to the representative of Germany the first installment of the indemnity. Great Britain announces the appointment of Lord

Alverstone, Chief Justice of England; Lieut.-Gov. Sir Louis Jette, of Quebec, and Judge Armour, of the Canadian Supreme Court, as members of the Alaskan boundary commission.

March 19.—It is announced that negotiations for a parcels-post convention are being conducted by the United States and Great Britain.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

February 20.—The twenty-fifth anniversary of the accession of Leo XIII. to the Papacy is celebrated in Rome.

February 21.—The corner-stone of the Army War College, at Washington, is laid by President Roosevelt.

February 24.—A violent eruption of the Colima volcano, in Mexico, is preceded by earthquake shocks in the vicinity.

February 25.—Colonial Secretary Chamberlain sails from Cape Town for England.

February 27.—The structural iron workers of the Pittsburg (Pa.) district go on strike.

March 3.—The twenty-fifth anniversary of the coronation of Pope Leo XIII. is celebrated in Rome.

March 10.—The stockholders of the Pennsylvania Railroad authorize an increase of \$150,000,000 in the capital stock of the company.

March 18.—The Anthracite Coal Strike Commission submits its report to President Roosevelt (see page 460).

March 20.—The Mississippi River reaches the greatest height ever known at New Orleans, 19.8 feet.

OBITUARY.

February 17.—Joseph Parry, the Welsh composer, 62. . . . Charles Theodore Russell, chairman of the Massachusetts Civil Service Commission, 53.

February 18.—Prince Komatsu, of Japan, 55. . . . Lewis Sylvester Hough, lawyer and author, 82. . . . Dr. M. Mielzinger, acting president of the Hebrew Union College, at Cincinnati.

February 20.—Rev. Hon. Arthur Temple Lyttleton, Bishop of Southampton, 51. . . . Chevalier Karl Scherzer, the Austrian traveler, 82.

February 24.—Dr. George Birkbeck Hill, the English author, 68. . . . Col. Sir Terence O'Brien, late governor of Newfoundland, 72. . . . E. Ellery Anderson, a prominent New York lawyer and reform politician, 69.

February 25.—John Forbes-Robertson, the English art critic and journalist, 81.

February 26.—Richard Jordan Gatling, inventor of the Gatling gun, 84. . . . Conrad N. Jordan, Assistant Treasurer of the United States, 73.

February 27.—Ex-Congressman Rodney Wallace, of Massachusetts, 80.

February 28.—Maj.-Gen. William Farrar Smith ("Baldy" Smith), a corps commander in the Civil War, 80. . . . Rear-Admiral William Harkness, U.S.N., retired, an eminent astronomer, 65. . . . Dr. Theodore Gaillard Thomas, a well-known New York physician, 72.

March 1.—Ex-Congressman Jehu Baker, of Illinois, 80.

March 3.—Baron Rieger, Bohemian statesman and leader of Czech movement, 84. . . . Dr. Rafael Zaldivar, former president of Salvador. . . . Richard M. Upjohn,

architect of the Connecticut State Capitol, 75. . . . Dr. Charles H. Ohr, of Maryland, said to have been the oldest past grand master Mason in the world, 93.

March 4.—Joseph Henry Shorthouse, author of "John Inglesant," 69. . . . Rev. Maurice Ronayne, S. J., author of Catholic books, 75.

March 6.—Gaston Paris, member of the French Academy and director of the College of France, 64. . . . Ex-Congressman William H. Ruston, of Massachusetts, 55.

March 7.—Rev. William B. Chamberlain, director of music in Chicago Theological Seminary, 56.

March 8.—Maj.-Gen. William Buel Franklin, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars (a corps commander in the latter), 80. . . . Ex-Congressman Martin I. Townsend, of Troy, N. Y., 93. . . . Ex-Congressman James H. Blount, of Georgia, Commissioner Paramount to



THE LATE DR. RICHARD J. GATLING.

(Inventor of the Gatling gun.)

Hawaii under President Cleveland, 67.

March 9.—Maj.-Gen. James W. McMillan, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 77.

March 10.—Andrew Carpenter Wheeler ("Nym Crinkle"), author and critic, 68.

March 11.—Samuel K. Dow, formerly a well-known Chicago lawyer, 75. . . . Frithjof Smith-Hald, a distinguished Norwegian painter, 54.

March 12.—Very Rev. George Granville Bradley, Dean of Westminster, 83.

March 14.—Ex-Congressman William E. Simonds, of Connecticut, 60.

March 16.—Ex-Congressman John W. Candler, of Massachusetts, 75.

March 17.—William S. Caine, M.P., 60. . . . Vice-Admiral Tyrtoff, Russian minister of marine.

March 18.—Maj.-Gen. Schuyler Hamilton, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 82.

March 20.—Charles Godfrey Leland ("Hans Breitmann"), American humorist, 78. . . . Justice Charles V. Bardeen, of the Wisconsin Supreme Court, 53. . . . Justice Samuel H. Terral, of the Mississippi Supreme Court, 68. . . . William P. Wood, chief of the United States Secret Service under President Lincoln, 80.



THE LATE GEN. WILLIAM F. SMITH ("BALDY" SMITH).

SOME CARTOON COMMENTS,—CHIEFLY ON THE PRESIDENT.

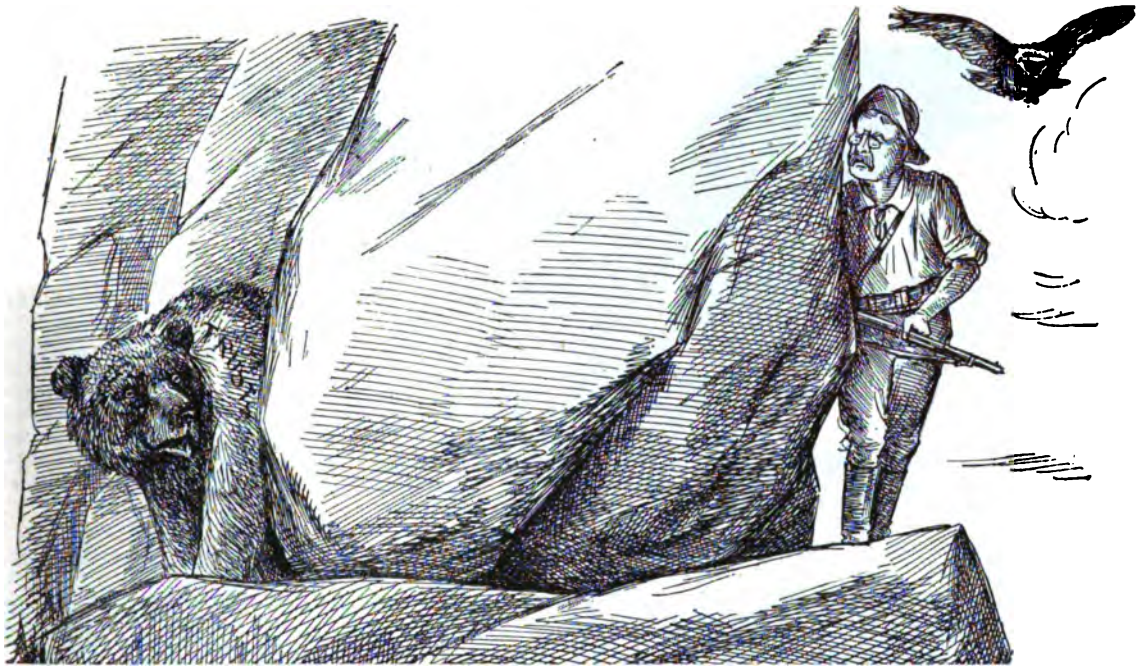


THE TEACHER AND THE PUPILS.

ROOSEVELT TO THE SENATE: "Boys, this hurts me more than it does you."—From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia.)

IT is certainly President Roosevelt's month. He goes upon his Western tour with all the freedom of mind and elasticity of spirit that belong to vacation days after a hard term's work in school. The cartoon on this page represents the President as a schoolmaster who has been obliged to keep some of his pupils after hours, and who is really more eager to get out than they are themselves. It refers, of course, to the extra session of the Senate, made necessary by its failure in the regular session to ratify the Panama Canal treaty and the Cuban

reciprocity treaty. Fortunately, its work was done quickly in the extra session, and the President's plans of travel were not disturbed. The international cartoons of the past month or two have given great prominence to President Roosevelt's vindication of the Monroe Doctrine, to his advocacy of a powerful navy, to his successful programme for the better regulation of trusts and corporations, and to his utterances and activities in various directions. His is to-day the most observed personality in the world.



A GRIZZLY PATH: PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND THE TRUSTS.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT: "Is it safe to shoot?"

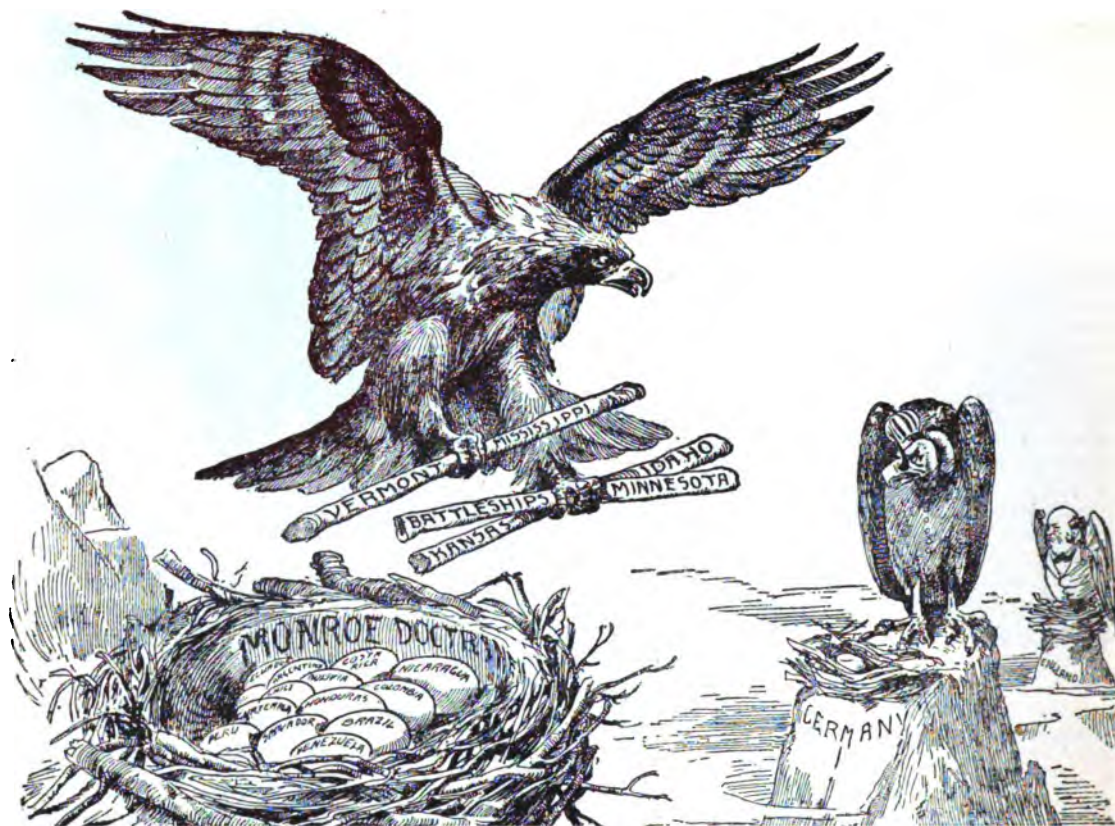
THE BEAR: "Does he mean business?"—From the *Westminster Budget* (London).



ACCORDING TO ROOSEVELT.

PATER FAMILIAS: "Well, anyway, I've the satisfaction of being a good and true citizen."

From the *News-Tribune* (Detroit).



FIVE BATTLESHIPS ORDERED.—A FEW MORE SUPPORTS FOR THE NEST.—From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



• A PRACTICAL FORESTER.—From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



THE MONROE DOCTRINE.—From *La Silhouette* (Paris).

THE OLD AND THE NEW IN SOUTHERN EDUCATION.

BY DAVID E. CLOYD.

(School Visitor for the General Education Board.)

[One hears much about backward conditions and new progressive tendencies in Southern education. Most readers can best understand a subject of that kind when it is presented, with due analysis and description, in a concrete study of some locality. Readers of all sections—North, East, South, and West—who really care to know about the Southern school movement will find this article by Mr. Cloyd well worth careful reading. Topics like those suggested in this article will, for the most part, make up the programme of the great "Conference on Southern Education" to be held at Richmond, Va., toward the end of the present month. Mr. Cloyd's careful study of two Georgia counties further illustrates the methods of inquiry pursued by the General Education Board and its ally, the Southern Education Board. We predict that the time will come when rural education in New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and some parts of the West will have to go to North Carolina and Georgia to find out the best way to make the district schools promote the welfare of country neighborhoods.—THE EDITOR.]

... the rural school question is the great problem. Between eight-ninths and eight-tenths of our people live in the country, and yet not one-third of our agricultural lands are being tilled, and that one-third not tilled one-third as well as it should be. . . . What blessings can be carried to these people of the rural sections when first-class schools are furnished to all of them!

Hon. HOKE SMITH, Atlanta, Ga.

We are, I think, in the beginning of one of the greatest educational movements that this country has ever seen. I doubt if there has been anything equal to it since the day, fifty years ago, when Horace Mann began his crusade in Massachusetts. But we teachers know well what the meaning of this is,—we know that the enthusiasm engendered here will not last. . . . That model school over in Danielsville [Georgia] is a beacon light. When the reaction comes, that school, and others like it which will some day be established, are the schools to which we shall look and say: "Here you will find represented that for which we stand; you must judge of our work by that which is done as it ought to be done."

Dean JAMES E. RUSSELL, Teachers' College.

THE first of these two quotations defines the problem of the South, and the second one sounds a note of warning and at the same time points out the necessity of developing model schools which embody the elements that are best and most lasting in our present ideals.

The purpose of this article is to show, by a concrete illustration, what the facts and conditions regarding elementary education in the South are, how the improvement of the schools waits upon the power of local taxation and efficient supervision, and what the goal is toward which the renaissance tends. Two counties in Georgia are taken as types. One, Hancock County, represents two things: first, the backward conditions of the public schools, which are due largely to the lack of sufficient funds and to inadequate supervision; second, the great awakening in education, and the direction in which improvements are being made. The

other, Bibb County, represents the better conditions of the public schools, which are the result of a long term of organization and administration under the power of local taxation and efficient supervision.

The school system of Bibb County was organized by special legislative enactment in 1872, five years before the adoption of the present State constitution. This system is under the administration of a county board and a superintendent. The board is self-perpetuating, with twelve regular members, and the mayor of the city of Macon, the Superior Court judge, and the ordinary as three *ex-officio* members. The members of this board are from among the best citizens of the county, and, being free from political control, they direct the schools in the interest of all the people. Their long term of office enables them to inaugurate and carry out whatever policy they may think best. This board of education is far more influential than any other board in the county. The board chooses a superintendent of schools. This official is the executive officer of the board and the professional head of the schools. The present superintendent is Jere M. Pound, a graduate of the State University of Georgia, an experienced teacher, a man of rare administrative ability, and a gentleman of culture.

Hancock County has a dual system of administration. There is a county board and a local board for each school. The local board is intended to be merely advisory. The county board is, in reality, vested with full power to control the schools. Its members are five in number, and are appointed for a term of four years. This board appoints a superintendent of schools for a term of four years. As in Bibb County, he is the executive officer of the board and the professional head of the schools. The present board

gives the superintendent full authority, but, owing to the method of appointment and the short term of office, the efficiency of some members of the board is occasionally impaired by personal and political influence from outside. The superintendent is M. L. Duggan, a graduate of Mercer University. Mr. Duggan is a good scholar, an experienced teacher, and an efficient administrative school officer. What is more, he has that spirit of earnest devotion and self-sacrifice without which but little could be done under the conditions existing in his county.

These two counties are in the same agricultural belt, and are but fifty miles apart. Thirty years ago, they were under practically the same conditions, with whatever difference there might have been decidedly in favor of Hancock County. Since that time, great differences have arisen, which this article tries to account for, in part,

as growing out of the two very different school systems. Bibb County has had the power of local taxation for thirty years, and has also had efficient supervision, while Hancock County has never had local taxation, and has had efficient supervision only during the six years' service of the present superintendent. The constitution of the State of Georgia, while in terms permissive, virtually prohibits local tax for school purposes, and consequently, out of one hundred and thirty-seven counties, only four have such a tax, and these secured the right by special legislative enactment.

A careful analysis of the following table of statistics, furnished by Mr. Duggan and Mr. Pound, will make quite clear their special significance as touching the problem in hand. It was impossible to get data from earlier records than the ones given here that could be at all relied upon.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS.

	Bibb County.		Hancock County.	
	Whites.	Negroes.	Whites.	Negroes.
Square miles in county.....	254		474	
Total population, 1880.....	27,146		
Total population, 1900.....	23,078	27,396	4,649	13,628
Assessed valuation, 1880.....	\$9,443,313		\$2,306,279	\$56,792
Assessed valuation, 1902.....	\$18,580,572	\$750,000	\$1,815,425	\$167,956
School census, 1898.....	6,028	7,982	1,302	4,281
School enrollment, 1902.....	4,173	3,091	1,086	2,432
Percentage of enrollment, 1902.....	68 %	38 %	79 %	57 %
Percentage of attendance, 1902.....	79 %	71 %	68 %	57 %
Share State school fund, 1902.....	\$32,428.52		\$15,248.33	
Rate of county tax, 1872-1902.....	2 to 2½ mills		None	
Rate special district tax.....	None		At Sparta, 5 mills	
Rate nine months would require.....	2½ mills		3 mills	
Number of school buildings.....	33	17	23	15
Number owned by board.....	All	All	18	3
Average cost rural buildings.....	\$500	\$500	\$500	\$150
Number of teachers, 1902.....	113	44	43	42
Minimum salaries, 1902.....	\$40	\$30	\$25	\$14
Maximum salaries, 1902.....	180	55	100	40
Percentage of male teachers, 1902.....	3.5 %	18 %	17 %	25 %
Number of normal graduates.....	67	27	5	0
Number of normal undergraduates.....	None	None	10	9
Number of college graduates.....	50	25	14	5
Number of first-grade certificates.....	114	None	26	4
Number of third-grade certificates.....	None	None	1	15
Length of school term, 1902.....	9 months	9 months	5.5 months	5.5 months
Percentage of illiteracy, ten to eighteen years, 1898.....	4 %	20 %	5 %	28 %
Percentage of illiteracy, ten to eighteen years, 1902.....	1 %	5 %	1 %	23 %
Number of libraries, 1902.....	12	4	26	0
Number of students above eighth grade.....	413	None	50	10

ENROLLMENT AND ATTENDANCE.

In Bibb County, the enrollment in the white schools is 68 per cent. of the census, and in the negro schools it is 38 per cent., while in Hancock County the corresponding percentages are 79 and 57. The small percentage of enrollment in Bibb County is due primarily to two causes. First, there are six private schools and colleges in Bibb County that do preparatory work practically free, and they draw a majority of their

patronage from this county. Especially is this true regarding the negroes, who not only attend private schools at home, but even go away to the colleges at Atlanta. Taking into consideration the enrollment in these six schools, the percentage of enrollment in Bibb County will reach something like 75 for the whites and 50 for the negroes. Second, there are five large cotton mills in Bibb County that employ many children of school age who would otherwise, many of them, be in school. And, though there



The old.

The new.

BIBB COUNTY SCHOOLS.

is a cotton mill in Hancock County, yet the manager will not employ children under eighteen years of age unless they have attended school a part of the year. These percentages may, with interest, be compared with that for the entire State, which is 68 for whites and negroes together.

The percentage of attendance makes a decided showing in favor of Bibb County. It is 79 per cent. for the whites and 71 per cent. for the negroes in Bibb, and 68 per cent. for the whites and 57 per cent. for the negroes in Hancock, while for the entire State it is 61 per cent. In connection with the percentage of attendance in Bibb County it must be stated that during the year 1901-1902, for which these statistics are taken, scarlet fever and smallpox prevailed throughout a great part of the year, and, consequently, reduced the attendance very materially. In the light of all these facts and conditions, one must reach the conclusion that the school system of Bibb County has a stronger hold on her children than the school system of Hancock County has on her children.

GRADE OF TEACHERS.

In Bibb County, the minimum salary for white teachers is \$40, and for negroes \$30, while in Hancock County the minimum is \$25 for whites and \$14 for negroes. And the maximum salary in Bibb is \$180 for whites and \$55 for negroes, while in Hancock the corresponding salaries are \$100 and \$40. This great difference in salaries makes it possible for Bibb County to employ much better teachers, and to keep them for a much longer term of years, than Hancock County can do. In fact, the average term of service of Bibb County teachers is about seven and three-tenths years, while that of the Hancock County teachers is only about three years. Also this is true,—83 per cent. of the Bibb County teachers

have never taught elsewhere, while there are but 45 per cent. of the Hancock County teachers who have never taught elsewhere. In other words, there are 31 per cent. more "traveling teachers" in Hancock County than in Bibb County. And the table shows that in Bibb County 44 per cent. of the white teachers and 57 per cent. of the negro teachers are college graduates, and that in Hancock County the corresponding percentages are only 32 and 12. Also, in Bibb County, 59 per cent. of the white teachers and 61 per cent. of the negroes are normal graduates, while in Hancock County only 11 per cent. of the whites and none of the negroes are normal graduates. In Bibb County, 100 per cent. of the white teachers hold first-grade or life certificates, and 100 per cent. of the negroes hold second-grade certificates. Many of the negroes could pass the examination for first-grade certificates, but they are not required to do so. No third-grade certificates are issued in Bibb County. In Hancock County, only 60 per cent. of the white teachers and 9.5 per cent. of the negroes hold first-grade certificates; and 2.3 per cent. of the white teachers and 35 per cent. of the negroes hold third-grade certificates. Certainly, a much higher grade of work is being done in the schools of Bibb County, where a vastly larger percentage of college and normal graduates are employed, and where the term of service is practically for life. The two things that make these facts and conditions possible are the exercise of the power of local taxation and efficient school supervision.

PERCENTAGE OF ILLITERACY.

According to the census of 1893 and of 1898, the percentage of illiterates, in Bibb County, between the ages of ten and eighteen, has decreased from 4 to 1 for the whites and from 20 to 5 for the negroes. In Hancock County, the corresponding percentages are 5 to 1 and 28 to 23. Or, in

totals, the percentage of illiterates has decreased from 5 to 3 in Bibb and from 22 to 18 in Hancock County; that is, Bibb County, with about three times the population of Hancock County, has only a few more than half as many illiterates. In other words, the condition regarding illiteracy is only about one-sixth as bad, for the children between the ages of ten and eighteen, in Bibb County as it is in Hancock County. But the census report of 1900 shows that 19 per cent. of the people in Bibb County, from ten



RURAL WHITE SCHOOL, BIBB COUNTY, GEORGIA.

years of age up, and 26 per cent. of those in Hancock County, are illiterate. Even these figures show a very great difference in favor of Bibb County. And, considering the fact that, as a rule, a large percentage of illiterate people congregate around manufacturing establishments, of which there are more than fifty in Bibb County, giving employment to 5,000 operatives, the above figures become even more significant. The reader may draw his own conclusions regarding the effect of a good system of schools.

ASSESSED VALUATION.

The figures given in the table of statistics show that the assessed valuation of Bibb County has increased more than 104 per cent. during the last twenty-two years, while the assessed valuation of Hancock County has actually decreased more than 15 per cent. And, even though Bibb County is but a little more than one-half as large as Hancock County, the assessed valuation of Bibb County has increased, during the past twenty-two years, from four times to nine and seven-tenths times that of Hancock County. Further, the crop returns show that the average production per acre is from 33½ per cent. to 50 per cent. less in Bibb County than in Hancock County; that is, the intrinsic worth

of Bibb County is from 33½ per cent. to 50 per cent. less than that of Hancock County. Yet the average market value per acre of the improved land in Bibb County is \$20.73, while it is but \$3.70 in Hancock County. During these twenty-two years, there has been no boom in Bibb County, and the increase in values has been without any artificial stimulus whatever. Neither is this high value of land in Bibb County due to its proximity to the city of Macon, for the value per acre in the five adjoining counties is \$2.84, \$4.14, \$2.97, \$4.30, \$1.95. If a circle be described about the city of Macon as the center, and with the most remote point of Bibb County as a point in the circumference, about two-fifths of Jones County will lie in this circle. That is, two-fifths of Jones County is as near to Macon as is all of Bibb County, and should be equally affected by its proximity to the city. This two-fifths of Jones County equals 62 per cent. of Bibb County, and were its value per acre equal to that of Bibb, the average value per acre of the improved land of the entire county would be several times what it is—\$2.97. And yet the "fine mulatto lands of Jones County were once regarded among the best in the State." The only important institution in Bibb County that is not equally free to the five adjoining counties is the magnificent system of public schools. Surely, then, this is an unanswerable argument for local taxation and efficient supervision of schools, at least to those who are interested in the material development of the South.

EFFECT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION UPON HIGHER EDUCATION.

The following facts surely show that education, though contrary to what is sometimes



NEGRO RURAL SCHOOL, BIBB COUNTY, GEORGIA.



GRESHAM HIGH SCHOOL, BIBB COUNTY, GEORGIA.

claimed by students of the history of education, may and actually does work from the bottom upward. In both Bibb and Hancock counties, there are high schools—one in each county—with a three years' course, above the seventh grade, open to all the qualified pupils of the counties. Bibb County has no high school for negroes, but there are private high schools for negroes in Macon. In Hancock County, work in high-school subjects is offered, but not more than ten students are prepared to do such work. However, from both counties many negroes are drawn away from the public schools to support the large number of private schools in the State—to such an extent that no public high school has seemed to be needed. Yet the inspiration that sends these negro students away to secondary schools comes from the public elementary schools. About one hundred and fifty negro students are doing high-school work in the private schools of Macon alone.

The number of white pu-

pils in the high school in Bibb County is 413, while in Hancock County it is only 50. On the basis of the total enrollment, given in the table on page 418, the enrollment in these high schools is 10 per cent. and 5 per cent., respectively. And with a conservative estimate, there are at least 5 per cent. as many negroes doing high-school work in the private schools of Macon as there are in the elementary schools. This would give approximately 15 per cent. of the students enrolled in Bibb County who are doing high-school work, while in Hancock County only 1.7 per cent. of the entire enrollment are in the high school. In other words, the percentage of enrollment in

the Bibb County high school is eight and eight-tenths times that in the Hancock County high school. This certainly shows that the better system of elementary schools makes possible, and actually demands, better secondary schools.

One other important effect of the elementary



BIBB COUNTY GRADED AND TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOL AT MACON.



THE OLD CULVERTON SCHOOL, HANCOCK COUNTY, GEORGIA.

schools in Bibb County has been the establishment of a teachers' training-school in Macon as a part of the public-school system ; this came in response to a demand for much better teachers in the elementary schools of the county. But in Hancock County, the short terms, small salaries, and other backward conditions in the schools have not only not called for a training-school for teachers, but have, as has been shown above, even kept better teachers away from the county. Still another fact shows that the force which has been working in Bibb County has not been from above. One of the colleges in Macon, for some years, supplied a part of the teachers for the county schools, but they were not professionally trained, and, consequently, they did not meet the demand from below. The college, *as ever*, was too slow to respond to a modern demand, and so the teachers' training-school occupied the field. This influence from below has continued to grow till the leading college in the city has recognized it to such an extent that it is now giving courses in education to the students in the teachers' training-school, and to the teachers of the county. And, further, in recognition of a broader demand of the same character, this college is planning to establish a department of education for the training of leaders for the public schools of the State at large. Thus, Mercer College is enlarging and modifying its work in response to a

natural demand emanating from a superior system of public elementary schools.

LOCAL TAX RATE NECESSARY FOR A NINE MONTHS' SCHOOL.

Both of these counties receive the same apportionment, *per capita*, from the State school fund. But Bibb County has a $2\frac{1}{2}$ mills local tax, while Hancock County has no local tax except in the Sparta high-school district, where the rate is 5 mills and the school term ten months. The $2\frac{1}{2}$ mills in Bibb County runs the schools nine months with the magnificent results given above ; 3 mills would do the same for Hancock County. But the present State constitution makes local taxation practically impossible.

PROGRESS IN HANCOCK COUNTY.

So far, this article has shown that the exercise of the power of local taxation and the consequent better school system means greater wealth, increase of population, better teachers, less illiteracy, more students in higher schools ; next, it will deal with some of the most important and at the same time most difficult problems involved in the improvement of the schools in the South. The further study will be confined to the work being done in Hancock County. This work is a fair type of what must be done throughout the South, though in different States the methods of attack may vary. The preceding

discussion has shown that the conditions in Hancock County are exceedingly backward; this part of the discussion will show how one earnest, devoted, and efficient leader is awakening new interest in education and is leading his people, through glimpses of a new life, new hope, and new strength, to build with their own hands and their own money a more efficient system of schools. For more than two years, this superintendent has been conducting an educational propaganda to create a more healthy sentiment for education, and to initiate efforts in every possible direction toward the improvement of the schools. His first attack was upon the old shanties that were serving the purpose of school-houses. Of the seventy-five old wrecks then in use, not one was even so much as owned by the school board, and the State school laws provided no building fund; but the board found a way to use a part of the general fund, and so it began aiding districts to build houses. The following story of the Mount Zion School,—a rural school seven miles from the nearest railroad station,—is a beautiful illustration of what is going on, not only in Hancock County, Georgia, but throughout the Southland, wherever there is a real leader at the head of the school system.

The old Mount Zion building shown in the illustration was used as a country store before the war, and later it did service as a dilapidated negro cabin. When it had ceased to be fit for either, it was then consecrated to the use of the community school, which purpose it served till 1901. For more than a year, the superintendent of schools struggled with this community to awaken sufficient interest to build a new house, but he was defeated by the blind determination of each man to have the building near to his own door. Finally, the county board of education, looking only to "the greatest good to the greatest number," and irrespective of the wishes of any individual,



THE OLD MOUNT ZION SCHOOL.



THE NEW MOUNT ZION SCHOOL.

selected a central location and proposed to the community to furnish the material if the patrons would haul it and build the house. The proposition was accepted, and by the outlay of two hundred dollars by the board, and two hundred dol-



A GANG OF CONVICTS GRADING SCHOOL GROUNDS.

lars in labor by the patrons, the building was soon completed and ready for use. It is well lighted and well furnished, and is comfortable in every respect. This house, with slight modifications, represents the grade of buildings that are being constructed throughout the county.

The inspiration that came with the new building brought also a desire for beautiful grounds and a school garden. The superintendent, with his characteristic initiative, secured from the county grand jury a recommendation that "whenever the road gang were working the public roads in the neighborhood of a public school, they should be allowed to work the

school grounds under the direction of the county school superintendent." The accompanying pictures show this work in progress at the Mount Zion school. The children are now at work on their school garden, and are also raising money for a library. Recently, the superintendent wrote me: "The citizens of this district are proud of their pretty new schoolhouse, of their school, and of themselves; and the cause of education, henceforth, can get whatever is needed for its advancement in this community. And,



OLD SCHOOLHOUSE, MOUNT HOPE, HANCOCK COUNTY.

what is more, the influence of this school and community has reached the adjoining districts, and the contagion can't be stopped within the limits of the county." Reader, please look again at the *old* schoolhouse, and then at the *new*. In the old house, the enrollment was 14, with an average attendance of 11; in the new house, the enrollment is 38, with a corresponding increase in attendance. In the old, the school term was five and one-half months; in the new, it is eight months. In the old, the teacher's salary was \$25 per month; in the new, it is \$48 per month. And the superintendent has just told me that so many families have already moved to this district for the better school advantages that he is now planning to build an addition to the schoolhouse during the coming vacation.

This story of the Mount Zion school, with but slight change in names and data, is the story of a great number of other schools in Hancock County. The board has built and now owns twenty-one houses, while two years ago it did not own a single one. Seven of these new schoolhouses, by the consolidation of districts, now take the place of seventeen old shacks, and the number of schools in the county is thereby reduced by ten. The superintendent is wise enough to see that, with a given amount of money, fewer schools can be made more efficient than many schools.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD GIVES AID.

As has already been stated, the length of the school term in Hancock County, in past years, has been only five and one-half months, and that short term consumed every dollar of the school funds. The superintendent of schools realized the impossibility of regenerating his county with so short a school term. The school district of Sparta, the county seat, by special legislative enactment, had secured the right of local taxation for school purposes, and was thereby extending its school term to ten months. So the superintendent began to tell the people of the county what superior advantages the power of local taxation was giving to their neighbors' children in the county seat. And seeing himself face to face with the constitution, which forbids his people to levy a tax upon themselves for the education of their own children, he inaugurated a plan for extending the term of every school in the county, free to every child of both races, by private subscription. He addressed mass meetings in from two to three districts a day till he had canvassed the entire county. He appointed local district boards to solicit subscriptions. Soon every district in the county reported sufficient funds to extend the term one month, with the understanding that no teacher's salary was to be less by subscription than by public funds. The people had responded heartily to this call, and so the schools were ordered to open one month earlier than in past years. Yet they could have but six and one-half months' schooling.

The superintendent then appealed to the General Education Board, saying, "We have done all that we can; now, will you help us?" Dr. Buttrick, the executive secretary of this board, saw here an opportunity, not only "to help those who help themselves," but to demonstrate how



OLD NEGRO SCHOOL, HANCOCK COUNTY.



OLD WHITE SCHOOL, HANCOCK COUNTY.

THE NEW "SUNSHINE" SCHOOL.

by a very low rate of local taxation the people of Hancock County and of other counties could secure a school term of eight months. First, he asked me to go to the county and make a thorough study of the organization and administration of the schools. Then, after he had received a favorable report from me, he secured from the General Education Board an appropriation sufficient to extend the term one additional month, thus with the sums raised locally securing an eight months' term, free to every child in every district in the county, white and colored. The agreement between the superintendent and the General Education Board obligates both parties to continue this work for a period of three years. This is the bridging of the chasm from no taxation to local taxation, from poor schools to good schools; and the construction material used in the bridge is an earnest, self-sacrificing school superintendent, an enlightened public sentiment, the people's own hands and their own money, and, lastly, a little aid from the General Education Board. The people pledge themselves to work for an amendment to the State constitution which will make it possible, by the expiration of three years, to secure local taxation for school purposes. This same kind of work is being done in a few other counties in the South. During these years of waiting, why should the State not appropriate a

few thousand dollars to be used in aiding counties on some such basis as the above agreement with the General Education Board?

PREPARING FOR INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

Not satisfied merely with building school-houses and lengthening school terms, the superintendent begins plans for the introduction of manual training into every school of the county. He is confronted with the fact that his teachers are not prepared to do such work. Here he might have asked the question and then rested, "Why do colleges and normal schools never look far enough into the future to prepare teachers for what is to be, but eternally lag behind public sentiment?" But he didn't do this. He planned to establish at Sparta a manual-training school as an organic part of the county system, and to be used as a central training-school for the teachers of the entire county, on a plan somewhat similar to that in operation in Bibb County. This school will be in session one month before and one month after the rural school term, and also on Saturdays during the term, and the teachers will be required to attend till they are competent to teach such work in their own schools. The manual-training teacher is to accompany the superintendent on his visits to the rural schools, and will in this way supervise the industrial work throughout the county.



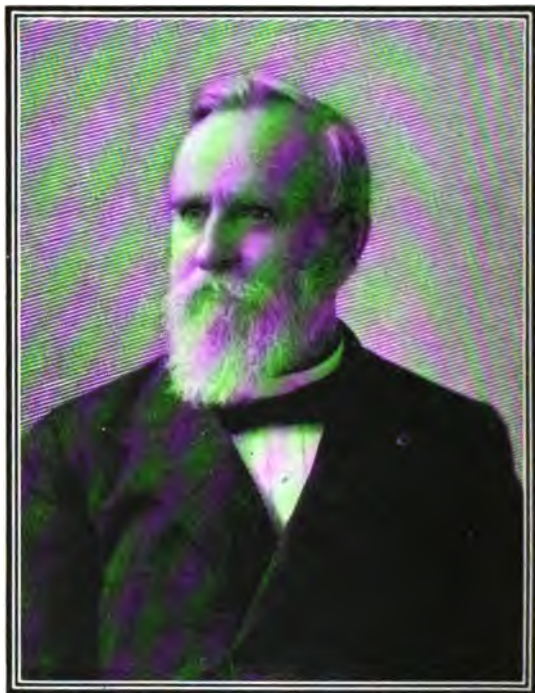
A CENTURY OF THE STATE OF OHIO.

BY MURAT HALSTEAD.

THE State of Ohio grew from backwoods territorial conditions under the guidance of the high and broad minded men of New England and Old Virginia. We of Ohio were fortunate in our ancestors, who moved west from the rivers Connecticut and Hudson, the James and the Potomac, to meet in the valleys of the Muskingum and Scioto.

The writer of these lines traces his forefathers and foremothers from the Pennsylvania Susquehanna and the broad tidal rivers of North Carolina. The Carolinians journeyed in wagons through Cumberland Gap, and the Pennsylvanians along the National Road, the first meaning to settle on the Kentucky, and the other on the Hockhocking. They met in the valley of the Great Miami in permanent homes.

The people of Ohio, a hundred years ago, represented all the original States, and were largely Revolutionary soldiers. The majority of the immigrants were comfortable farmers, moving for the good lands of great reputation. The Virginians had been foremost in the wars with the Redmen in defending the borders of civilization, and they were as swift in long walks or



PRESIDENT RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.



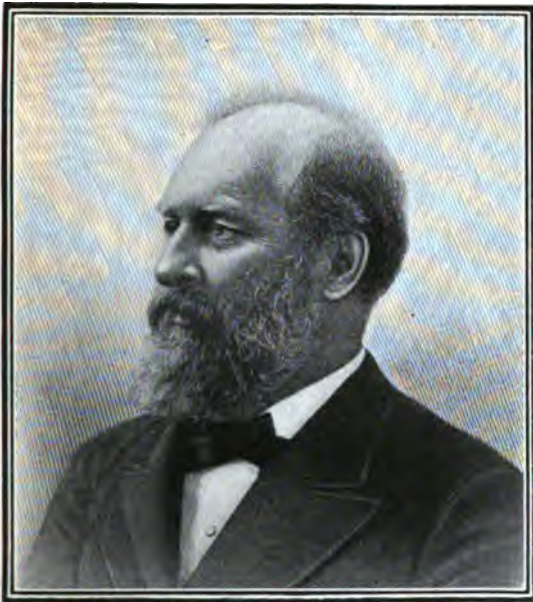
PRESIDENT ULYSSES S. GRANT.

runs, as crafty in concealment, as hardy in adventure, and keener as riflemen than their savage foes.

We speak of Ohio as a representative State that ranks with Virginia, as America does with Europe. Virginia and Ohio hold jointly the excellent fame of mothers of Presidents. William Henry Harrison, a native of Virginia, and a citizen of Ohio when chosen President, binds the old and the new, forming an unparalleled group. Washington, Jefferson, Monroe, and Madison, Virginians; Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Benjamin Harrison, and McKinley, Ohioans; Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan, Lee, Jackson, and Johnson, of the same States carry the parallel between Virginia and Ohio, in splendid array of high chieftains, on the roll of glory.

We especially consider Ohio, in the year that is the centenary of the State we celebrate. We cannot, lofty as are the storied walls, inscribe all the victorious Ohio names written in starlight on the everlasting arches of triumph.

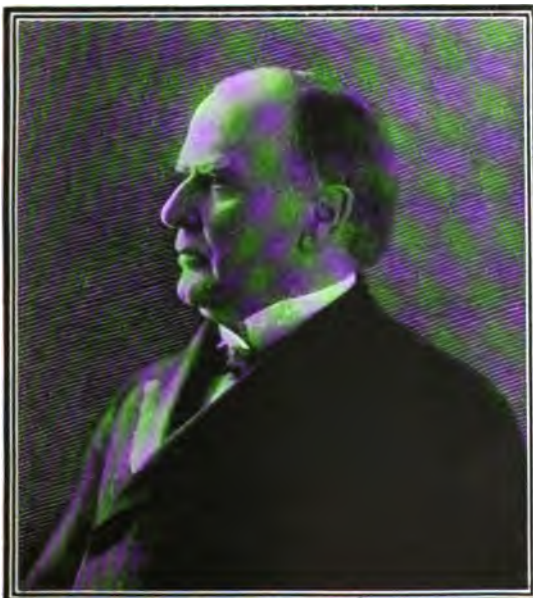
Ohio has given men learned in the law and on the Supreme bench, and to the cabinets of



PRESIDENT JAMES A. GARFIELD.

the master workmen of many administrations. Edwin M. Stanton's name is there, and Thomas Ewing's figure still looms gigantic. The great war chief, Tecumseh, was a native of Ohio, the greatest of the Redmen of America, and his name was blended in another, to be resplendent forever.

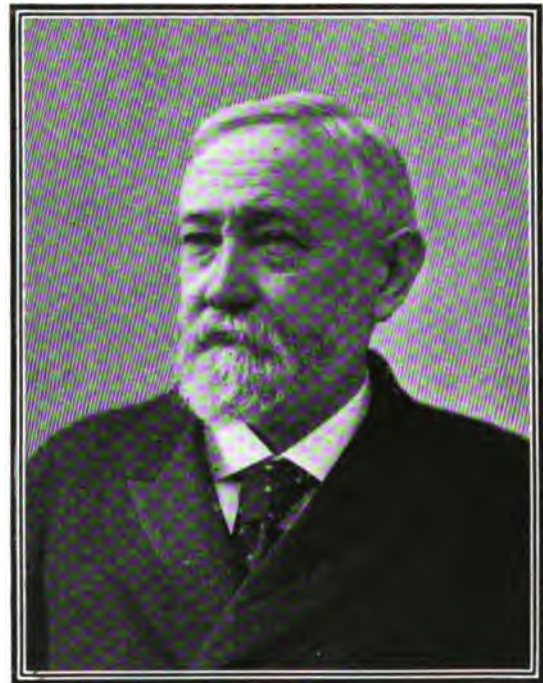
In addition to the heroic quality of the im-



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PRESIDENT WILLIAM M'KINLEY.

migrants who possessed Ohio, there seemed to be influences of soil and climate, of airs and waters, of the fruitful woods and living streams; and there was, by the mighty magic of creation, in the brains and blood, the tissue and sinew of men and the grace and faith of women that yielded a growth of manhood and womanhood in a race equal to the founding of a mighty nation, with the inheritance of all the empires gone before—the conquest of the beneficent continent, that in a few generations has given weight



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PRESIDENT BENJAMIN HARRISON.

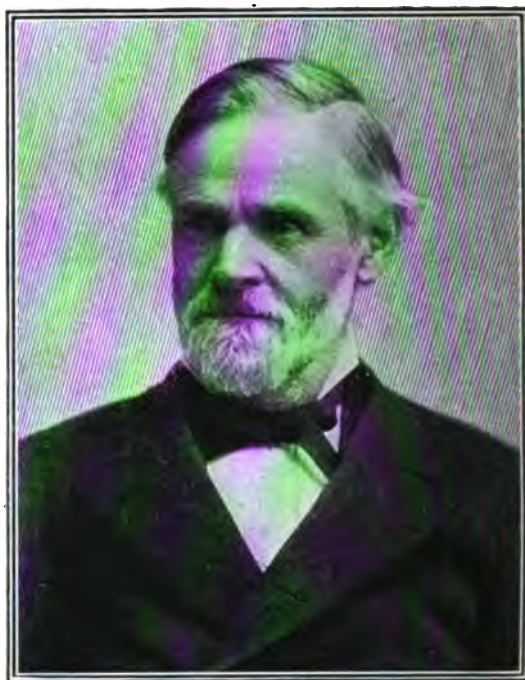
to America, in the scales of destiny, equal to that of Europe.

The Ohio country was a lovely land, given away in vast tracts by the kings of France and England, who took their divine prerogatives seriously. They had a fine way of nodding and signing away empires. In 1749, Christopher Geist, agent of the Ohio Company of Virginia, made a visit to the Twightmees, on the Great Miami, and established a trading agency, the records say one hundred miles from the mouth of the river. This was forty years before Gen. Arthur St. Clair, Governor of the Northwest Territory, arrived in Cincinnati, January, 1790, and organized Hamilton County. George Washington, when the trading station was founded on the Miami, was but seventeen years old. When he was a major on the staff of the



Copyright, 1888, by Sarony.

GEN. WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN.



HON. JOHN SHERMAN.

Governor of Virginia, who concluded to warn the French away from the Allegheny country, the advanced post on the Miami country had been found too far to the front and had been abandoned, and the governor engaged Christopher Geist, an expert in woodcraft, to guide the major, who credited him with a hardy and alert companionship, that helped the future father of his country,

who was seasoned to outdoor exposure as a surveyor in the valley of Virginia, out of imminent deadly perils.

It was on the fourth expedition of Washington to the fork that the French gave up the strife for the Ohio country and floated away down the Ohio, losing forever the line of forts they had wrought and fought to establish, com-



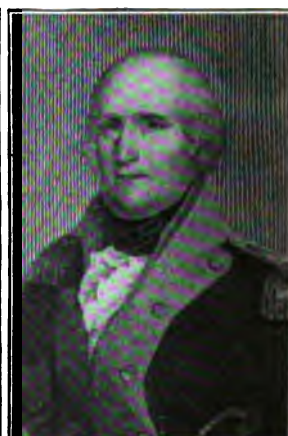
Rev. Manasseh Cutler.



Gen. Rufus Putnam.



Gen. "Mad Anthony" Wayne.



Gen. George Rogers Clark.

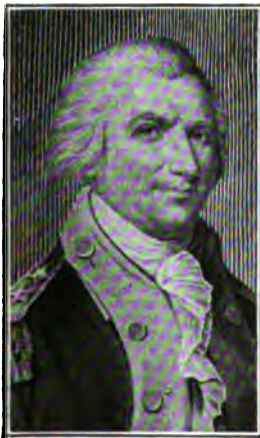
FOUR MEN WHO HELPED TO MAKE POSSIBLE THE PEACEFUL SETTLEMENT OF OHIO AT THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.



GEN. PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

municating by way of Lake Erie and the Ohio, between the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi.

The treaty of 1763 made good the English claim (as against France) to all the territory now included in the State of Ohio, and at the close of the Revolution the title remained in the States of Virginia and Connecticut. South of 41 degrees north latitude, Ohio formed a part of the territory ceded to the general government by Virginia in 1783. Connecticut claimed the territory north of that line by virtue of the



GEN. ARTHUR ST. CLAIR.
(Governor of the Northwest
Territory, 1789-1802.)



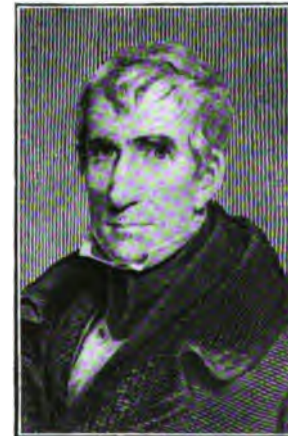
EDWARD TIFFIN.
(Governor of the State of Ohio,
1803-07.)

charter of Charles II., and ceded the jurisdiction over this part to the United States in 1786, retaining, however, the ownership of the lands, which gave rise to the name "Western Reserve." In 1786, the Ohio Company, composed of Massachusetts people, obtained control of 1,500,000 acres through the agency of Manasseh Cutler. In the next year, the federal Congress passed the famous "Ordinance of 1787" for the government of the territory northwest of the river Ohio. This ordinance provided for the erection of not more than five nor less than three States, forbade slavery, and provided for the support of education.

STATEHOOD ESTABLISHED.

The territorial legislature was chosen on September 16, 1799, met on the 24th of that month, organized, and was addressed by Governor St. Clair. Jacob Burnet prepared all the "acts" that became laws. W. H. Harrison, Secretary of the Territory, was elected Delegate to Congress by eleven votes out of twenty-one. April 30, 1802, Congress authorized a convention to form a State constitution. The convention met

at Chillicothe, November 1, and the State constitution was ratified and signed. The most studious and accurate recorder of the early history of Ohio, Mr. Henry Howe, says of this constitution: "It was never referred to the people for their approbation, but became the fundamental law of the State by the act of the convention alone; and by this act Ohio became one of the States of the Federal Union."



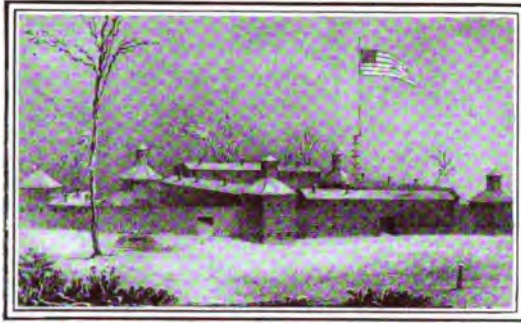
PRESIDENT WILLIAM HENRY
HARRISON.

(Who represented Ohio in the
national House and Senate.)

We quote the enabling act as passed by Congress:

An Act to enable the people of the eastern division of the territory northwest of the river Ohio to form a constitution and State government, and for the admission of such State into the Union on an equal footing with the original States, and for other purposes.

Section 1. Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the inhabitants of the eastern division of the territory northwest of the river Ohio be, and they are hereby, authorized to form for themselves



FORT WASHINGTON.

a constitution and State government and to assume such name as they shall deem proper, and the said State, when formed, shall be admitted into the Union upon the same footing with the original States in all respects whatever.

The journal of the United States House of Representatives contains this entry, November 10, 1802 :

An engrossed bill to enable the people of the eastern division of the territory northwest of the river Ohio to form a constitution and State government, and for the admission of such State into the Union on an equal footing with the original States, and for other purposes, was read the third time, and the blanks therein filled up :

[illegible]

HON. THOMAS EWING.

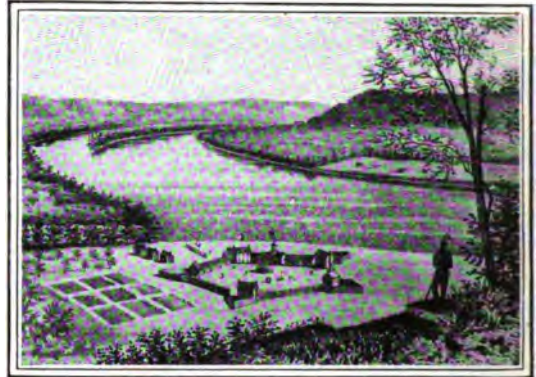
(Senator from Ohio, 1831-37 and 1850-51; Secretary of the Treasury, 1841; first Secretary of the Interior, 1849-50.)



HON. JOSHUA R. GIDDINGS.

(Representative of Ohio in Congress, 1838-59; prominent as an opponent of slavery, acting, usually, with the Whigs.)

We may assume that the history of a century of active service of a State is proof that the State has worn out all informality of admission into the Union. There was an enabling act of Congress for the admission of the State, but Congress took no action confirming such admission. The provision for admission of the new State, however, offered to the people propositions that they should, by their convention, accept that all lands sold by the United States, after



FORT HARMAR, 1788.

June 30, 1802, should be exempt from taxation for five years after sale. The convention accepted the proposition of Congress, with a certain amendment and enlargement, to vest in the State, for the use of schools, section 16 of each township, one-thirty-sixth of the whole, and to give a percentage for making roads,—most just and wise provisions. Congress complied, and the compact was completed satisfactorily.



MOSES CLEVELAND.

(Pioneer of the Western Reserve; founder of the city of Cleveland.)



JOHN CLEVES SYMMES.

(An extensive purchaser of lands on the Ohio and Miami rivers in 1787.)

PUSHING BACK THE ARID LINE.

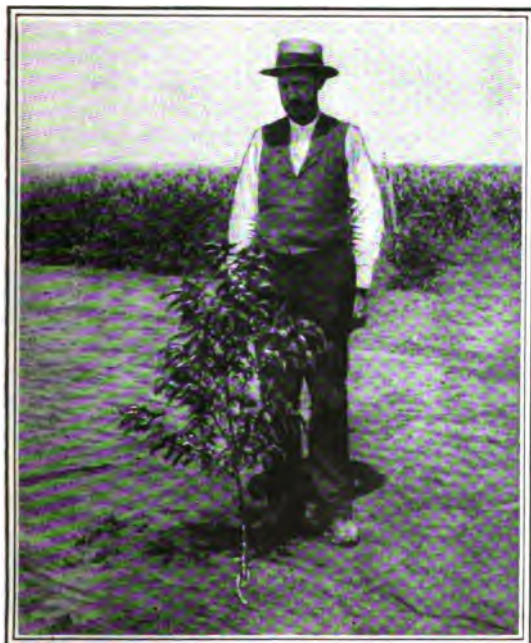
BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER.

THE vast farming area of the West is in two classes: the well-moistened lands near the Missouri River and the high-tipped semi-arid plains of the approach to the Rockies. The dividing line, influenced here and there by local conditions, follows, in a haphazard way, the one hundredth meridian from the high plains of North Dakota to the level reaches of the Texas Panhandle. For a thousand miles it defines the boundary between moisture and aridity. Beyond it, farming without irrigation is a speculation dependent upon a capricious rainfall. To move it westward one mile adds 640,000 acres to the fertile area of the West,—4,000 farms of 160 acres each, capable of supporting a population of 20,000!

The problem before the settlers is not so much how to bring more rain as how to get along with what they have. In two ways is this lesson being mastered,—by raising crops that do not require much rainfall, and by conserving the moisture. The first gave the now familiar fields of alfalfa, sorghum, and Kaffir corn; the second is bringing into prominence a new theory of agriculture.

Western lands reached their lowest value in 1896-97. Since that time they have increased by from 50 to 150 per cent. over the entire middle West region, meaning the States between the Missouri River and the Rockies. A quarter of a million people moved out of this section in the half-decade ending with 1894. Now settlers are pushing back into the semi-arid belt then deserted. They are seeking to conquer the conditions of climate and to adapt to them such methods as shall secure better results than in the earlier attempts. One of the most interesting of these is known as "soil culture."

In 1894, a year of widespread drought, a South Dakota farmer, H. W. Campbell, who had been experimenting in tilling his claim, surprised his neighbors by harvesting a crop of potatoes that averaged one hundred and forty-two bushels an acre on thirty-two acres, while those on adjoining farms were nearly a failure. He gave as his guide in conquering the semi-arid conditions a variation from the usual method of tillage. Ordinarily, the farmer turns over the furrow with the plow and cultivates the top only sufficiently to insure the destruction of the



PEACH TREE ON WESTERN KANSAS FARM IN FIRST YEAR.



SAME TREE UNDER NEW PLAN OF CULTURE ONE YEAR LATER.

weeds. Mr. Campbell's plan was to plow very deep, and by means of specially constructed implements, pack the bottom of the furrow. The top he kept well cultivated, approaching as closely as possible to making fine dust over the entire field. Even when there were no weeds showing, the cultivation was continued, the object being to form a blanket of fine soil above the seed-bed and so retain to the end of the season a greater portion than usual of the rainfall, somewhat limited in that longitude. The theory was simple and the practice easy. It has gained a wide following, and is becoming one of the accepted principles of the farming of the new West. It means, when carried to perfection, that the natural rain waters will be absorbed readily into the ground, that they will be held there by the packing of the bottom of the furrow slice, and that undue evaporation will be prevented by the stratum of dust above.

Over the semi-arid region, where the rainfall is only about twelve inches a year, little or no moisture falls after the middle of June until autumn. Then it is that the corn withers, the wheat shrivels, and the fruit trees lose their strength. But it is noticed that if a quantity of coarse sand be scattered over a bit of soil, no



WHITE ELM TREE, WESTERN KANSAS.
(Growth, from 4 feet to 10 feet in one year.)



CORN WITH SOIL CULTURE AND WITHOUT.

matter how dry the summer, there will always be beneath it moist earth. So it was argued that if the bottom of the plowed surface could be packed to retain the spring rains, and the top of the field could by frequent harrowing be kept in a sandlike state of fineness, the full value of the rainfall might be utilized. The flood of muddy waters that formerly rushed away toward the sea after every rain ceases, for the rains have gone into the ground where they fell. It is a new condition, and one that appeals to the farmer with great force.

In 1895, Mr. Campbell operated under contract with a leading railroad at five points in South Dakota. The next year he managed five farms in North Dakota, and four in western Nebraska, eastern Colorado, and northwest Kansas. The following season he had charge of forty-three farms, on four different railroads, in five States. Too much was done by proxy that year, and the results were less satisfactory than the smaller undertakings. Since then, he has been conducting an experimental farm in northwest Kansas, where some remarkable results have been secured. Another farm in western Nebraska is to be under his charge.

Now for the results. Mr. Campbell says of his success in producing crops by this conservation of the natural rainfall: "On a farm twelve miles east of the Colorado line and eighteen miles south of Nebraska, in western Kansas, in 1896, two hundred young trees were set on a narrow, high divide fully one hundred and seventy-five feet above the Republican Valley, which is near by. All made a fair growth that year, but in 1897 a remarkable advance was noted. One plum tree had nine limbs, the shortest measuring 4 feet 8 inches, the longest 6 feet 1 inch, all entirely of the 1897 growth. In October of the second year, we bored down 16 feet 2 inches with a sampling auger and found moist earth all the way. We could make balls of it by pressing it in the hands. On adjoining fields, this could not be done, dust flying from each augerful. Potatoes were grown in 1899, when no rain fell in western Kansas from October, 1898, to June 17, 1899, that averaged 80 bushels an acre. At Lisbon, N. Dak., the first year's corn was 42 bushels; the second, 82 bushels; the third, 93 bushels."

The work begins with the fall plowing, which is deep, and with a sub-surface packing. Several harrowings are given to improve the seed-bed and make the soil receptive of the rainfall. Harrowing after every rain keeps the dust blanket above the plant until there is too large a growth for the work. Then the cultivator finishes the work. "The work is simple," says Mr. Campbell, "but it must be done thoroughly, at the right time, and in the proper manner. It is not only necessary that the farmer know how, but he must know why; then he will see how unwise he has been."

The objection of the average settlers is that

the time and expense are more than they can afford; that the average farmer cannot follow an experimental farm's methods profitably. It is probable these will attempt only a modified form of the system, but few there be who cannot thus improve their methods with profit.

Ex-Chancellor Snow, of the Kansas State University, one of the West's best authorities, says of the weather in 1902:

It is a fact to be emphasized that the average annual rainfall in eastern Kansas has now passed 36 inches, notwithstanding the great deficiency of 1901. There is no doubt that the rainfall of Kansas is slowly increasing, while the wind-velocity is slowly decreasing,—two points of great importance to the welfare of the State.

This is one of the conditions upon which the semi-arid West bases its hope for the future. The lands are being taken for homesteads at an unprecedented rate and the sod broken. Last year, more claims were entered than in any year in the history of the nation, not excluding the period of the great migration of the early eighties. The people do not go in "prairie schooners," but on the railroads; they are taking with them a fair understanding of conditions that must be encountered.

The semi-arid belt has unquestionably been pushed back many miles by the discovery of crops adapted to a climate that is short on rainfall; if the new system of agriculture proves as practicable as its enthusiastic followers are certain it will, there will be another realm added to the wheat, corn, and fruit growing region of the West. It will admirably supplement the vast irrigation fund that is to be given for the redemption of untitled lands by the provisions of the recently adopted federal legislation.



AN ALFALFA FIELD IN KANSAS.

THE MUNICIPAL SITUATION IN CHICAGO.

BY PROFESSOR HARRY PRATT JUDSON.

(Of the University of Chicago.)

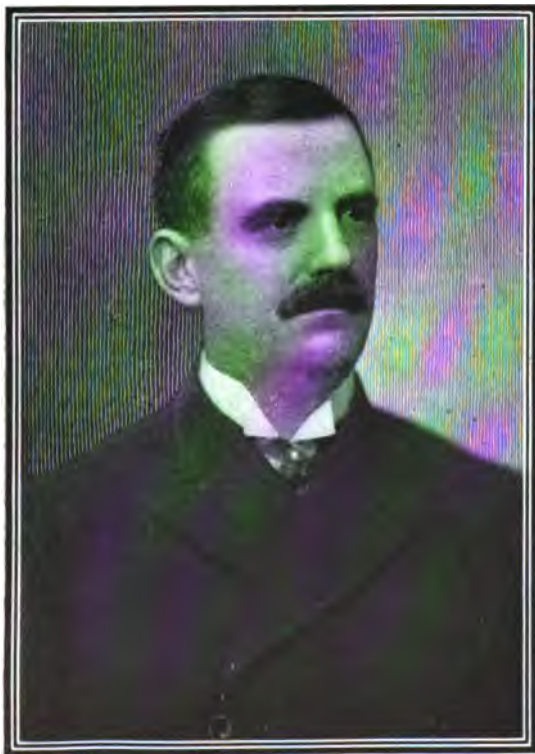
CHICAGO is a progressive and prosperous city. Its population and wealth have increased at a rate that has few parallels. In 1870, the city contained 306,605 inhabitants; in 1880, there were 491,516; in 1890, 1,099,850; in 1900, 1,698,575. Since the panic of 1893, business in all lines has acquired an enormous volume. As a single illustration, it may be noted that the bank clearings for 1896 were \$4,413,054,108.61; for 1902, they were \$8,394,872,351. The city has prided itself on the enterprise and public spirit of its citizens. The Public Library, the Art Institute, the Chicago Orchestra, the University, and the numerous richly endowed charitable and educational institutions, are monuments of the liberality and intelligence of Chicago men and women. The World's Fair of 1893, now only ten years past, is thus far the

greatest and most successful exposition yet undertaken on this side of the Atlantic. The extensive system of parks and parkways, comprising over two thousand acres, bids fair to be in time a great source of beauty and health to the city.

But with all these and many other sources of satisfaction in their city,—a satisfaction which citizens of Chicago are not taxed with hiding under a bushel,—it must be confessed that Chicagoans are not equally content with the situation of their public affairs. Corruption such as has been found in Minneapolis and St. Louis is not charged. But the city is ill paved. The streets are not clean. The soft-coal smoke hangs like a pall overhead, and its grime stains beautiful buildings and dainty garments. The water-supply is abundant, but as it is taken from Lake Michigan, and as a great part of the city is yet drained into that lake, it is not surprising that the drinking water is often unsafe. Above all, the system of local transportation is archaic. Finally, in the way of any comprehensive plan of public improvements stands the fact that the city revenue is inadequate, and the further fact that constitutional restriction prevents incurring greater bonded indebtedness.

TAXATION AND REVENUE.

The revenue of the city is derived from taxes on real and personal property, from licenses, permits, and various miscellaneous sources. As the water-supply belongs to the city, its cost is met by water rents. Taxes are laid, however, by a variety of bodies,—the State, the county, the city, the park boards, the drainage board, and by the towns (which, oddly enough, remain corporate entities although long since absorbed in the city). Altogether, there are eighteen of these taxing authorities within the city limits,—although the seven towns have for two years past levied no taxes, having been enjoined as wasteful and extravagant. Under an act of the Legislature, they will shortly be consolidated, and thus the anomaly will disappear. The law of the State requires property to be assessed for taxation at its full cash value, and provides that the total amount of taxes laid by all the taxing bodies shall not exceed the rate of 5 per cent. on one-fifth of the assessed value; in other words, the maximum tax of all kinds is not to exceed 1 per cent.



HON. GRAEME STEWART.

(Republican candidate for mayor of Chicago.)

of the cash value of the property assessed. This law acts as an automatic shut-off for the tax revenue,—a very desirable arrangement for taxpayers, no doubt, but one calculated to place a very arbitrary limit on budgetary plans.

The annual appropriation ordinance of the Common Council just passed provides an expenditure of \$20,909,815.57 for corporate purposes; \$11,484,321.73 for school purposes, and \$450,000 for the Public Library,—a total of \$32,844,137.30.

It is claimed by critics of the present administration that considerable saving might be effected by eliminating politics and applying strict business methods to all branches of the service. Even if this should prove to be true, however, it is questionable whether the sums above named would be adequate to accomplish all that the city needs in the way of public improvements.

LIMITATION ON MUNICIPAL INDEBTEDNESS.

To borrow money for any large undertaking is impracticable. The constitution of the State forbids a municipal corporation to incur indebtedness in excess of 5 per cent. of the assessed value of property. The last assessed value of property in Chicago, real and personal, is \$381,995,242. Thus, the maximum debt at present possible is \$19,099,762.10. The present corporate debt is already a little over \$15,000,000. Obviously, there is but a slight margin here for increase of indebtedness.

THE TRACTION QUESTION.

Perhaps the most serious problem confronting Chicago at present is the traction question. The great steam railroads do a large suburban business on their lines, and each of the three divisions of the city has one or more elevated lines, on which the cars are operated by electricity. The mass of the local transit, however, is still in the hands of the street railroads, which in great part still retain the antiquated cable systems of the days before electricity was known as a traction power. Most of the various street-railway franchises have been consolidated under two systems, and these franchises are now beginning to expire. They fall in at intervals from 1903 to 1916. Just here the city has a dispute with the traction companies. In 1865, the State Legislature passed over the veto of Governor Oglesby an act extending certain street-railway franchises in Chicago to the term of ninety-nine years. This would give these franchises life until 1954-57. The validity of the act of 1865 is contested, but is strenuously upheld by the companies.

There is a strong sentiment in the city in favor



HON. CARTER HARRISON.

(Present mayor of Chicago and candidate for reelection.)

of the municipal ownership and operation of the street railways. Whatever the merits of such a plan in itself, however, there are at present two insuperable obstacles in the way. The city, under the present laws, has not the power to acquire and operate traction lines,—the city has not the power to borrow the many millions of dollars which such an investment would involve. The first obstacle will doubtless shortly be removed, as an enabling act is now pending in the State Legislature. But the restriction on municipal indebtedness is a constitutional provision.

A statute passed a few years since forbids municipal authorities to grant charters for a longer period than twenty years. The question now pending is as to the terms and conditions on which street-railway franchises shall be renewed under that act. A committee of the Common Council, with Alderman F. I. Bennett as chairman, has been at work for three years making an elaborate study of the question. Last year, that committee employed Mr. Bion J. Arnold as engineer to make a report on the needs and possibilities from the point of view of construction and operation. His report is most elaborate and exhaustive, and is the basis on which the committee is now working. The committee proposes

twenty-year franchises, a surrender of all rights claimed under the ninety-nine-year act, the same date for all franchises, so that all will expire at the same time; a complete reconstruction of all lines with electric service, universal transfers, the most modern equipment in all respects, and a stated compensation to the city. The question of subways for the crowded business districts is also included.



HON. JOHN M. HARLAN.

The representatives of the companies insist upon a full equivalent for the surrender of their ninety-nine-year rights, which they do not admit is offered in the above scheme. A protective association of leading capitalists, of whom Mr. Marshall Field is one, has been formed in the interests of stockholders in the Union Traction properties. No conclusion has yet been reached. It is clear that Chicago imperatively needs a modern traction system. It is equally clear that the city treasury as imperatively needs the annual payments which would come from compensation for franchises. After the pending city election, it seems likely that the negotiations will be renewed and a definite settlement reached.

CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT.

The legal anomalies which hamper the development of the city are such that it is commonly believed that they can be remedied only by constitutional amendment. But this, in Illinois, is a difficult process. The constitution provides that at any session of the Legislature,—sessions are biennial,—amendment may be proposed to but one article of the constitution, and that amendment to the same article may be proposed

but once in four years. Now, the restrictions which Chicago seems to find irksome occur in at least four articles. In the legislative article is a prohibition on special legislation for cities. This, no doubt, seemed salutary in 1869. But to-day, Chicago has nearly, if not quite, two million people, while the second city in the State, Peoria, in 1900 had only fifty-six thousand one hundred. It is plain that there must be legislation for the large city which the small city does not need. Special legislation for Chicago should be permitted. Many also desire to separate Chicago from Cook County, so as to avoid the dual government of county and city. This cannot be done under the restriction of the article on counties. Then it is the article on revenue which fixes the debt limit, so that even if two-thirds of the people of Chicago should desire a bond issue for a great public improvement, it would be impossible to secure it. Finally, the article on the judiciary seems to fasten on the city the rural system of justice courts, which causes great inconvenience and needlessly increases petty litigation, as both justices and constables are paid only by fees.

A conference of gentlemen representing different interests in the city took these matters under advisement last autumn and hit on a scheme which they thought would secure all the changes needed by amending a single article of the constitution. The amendment submitted by this conference, the so-called "multiple" amendment, now pending in the Legislature, adds to the legislative powers that of passing any act, general or special, with reference to Chicago, and especially any act which will remedy the defects above noted. This is claimed to be an amendment to but one article, although incidentally it affects several others.

This is an ingenious scheme, but it must be admitted that its constitutional validity is at least open to question. Further, it is believed by some that even under the present constitution, acts may be passed which will secure the greater part of the objects sought by the multiple amendment,—consolidation to a great extent of the many governing authorities, even those of county and city, and the abolition of the justice courts and the substitution for them of city district courts, for instance. A single amendment permitting a city to increase its indebtedness on vote of a fixed proportion of the electorate,—three-fifths, perhaps,—would secure all imperative relief.

The separation of city and county is a favorite scheme of municipal reformers. Whether it is always, of necessity, desirable is not so clear. Cook County, for instance, is closely bound up

with the interests of Chicago. Its rural population is to a large extent merely suburban city population, or dependent upon supplying the wants of such suburban population, which comes to about the same thing. In fact, the rural parts of the county are little more than the door-yard of the city,—the natural area of city overflow,—the site of future city growth. Of the present population of Cook County, 92.4 per cent. are resident in Chicago, and of the remaining 7.6 per cent., a considerable number do business in Chicago. Of the taxable property of Cook County, 93.8 per cent. is in the city, and of the remaining 6.2 per cent., a considerable part is owned by Chicago people. A consolidation in large part of the two governments would seem to be a more desirable solution than separation of areas. The county budget is only a little over five million dollars, of which, as has been seen, fully four million six hundred and ninety thousand dollars is paid by the city. This, too, is mostly for objects which the city would have to maintain in any case,—courts, hospitals, and the like. At present, there are no city courts, and practically no city hospitals.

MUNICIPAL POLITICS.

The municipal elections of Illinois are held in the spring, the date this year falling on April 7.



MR. MARSHALL FIELD.

For the last three biennial terms, Carter H. Harrison, the Democratic candidate, has been elected by considerable pluralities, his success being due, in large part, to dissensions in the Republican party. Mr. Harrison is the son of Carter Harrison, who for many years was a picturesque figure in Chicago politics, who also was three times elected mayor of the city, and whose tragical death, ten years ago, at the time of the World's Fair, while he was holding the office of mayor, will be widely remembered.

During the past winter, there has been an active canvass for the respective party nominations, which has kept the public interest on the alert.

On the Republican side, the two candidates were John M. Harlan and Graeme Stewart. Mr. Harlan, a son of Justice Harlan, of the United States Supreme Court, is a young attorney who since 1896 has been prominently concerned in Chicago public affairs. As a member of the Common Council for two years, he was fearless and outspoken in his opposition to measures and methods which at that time characterized that body. He has been conspicuous in antagonism to the Republican organization of Chicago, and in the spring of 1897 was an independent candidate for mayor. Although he was not elected, still he polled more votes than the regular Republican candidate, who, by the way, was an entirely reputable gentleman. Last autumn, however, Mr. Harlan took the stump for the Republican county ticket, advocating it on the simple ground of the superior merit of the candidates. It may be added that at that time, with a single exception, all the Republican county candidates were elected.

Mr. Stewart is a prominent business man, a lifelong resident of Chicago, who was for six years a member and for one year president of the Board of Education. He is now member for Illinois of the Republican National Committee.

Mr. Harlan made an active speaking campaign throughout nearly the entire winter, while Mr. Stewart devoted his time mainly to organization, appearing on the stump only during the last fortnight of the campaign. At the primary election, on March 6, the vote was very large, the total being 73,079, as against only 49,632 in 1901. This fact was due, in part, to the widespread interest in the contest between the two candidates, and in part also to the change in the Republican organization, within the last year, by which the doors are thrown open to all Republicans. The Illinois primary-election law is very fair, and is enforced by a board of election commissioners in whom general confidence is felt.

Mr. Stewart received 39,574 votes at the primary, and Mr. Harlan 33,526. In the convention thus elected, which met the following day, March 7, 598 delegates voted for Stewart, and 342 for Harlan. Mr. Harlan then appeared on the platform and in a graceful speech pledged his vote and support to his successful opponent.

The contest thus ending in Republican unity was by no means a clear-cut issue as between the old organization and anti-organization factions of the party. While it is true that powerful organization influences favored Mr. Stewart, it is also true that a good part of Mr. Harlan's support came from regular organization workers, and that vigorous independent Republicans were found on the Stewart side. Mr. Stewart is a man of high character, and is pledged to a business administration of the city—a pledge for which his well-known integrity is a full guaranty.

The principles adopted by the convention criticize the present mayor mainly on the ground that he has been repeatedly elected on the pledge to settle the traction question and has in fact failed to reach any settlement. The traction policy advocated is that of the Common Council above discussed, and runs as follows:

REPUBLICAN TRACTION PROGRAMME OUTLINED.

The promise of two years ago will be repeated by the Democratic party in this campaign. Can the people of Chicago longer doubt that the settlement of the franchise question is conditioned absolutely upon the return of the Republican party to power in this city? That party proposes the following terms of a settlement of this question:

There shall be an immediate settlement of the traction question on the lines laid down in the report of the Committee on Local Transportation of the City Council of the City of Chicago, to the end that the best street-car service attainable shall at once be secured for the people of the city of Chicago.

Enabling legislation should be passed at once by the General Assembly which will give to the city of Chicago the power and authority to own and operate street railways and other public utilities.

The question of municipal ownership or operation of street railways shall upon petition be submitted to the people before adoption.

No renewal of the expiring franchises shall be made unless the claimants under the so-called ninety-nine-year act shall specifically waive any and all alleged rights thereunder.

No grant shall be for more than twenty years, and the city shall reserve the right to take over such lines at such times as may be fixed in the ordinance prior to the expiration of the period of the grant, upon paying equitable compensation therefor.

One city, one fare, whether the streets are occupied by one or more companies.

In any ordinance that may be granted, the city shall retain such control and supervision of the service as shall assure the best service for the entire period of the grant.

The compensation to be exacted by the city shall be based upon the gross receipts, and shall be either in cash, in lower fares, or in such other form as shall be found best for the interests of the whole people of Chicago.

On the Democratic side, the nomination of Mr. Harrison was practically unopposed. He has many opponents in his own party, but they made practically no fight at the primaries, which were held on March 14, and the convention, on March 16, nominated Mr. Harrison unanimously.

The Democratic platform defends Mayor Harrison's administration, and takes much the same ground on the traction question as that of the Republicans. Both parties insist on legislation empowering the city to own and operate street railways. This power is essential for the city to have in dealing with the traction companies, although under present financial conditions there is little immediate likelihood of actual municipalization of the railways. The Democratic resolutions also approve public ownership of gas, electric light, telephone, and other public utilities, the initiative and referendum on important municipal questions, the consolidation of the taxing bodies, extension of the debt limit, home rule for Chicago, and "the largest measure of personal liberty for all citizens which may be compatible with peace and order."

There was a movement, which for a time threatened to become formidable, looking to the nomination of Mr. Clarence S. Darrow for the mayoralty on a Union Labor ticket. Mr. Darrow has won wide popularity among labor organizations by his course as counsel for the coal miners before the arbitration commission, and the success of labor candidates in San Francisco and elsewhere stirred up considerable interest in Chicago labor circles. Had Mr. Darrow consented to be a candidate, it was commonly believed that at least Mr. Harrison's defeat would have been assured, and many are convinced, even, that the Labor candidate would have had a chance of election. However, Mr. Darrow finally decided not to allow his name to be used, and the Union Labor ticket now does not seem likely to cut much figure in the contest.

Mr. Harrison depends for his success on the regularity of his nomination as the Democratic candidate, on his appeal to those who favor the initiative and referendum in municipal legislation, on considerable Republican support, which he has hitherto always received, owing to dissatisfaction in that party; on the favor of the classes who may fear that a Republican administration will enforce laws too strictly, and on what he claims is an honorable record as mayor.

Mr. Stewart's friends believe that there is

strong probability of success, owing to wide dissatisfaction with Mr. Harrison's administration, especially arising from what they claim to be his policy of delay with regard to the traction question; owing, also, to large Democratic defection, to Republican unity for Mr. Stewart's candidacy, to the general support which he is given by business men of both parties, and to the belief that he means exactly what he says in pledging himself to a strictly business administration of city affairs.

THE COMMON COUNCIL.

The election for members of the Common Council, one-half of whom are chosen each spring, does not at the present time arouse so much attention in the city as has been the case in some previous years. The Chicago Common Council, which is a unicameral body consisting of two members from each of the thirty-five wards, contains a decisive majority of public-spirited and honorable men. The organized war which for some years past has been waged on the "Gray Wolves,"—the local name for political corruptionists,—has succeeded in converting a decided majority of those beasts of prey in the Council into an impotent minority. A majority of the members of the Council,—aldermen, they are called individually,—are Republicans, but the body is organized on non-political lines, and undoubtedly has the confidence of the city. In this respect, Chicago surely has reason for encouragement. The election in April is not likely to impair the character of the municipal legislature, and may at some points even strengthen it. It is the high estimation in which as a whole the Common Council is held which gives especial weight in the public mind to the investigation and report of the Council Committee on Local Transportation. It is believed that any conclusion which they may reach will be intelligent, honest, and for the best interests of the city. The Republican platform explicitly sustains this committee, and proposes to carry out its programme.

THE MUNICIPAL VOTERS' LEAGUE.

An interesting factor in Chicago municipal politics, for the past seven years, has been the Municipal Voters' League. This organization was the outcome of a conference including some two hundred representative citizens held in the early winter of 1896. A committee of one hundred was appointed by this conference, with the notion that a municipal party might be organized. That plan was not thought practicable; and after appointing an executive committee of nine members, with power to act, under the

name of the Municipal Voters' League, the Committee of One Hundred adjourned *sine die*. The league, therefore, consists of this committee of nine, a self-perpetuating body, sustained by the voluntary contributions of citizens, and devoted to the one purpose of securing the election of honest and capable men to the Common Council. A permanent office force is employed, and thorough investigation is made as to the record and character of every nominee for the Council. The results of these investigations are published, with recommendations for or against the respective candidates. The league brings pressure to bear, in the first place, to prevent the nomination of objectionable candidates, and then exerts its influence to defeat such candidates at the polls. There is widespread confidence in the disinterestedness and capacity of the league, evidenced both by generous financial support and by the large number of votes influenced by its recommendations. In 1896, it was believed that about a dozen of the sixty-eight members of the Council were honest. That number has steadily increased, until now an overwhelming majority are upright and public-spirited men, and a "boodle" ordinance has no chance.

The league is absolutely non-partisan, advocating or denouncing candidates without regard to national party lines. The same policy has of recent years been adopted by the Council, that body effecting its organization on non-partisan lines and being careful to put the lingering remnant of the old "gray wolf" pack where they can do no harm.

It should be added that the success of the league has been brought about, not by the usual reform hysteria, but rather by the use of very practical politics.

THE OUTLOOK.

Chicago needs legislation which will unbind its hands and enable the city to undertake the progressive public improvements so much needed to make its corporate action worthy of the enterprise and intelligence of its citizens. There should be unity of purpose, also, in the different branches of the city government, so that all may work together for the common good. In other words, the great need is not, as in so many cities, the destruction of existing vicious public agencies, but concert of action in great constructive civic policies. Out of the present political turmoil, there seems good reason to hope that there will emerge a new and vigorous public life for the city, a public life which will mean, not a Greater Chicago, but a cleaner, a healthier, a more beautiful, a more comfortable, and therefore a still more prosperous, Chicago.



A TRACKLESS TROLLEY CAR EQUIPPED FOR SNOW, ON A SUBURBAN LINE IN DRESDEN, GERMANY.

SLEIGHING ON A TRACKLESS TROLLEY ROAD IN GERMANY.

IN the equipment of an electric street railway, the cost of the rails is a considerable item. For some time, in European mechanical circles, it has been thought possible to cheapen the equipment of this kind of railway by the omission of tracks, and thus to bring electric-railway service within the means of small cities and rural communities with young and growing industries. As a matter of fact, trackless trolley roads with overhead wires have in more than one instance been put in operation abroad.

Our illustration shows a road in the suburbs of Dresden, Germany, operating according to the system of Karl Stoll, from Dresden Arsenal through Schankhubel and Klotzsche to Königs-wald. As a particular point about this trolley car may be mentioned the fact that it is fitted out with three axles, by means of which the weight is so distributed as to diminish the amount of pressure on each axle. The electric current is conducted to the propelling motor from a small battery carriage running on two overhead wires and

steadied by an underhanging weight. The motor car is connected with this battery by a pliable cable, made as long as possible, in order that the car may freely turn aside, or get ahead of other vehicles which it may overtake. When two motor cars meet from opposite directions, it is easy for them to turn out and pass each other, as the cable cords connected with the battery overhead can be detached from the cars and exchanged by the motormen, and the cars then proceed on their way.

An interesting thing about this motor carriage is its manifold applicability. The omnibus shown in the picture can easily be taken off and replaced by a business van or a landau. In winter, the wheels on the propelling axles are fitted with ice tires, and the large hind wheels are removed and replaced by sled runners. The widespread view that railless trolley roads cannot be operated in winter is thus manifestly refuted. We are indebted to the *Illustrirte Zeitung* for our information about this experiment.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS IN RUSSIA.

BY N. I. STONE.

NEVER was the political situation in Russia so serious as it is to-day. For the first time in the history of the constitutional struggle in that country, the government is facing the combination of many divergent elements that were once thought to be incapable of an organized political resistance. The latest manifesto of the Czar, promising religious toleration and partial relief for the agricultural population, is but a culmination of last year's struggle with the Liberal opposition. Student disturbances have been known in Russia for the last four decades; occasional peasant riots have been breaking out for more than half a century, and have been suppressed by the military with the greatest ease; petitions asking for representative government have been presented by the nobility time and again without causing serious embarrassment to the Russian autocracy; finally, even the revolutionary movement, though it once frightened the government into the thought of yielding, when it had reached its climax in the assassination of Alexander II., was crushed with comparative ease, owing to its lack of support among the politically indifferent masses.

To-day, all this has been changed. The student disturbances, the peasant revolts, the peaceful but none the less effective opposition of the nobility, exercised through its representative provincial assemblies, or *zemstvos*, and, finally, the labor troubles, which have swelled the revolutionary forces to tens of thousands where they have counted hundreds before,—all these have lost the character of mere sporadic outbreaks. They have come to be permanent features in the political aspect of the empire of the autocratic Czar, and they seem all to have blended into a common opposition movement which threatens to sweep before it the last bulwarks of despotism in Russia.

Nor can it be said that the present plight of the government is due to lack of energy or skill in suppressing revolutionary or reform movements. On the contrary, never have the streets of the Russian cities, and even villages, resounded with so much martial music of troops sent against the "inner enemy" as during the last few years; never have so many provinces and cities of Russia been put under martial law, and at no time has the bureaucracy of Russia been led by a more able, resolute, experienced, and

astute politician than the present minister of the interior.

M. VON PLEHWE, MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR.

It is an open secret that Vyacheslav Konstantinovich von Plehwe is the man behind the throne, completely dominating the young Emperor. An incident may be related here to illustrate this point. At the recent maneuvers at Kursk, in southern Russia, the Czar addressed the respective representatives of the nobility and of the peasants in a short speech intended to placate the former and warn the latter against further attempts at uprisings like the one in the provinces of Poltava and Kharkov that had just been quelled with much bloodshed. After delivering the first sentence, the Czar faltered, and turning red, stopped in helpless confusion. M. von Plehwe immediately approached him, and whispering something in his ear, stepped aside to hear his pupil deliver the rest of the studied speech before his audience.

That the new minister of the interior should have risen to his present high post from the position of chief of the corps of gendarmes is no less characteristic of the qualities the Russian Government appreciates most in its statesmen than it is of M. von Plehwe himself. Born in 1845, of German descent, like a great many of the high Russian officials, he was left an orphan at an early age and was taken into the house of a Polish nobleman, who reared him as his own son, giving him a first-class education. His first act of gratitude, before he had completed his course of studies, was to betray his benefactor to the Russian authorities by volunteering the information that the former sympathized with the Polish insurrectionists. This landed the man who had been to him a second father on the gallows, but gave an excellent start to the public career of the young graduate of the Moscow University. Immediately upon his graduation, in 1867, M. von Plehwe entered government service under the ministry of justice, serving in various capacities as prosecuting attorney, principally against political offenders. In 1881, he was appointed chief of the department of state police, which is devoted exclusively to watching political offenses, and in 1884 was made associate minister of the interior. Since then, he has taken part in every measure of importance that has been directed

against the few liberties still enjoyed by the privileged classes in Russia as a heritage from the reign of Alexander II. In 1900, he became secretary of state for Finland, in which capacity he had the opportunity of dealing the last crushing blows to the independence and liberties of what remained the only comparatively free people under the Russian scepter.

M. von Plehwe is admitted on all sides to be a man of great personal power, keen in judgment of men, extremely clever in handling them, and quick and energetic in action. His advent to power as minister of the interior is no mere incident in the fleeting changes at the Russian court. He is a firm believer in the bureaucratic *régime*, opposed to any concessions of a liberal form of government. In that respect, he is quite unlike M. de Witte, the present minister of finance, who held the upper hand in the councils of government while the ministry of the interior was presided over by the less aggressive Sipyagin.

FINANCE MINISTER M. DE WITTE AND HIS AGRICULTURAL COMMISSION.

M. de Witte, by his career and associations, reminds one more of a politician of a free country than of an official of a bureaucratic government. Having made his reputation as a successful manager of one the largest private railway lines in Russia, he assumed at once a conspicuous place in government service in the ministry of means of communication, from which he was soon called to take hold of Russia's impaired finances. As a man of the people, with a Western education and an experience gained in practical life and not within the dead walls of a bureaucratic office, he is more familiar with the actual needs of the country, and more inclined to a policy of opportunism, ready to yield to Liberal demands as soon as he is satisfied that such a policy would be the better part of wisdom. It was that attitude of mind that led M. de Witte, just a year ago, to try to appease public clamor by the creation of a special commission of inquiry into the causes of agricultural distress in Russia.

In 1891, a failure of crops in Russia brought on a famine in twenty-two of the most important provinces. No less than six hundred and fifty thousand human beings perished from hunger and disease. The peasants, moreover, are estimated to have lost about 28 per cent. of their working cattle and 43 per cent. of the smaller domestic animals. The loss to the peasant household, already reduced to a helpless state of poverty by the crushing weight of taxation, was such that even in the two or three succeeding years of

good crops, the peasant could not restore his impaired resources, and each new failure of crops has found him a more helpless prey to the ravages of famine.

With the terrible famines recurring year after year, and laying waste ever larger areas of the country; with the public treasury not only suffering increasing deficits owing to the inability of the peasants to pay their taxes, but directly depleted by the advances appropriated for the support of the destitute millions; and, last but not least, with the growing difficulty of raising new loans, the man who has controlled Russia's financial fortunes for the last decade thought that he would achieve at one stroke two great ends,—get some expert advice from the men who are most familiar with the true economic condition of the country, and gain popularity among the educated classes. The local committees which were created in every province and in every county to assist the special commission appointed by the Czar, at the instance of M. de Witte, were, therefore, allowed great latitude of discussion and encouraged to express openly their views upon the situation.

But no sooner had the committees been organized than they showed a complete lack of appreciation of the favor of the government and proceeded to take advantage of the first opportunity they got to voice openly their grievances, by subjecting the political and financial policies of the government to severest criticism, and demanding, some in loud, others in cautious, but all in no uncertain, terms the granting of constitutional government to the people. Before the movement had taken on definite shape, however, Sipyagin met death at the hands of Balmashev, a young student and member of the newly resurrected terrorist party.

M. VON PLEHWE'S INTERVENTION.

Von Plehwe, who succeeded Sipyagin, recognized at once that the creation and continued existence of what virtually became so many little parliaments, scattered throughout the length and breadth of European Russia, was an extremely dangerous experiment for an autocratic government to indulge in. At the same time, he saw his first opportunity of wresting the powers of government from his rival. Accordingly, he made his influence felt at once. In spite of the solemn assurances of the finance minister that the committees could go on safely with the frank discussion of the needs of the country, von Plehwe began to exercise strong pressure, through the governors of the provinces, to stifle the voice of Liberal opposition. Met with resistance, he determined to handle the

situation with a stern hand. Prominent members of the nobility have been publicly censured in the name of the Czar, others have been deprived of their offices and exiled, or thrown into prison, and, finally, the entire enterprise of the finance minister has been discredited in the eyes of the Czar and made meaningless in those of the people. M. de Witte has not dared to stand up for the immunity of the members of the committees of which he had been made president by the Czar, and has been forced to content himself with a subordinate rôle.

THE ZEMSTVOS, OR REPRESENTATIVE BODIES.

Not so with the members of the representative bodies and the people generally. The prominent leaders who have been deprived of their offices by the arbitrary acts of the new minister of the interior have met with ovations from their townspeople, who have banqueted and honored them, as a protest against the arbitrary action of the government. The representatives of the zemstvos from the greater part of Russia had met before that in secret national convention to consider their political grievances. And whatever may be the immediate outcome of the work of the special commission, a movement has been set on foot among the members of the zemstvos for a determined constitutional struggle between the local representative assemblies and the central government.

NEW REVOLUTIONARY ELEMENTS.

The industrial strides the country has made in the last two decades have created new forces which the government is unable to overcome with its old-time methods of repression. Twenty years ago, the industries of Russia were in their infancy. To-day, its wage-working classes count more than ten million people, of whom fully one-half are employed in manufactures and other non-agricultural industries. The revolutionary forces have found in the propertyless, poorly paid mass of people an excellent field for their propaganda, and an ally which by sheer force of its numbers makes the problem of controlling them an extremely difficult one for the government. It is impossible to throw into prison tens of thousands of striking or parading workmen. Cossack whips, and even cold steel, while quelling street riots, do not prove effective means to a permanent solution. On the contrary, the more severe the measures taken, the greater becomes the resistance on the part of the people, and the more pronounced the confusion of the government. This is best illustrated by its struggle with the students and the organized workmen.

STUDENT DISTURBANCES.

Without going into a discussion of the cause of the student disturbances, suffice it to say that they have been primarily due to purely academic grievances. In 1899, the government, frenzied by the frequent labor and student demonstrations in the streets of St. Petersburg and of other large cities, decided to go to the extreme of severity, in the hope of crushing once for all the spirit of rebellion among the students. The unusual step was then taken of condemning the students to disciplinary military service. The net results of that step were: dissatisfaction among army officers, who considered condemnation of would-be criminals to military service a reflection upon their own profession; a lively propaganda of revolutionary ideas among the soldiers by the students put in their midst; and, finally, the assassination of M. Bogolepov, the minister of public instruction, who sanctioned this hazardous experiment. It was, by the way, the first act of terrorism which opened the new era of political assassination since that of Alexander II. The government hastily retraced its steps, only to encounter a more fierce opposition among the students in 1901-02. Again force was resorted to. Student demonstrations were dispersed by galloping troops of Cossacks, who maimed and killed, riding roughshod over the assembled multitudes. Hundreds of students were disciplined by expulsion from the universities, imprisonment, and banishment to Siberia. But this course failed to have the desired effect. The indignation of the people, who met the students with ovations throughout their journey to Siberia, was so great as to cause the government to return the students to liberty, and even to readmit them to the universities almost before they had time to settle in their places of exile.

INDUSTRIAL OUTBREAKS.

Even greater failure has marked the government's attempt to suppress the labor movement. Within the last five or six years, labor troubles, combined with strikes, political demonstrations, and revolutionary outbreaks, have reached proportions amazing, not only to the government, but to the revolutionists themselves. In the last strike at Rostov-on-the-Don, which took place in the government railway shops last November, as many as thirty thousand people assembled at open-air meetings addressed by revolutionary leaders, shouting "Down with autocracy!" and cheering for liberty, in the presence of armed gendarmes, and of the military and civil authorities of the city, who did not dare to arrest the leaders or disperse the meetings for over a week,

until sufficient reinforcements arrived from other provinces. And yet nearly every sanguinary encounter with striking thousands of workmen has been followed by concessions, such as a shorter work-day, compulsory sanitary improvements in factories and workshops, etc., which were promulgated with such haste as to call forth caustic comment on the part of the workmen, as well as indignation at the crude paternalistic interference in their business on the part of their employers.

WEAKENING OF RUSSIAN ABSOLUTISM.

The manifesto of the Czar, which came, the other day, as a surprise to the outside world, is but another concession to the Liberal opposition foreshadowed in the Czar's speech at Kursk last November. It is the first practical concession made by M. von Plehwe to the Liberals, whom he recently assured of his willingness to make substantial concessions, provided they would agree to keep out their main demand for a constitutional change. The effect of this vacillating policy is, however, the very opposite of what the government would have it be. The people for whom they are intended are no more placated by the

concessions than they are frightened by the persecutions. On the contrary, they see in both proof of confusion and fright in government circles. The demand for representative government grows ever louder, as it is held to be the only guarantee against the arbitrary power of irresponsible ministers, who are the virtual rulers of the country.

Matters have reached a stage where no amount of government repression can put a stop to the new movement for constitutional government. The country has outgrown the archaic forms of government which it had inherited from the time of the Tartar invasion, centuries ago. Whether political freedom will come peacefully as a wise and timely concession from the government, insuring thereby its own existence, or as the result of a bloody revolution of which we have had a foretaste in the late peasant uprisings, and which may sweep the reigning dynasty from its throne, will depend largely on the policy of the government in the next few years. In either event, the days of absolutism in Russia are numbered, and constitutional government is admitted to be imminent even by such men as von Plehwe and de Witte.

A NEW RÉGIME FOR AMERICAN OPERA.

BY LAWRENCE REAMER.

THE retirement of Maurice Grau from the direction of the Metropolitan Opera House has put another in control of the greatest operatic machinery in the world. Heinrich Conried, who has been for nearly a quarter of a century a manager, is next year to become an impresario. His experienced control of the drama is to be transferred to music, and he begins his new work on the throne of the man who had really been for years the king of opera. Some European theaters have longer seasons than the Metropolitan Opera House. They have state recognition, and their performances are much more frequent. But none of them is such a vast artistic enterprise. Only the aristocracy of the operatic world is brought to New York. The singers must first prove themselves the greatest in their field. The weekly income, as well as the expenses of the theater, are reckoned in tens of thousands. Some Continental opera houses in which hundreds express the magnitude of the business would prosper for a week on the receipts of one performance at the Metropolitan. Few operas are sung, and great singers were never

developed through the encouraging influences of the establishment. But the best works in the operatic repertoire of Germany, France, and Italy are performed here in the language of the operas better than they are given in any of the countries that created them, and by singers gathered with an extravagance that would nowhere else be possible. So Mr. Conried is beginning his career as an operatic manager in the most conspicuous institution of its kind in the world.

The forces on the stage include more than three hundred persons. There is an orchestra of seventy players, as many singers in the chorus, a ballet of forty, scene-painters, stage hands, electricians, and seamstresses. Then there are the principal artists, and the singers of the smaller rôles. On the other side of the curtain there is the public, which annually pays approximately one million dollars to hear the operas. This public is so certain of what it is to receive that it always pays out one-third of this sum in advance. For four years, the annual subscription has amounted to about three hundred thousand

dollars, and this money is in bank four months before the performances.

Mr. Conried finds all this machinery working smoothly. Public support is assured. Opera is as well settled an institution in New York as it is in Paris or Berlin, where the governments protect it. Popular singers in popular operas is a policy that means certain prosperity. This was Mr. Grau's formula, and it was the secret of his achievement. Other managers discovered composers or developed singers. Mr. Grau showed that opera could be put on the solid financial basis of any other enterprise. Singers received their salaries, and stockholders their dividends. Only a half-century ago, managers conducted the affairs of Covent Garden from the Fleet prison, and prima donnas in our own time at the Academy of Music refused to put on their satin slippers until their fees were forthcoming. Now, all is managed in a business-like way. The new stock company formed to support the new manager in his control of the opera house is composed in the main of millionaires. So the business phases of Mr. Conried's task are more than ever certain. Mr. Grau's scheme was to engage the best singers known. Some of them pleased Americans, and some did not. Usually,



Photo by Pacht Bros.

MR. HEINRICH CONRIED.

(The new manager of the Metropolitan Opera House.)



Photo by Aime Dupont.

MR. MAURICE GRAU.

(Who has retired from the management of the Metropolitan Opera House.)

the celebrities liked abroad became popular here and have returned year after year. Mr. Grau had only to decide which of this group of stars he would annually select. He knew that it was necessary not to let the public see them too frequently. They must not become too familiar. There is one difficulty with this method,—there is no generation of singers in sight to supplant the stars of the present day. There are no tenors and no sopranos to take the places of the great ones now before the public. It has been difficult for Mr. Grau to find competent artists for the less important positions. His summers have been spent hearing singers most of whom would not satisfy American audiences. The search for a competent Wagnerian tenor has kept him for a month or two of every year in Germany. One night to Cologne to hear a *Tristan* so far below New York standards that he was not to be thought of; the next night to Dresden or Hamburg, where there was an equally unsatisfactory *Siegfried*. In the end, there came the engagement of a tenor who would be only moderately acceptable. The famous stars he could always engage. But the generation from which future stars are to come is not promising.

Mr. Conried, luckily, finds it possible to continue for several years in the old way. There are great singers enough to carry him through until the interest of audiences can be turned from the interpreters of works to the operas themselves. In general scheme, his first seasons will probably differ little from the last few years. There will always be one point of difference. Mr. Grau hired a stage manager. He was rather indifferent to the effect of this functionary, and considered him rather unimportant. But he engaged the best stage manager he could find, without much confidence in its being particularly worth while. With the same idea, he engaged the most competent electrician he knew of. Mr. Conried, on the other hand, is master of every detail of the stage technique. He keenly appreciates the value of every artistic effect in color, light, and pose. The spectacular features at the Metropolitan will be emphasized. Operatic stage management differs, of course, from the same preparation in the theater. Prima donnas and great tenors will not be told what they should or should not do. But in the grouping of the masses, in the effects of illumination, and in the details of stage management, Mr. Conried's influence at the Metropolitan Opera House will undoubtedly be felt from the first performance.

His real task will come with the necessity of interesting his public in the work rather than in the stars that perform it. In the end, Mr. Conried must say to the audiences at the Metropolitan: "I am not offering you Jean de Reszke as *Lohengrin* or Mme. Sembrich as *Rosina*. I invite you to hear Wagner's '*Lohengrin*,' completely presented in every detail, and Rossini's comic opera, perfect in every particular." There is room for greater beauty of spectacle and vast improvement in the chorus work in the operas. The scenery and the general equipment of the stage have always been inefficient. All this will be changed under Mr. Conried.

The wealthy stockholders in the Conried Metropolitan Opera Company are with him in



Photo by Rockwood.

THE METROPOLITAN OPERA HOUSE, BROADWAY AND THIRTY-NINTH STREET.
NEW YORK.

his determination to give greater attention to the artistic side of the enterprise.

The new manager of the greatest opera house in the world has always accomplished much with little. The Irving Place Theater, which he has directed for ten years, is not a flourishing institution. But its performances have attracted attention quite out of proportion to the importance of a downtown playhouse presenting dramas in a foreign tongue. The high artistic purpose of the manager, his accomplishments with limited facilities, and his struggles to have his theater educational and representative made him the most conspicuous of New York theatrical managers. From that night in 1872 when he spoke the prologue at the opening of the Residenz Theatre in Vienna and began his theatrical career, he has advanced steadily. He acted successfully in Leipsic and Bremen; he had the management of the Stadt Theatre in Bremen, where he had his only operatic experience, and in 1877 he came to the United States as stage director of the Germania Theatre. Since that time, he has brought to New York all the most noted German actors. He has obtained consistently artistic results with material means that would have discouraged most experienced and ambitious managers.

HOPE FOR THE IRISH FARMER: A TALK WITH THE HON. HORACE PLUNKETT.

[COPY.]

DUBLIN, January 20, 1903.

To the Editor of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS :

DEAR MR. EDITOR: I did not know that our fellow-guest at the Judge's whom I saw taking notes was a stenographer whom you had asked to take down the conversation, which you, for some reason, thought was going to be interesting. However, the transcript you sent me accurately records most of what was said, and if you are satisfied that it would interest your readers, you can let it go in.

I suggest that the names of those of my victims who managed to get in a word edgewise when the Judge incautiously invited me to trot out my pet hobby be withheld. I see no one got a chance but the Judge himself, the Corporation Lawyer, the Senator, the Professor of Political Economy, and my old friend the Ranchman, whom I last saw on the beef round-up in the Big Horn Basin in '84. The rest, I hope, enjoyed their cigars and forgave me for the sin of cruelty to dumb animals, for which I now hope you will be forgiven by your multitudinous readers.

Yours sincerely,

HORACE PLUNKETT.

THE TRANSCRIPT OF THE CONVERSATION.

JUDGE: Gentlemen, Mr. Plunkett, as you know, has come over here to talk about Ireland——

MR. PLUNKETT: Pardon me, Judge, in order not to talk about Ireland, but for a rest and to attend to some private business.

JUDGE: Well, we won't ask for a speech, but several of us here are Irishmen, and as we know you are actively engaged in promoting the agricultural and industrial development in the "distressful country,"—some of us are beginning to think that is what she wants,—perhaps you would tell us exactly what you are doing.

MR. PLUNKETT: I won't undertake to do that, but I will tell you something much more interesting—namely, what the people are beginning to do for themselves along the line of agriculture and industry. I suppose you think the Irish the most hopelessly backward and unprogressive people in the world. It is true that they have fallen behind through historical causes, which fully accounts for their present economic disadvantages and industrial defects. But I doubt whether any country at the moment is so methodically and so energetically applying itself to the rebuilding of its fortunes.

PROFESSOR: That, at any rate, is news to us here. We all know about the shipbuilding and the linen industries of Belfast, and the industrial success of part of the Ulster Province. We know of the distilling and brewing industries which flourish in other parts of the island, but I always understood that the great majority of the people in the rest of Ireland depended almost exclusively upon agriculture for their subsistence. This is not a healthy condition. All over the world, there is a present tendency for the

rural populations to flock into the towns, and as the Irish have but few towns,—in fact, only one really important industrial town,—they come to our cities. Is it not true that in the last half-century your population has been reduced by one-half?

MR. PLUNKETT: Yes, from a little over eight to a little under four and a half millions, and the drain goes on, though at a diminishing rate. And, what is worse, it is the best that go, leaving behind a population with an abnormal proportion of the very old, the very young, and the physically infirm. I should accept generally the facts as you have put them.

THE WORKINGS OF "FAIR-RENT" AND LAND-PURCHASE ACTS.

LAWYER: But I understood you to say that Ireland was progressing. It doesn't look much like it from the facts upon which you and the Professor seem to be agreed. The population is disappearing. The great majority of the remnant of the race who have not yet come to this country are living upon farming. That industry we all know is in a deplorable condition, mainly owing to the fact that the landlords are in a position to raise the rent and so confiscate the improvements of the tenants.

JUDGE: Oh, no. All that is now changed.

MR. PLUNKETT: Yes, indeed; for the last twenty years the Irish tenant has enjoyed perpetuity of tenure so long as he pays his rent; and that is fixed, not by the landlords, but by the state, every fifteen years, through a specially appointed state tribunal. Moreover, the "fair rent," as it is called, secures to the tenant the value of his improvements.

RANCHMAN : Then what is he kicking about? I see in the papers that there is another land agitation going on. The tenant has practically got a good slice of the land, and now wants to get the balance by a law compelling the landlord to skip out. Since you were in the ranch business, I have been renting a farm in Nebraska, and I wish I could get settled there for life subject to a rent fixed by some body of politicians. It might cost a bit to square them, but I guess I wouldn't have to pay what I pay now. But if such a law were proposed, they would turn it down, because people would begin to fear that the tribunal would next be given power to fix the price of anything else that some influential body of voters might like to get cheaper.

MR. PLUNKETT : Oh, well; you need not fear. I understand that the legislation I have described would not be constitutional in this country.

LAWYER : That's so.

MR. PLUNKETT : It was justified in Ireland by considerations which don't apply to the United States, but only to a country where the population live so exclusively upon farming that they are not in a position to contract freely for the right to use the land. And in Ireland the case is the more exceptional in that the disappearance of their industries was due to legislative enactments.

LAWYER : But what's the trouble now?

MR. PLUNKETT : Unhappily, the system of rent-fixing has proved a failure. The periodical revision of rent means a lawsuit between the landlord and the tenant every fifteen years, and it also has the effect of discouraging good farming, for the tenant thinks it pays best to deteriorate the farm when the time for revision approaches, so as to get a large reduction. It is enough to say that the system does not work satisfactorily for either party or for the country at large.

PROFESSOR : I wonder how anybody ever could have expected that it would.

MR. PLUNKETT : Several land-purchase acts have been passed, and about 12 per cent. of the tenants have been enabled to buy out their holdings with the assistance of state credit. The experiment has proved entirely satisfactory, and the great majority of the tenants naturally want to become owners by the same means. The landlord is willing to sell if he gets enough to give him approximately his present income in some other investment. The trouble is that he is generally a life owner only, and so has to invest the proceeds of the sale in trust securities which would not yield him more than some 3 per cent. interest. There has been a great agitation to make the landlords sell, but compulsory purchase

and sale won't be enacted by this government. The latter, however, will undoubtedly facilitate voluntary purchase by their forthcoming land bill. The process of making tenants into owners in fee, subject to a terminable annuity, will go on.

PROFESSOR : I think we are keeping Mr. Plunkett away from the point we want to hear him upon. He said that the Irish people are progressing. I presume he means that they are making improvements in their chief industry of agriculture. I understand that the outstanding feature in the trend of Irish agriculture during the last half-century has been the conversion of tillage land into pasturage. Goldwin Smith and other authorities tell us that Ireland is chiefly fitted for grazing, and that the people are pastoral and not agricultural in their instincts. Certainly, when they come to this country, agriculture is the last occupation to which they apply their energies.

RANCHMAN : I recollect when you used to tell us the weight of your father's beef cattle and what he got for them without giving them any corn, and I asked you what in thunder ever induced you to come out West. You said you were not sure about your lungs, and that maybe some day you would be in Irish politics and must take care of them. (Great laughter, which seemed to be mostly at the Senator's expense.)

THE IRISH PROBLEM OF TO-DAY.

MR. PLUNKETT : Yes, and I remember the contempt with which you replied that you were not out there for your health. But if I may go back to the point to which the Professor wanted to bring me, I admit all the difficulties in the situation. In spite of them, the Irish people are determined to rebuild their national life on all its sides. They are not only setting about improving the agricultural conditions and getting themselves trained to conduct their main industry more economically and more scientifically, but they mean to fit themselves gradually for the revival of the lost industries and the creation of new ones subsidiary to agriculture, in order that they may be able to live and thrive at home, and hold on to the country to which they are devoted with a passionate devotion. If you would like to hear the story of their recent efforts to accomplish this task, I will gladly tell it to you.

JUDGE : We shall be very glad to hear of what the Irish people are doing to help themselves under existing conditions, which we all recognize are not now as unfavorable as they were. We have been accustomed to hear only of what they would do if certain political remedies were applied. I may tell you, Mr. Plunkett, we most of us here believe in these political

remedies, but we are practical business men and don't believe in neglecting present opportunities on account of past grievances and some present political disabilities.

MR. PLUNKETT: That is the right way to approach the Irish problem, and I am delighted to find how general this attitude of mind is becoming among all those who still take an interest in the Irish question in this country. So far, our conversation has brought out the main facts of the situation which we are discussing. What we have to deal with is the problem of rural life in a country whose physical conditions render agriculture the main dependence of the people. My ranch friend asked, just now, what the Irish farmers were kicking about when so much had been done for them by legislation. Unhappily, about the time when their position was being so enormously improved by the legislative changes which I have described, a new trouble overtook them in the form of agricultural depression, resulting from the opening up of vast tracts of virgin soil in the Western Hemisphere and in Australia, and also from the extraordinary development which has taken place in rapid and cheap transportation, as well as in processes of food-preservation.

PROFESSOR: Are not these causes of the Irish farmers' difficulties likely rather to increase than to diminish? It is not an extravagant forecast of likely developments in this direction to look forward to a time when it will make little difference in the cost of perishable commodities for consumption as food where they are produced, or indeed when they were produced, so cheaply will they be carried and so efficiently will their freshness be preserved.

MR. PLUNKETT: Well, of course, things are moving in that direction, but the advantage of nearness to market will never, I think, be altogether eliminated. That much protection, even in free-trade England, the home producer will for a long time enjoy. The public taste is becoming much more fastidious, and will detect the difference between a peach, a pat of butter, or even a mutton chop, which has traveled half round the world and similar articles which have been produced only a few hours away. Moreover, your consumption in this country may increase as rapidly as your production,—especially in the case of live stock,—though I admit that there is an immense margin of possible improvement in the agricultural methods of the richest agricultural sections in the United States involving enormously increased potential output from the land. Most of the farming I know in the West is distinctly wasteful.

RANCHMAN: It looks pretty rocky, then, for

the Irish farmers who are foolish enough not to emigrate to this country. I don't take much stock in them myself, but I'd sooner have them than the Chinese, or even the Italians.

SENATOR: You bet! I have no use for the Italians. You always have to get an Irishman to round them up, as you'd say, when there is any political work to be done.

JUDGE: But I don't think Mr. Plunkett is much interested in the Irish as politicians out here. He was telling us about them as workers at home.

MR. PLUNKETT: Yes, perhaps the Senator would allow me to continue my remarks upon the way in which my countrymen are endeavoring to solve their rural problems in Ireland, and to postpone to some other occasion a discussion upon the assistance they are giving you to solve your municipal problems out here.

SENATOR: Cæsar's ghost!

PROFESSOR: Yes, we know something about agricultural combination in this country. No doubt you have heard of the Grange movement, which really is a business organization of farmers for the purpose of jointly purchasing farmers' requirements, the joint ownership of costly agricultural machinery, the joint sale of produce, and so forth.

MR. PLUNKETT: I have made some inquiries about this movement, but I could not discover that it had exercised any very important influence upon American agriculture. I believe, however, it has exercised some political influence, and has to some extent molded legislation in favor of its followers. But I have gained the impression that they have lost in economic efficiency what they may have gained by going into politics.

THE "GRANGE" MOVEMENT IN IRELAND.

MR. PLUNKETT: The economic situation is a grave and difficult one, but in so far as this intensifying trouble I am speaking about,—agricultural depression consequent upon foreign competition,—is concerned, all the other countries in Europe are similarly situated. They have, however, changed their methods in two distinct ways to meet the altered circumstances, and they have done it with such success that they are in many cases better off than before this world-wide competition,—the opening of the world-market, I think the Professor would call it,—came about. In the first place, they have completely changed their business methods; they have applied to farming those principles of combination which, under modern economic conditions, have been found to be essential to the success of all other industries. They don't own

the land on the coöperative plan in these progressive European countries, but whenever and wherever it pays the farmers of a district to combine for any purpose connected with their business they organize themselves into associations to carry out those purposes.

SENATOR: I think in Ireland anything like the Grange movement would concern itself very largely, and I am sure very effectively, with politics, and not make itself very conspicuous in business.

MR. PLUNKETT: Senator, you seem to know a good deal about my countrymen out here, but you are not quite up to date in your information about those who have remained at home. We have a Grange movement which is headed by a central society known as the Irish Agricultural Organization Society, composed of men of all creeds, classes, and politics, and existing for the sole purpose of teaching the farmers to organize their industry in all its branches upon these business principles which we are discussing. The Organization Society is heading a great movement which remains absolutely non-political and is producing the best possible business results. The movement has only been in existence for a dozen years, and yet, at the moment, the associations which are organized under it embrace roughly some seventy-five thousand farmers, who are shareholding members of over seven hundred associations. As the shareholders are, generally speaking, heads of families, it is safe to say that over three hundred thousand persons, or about one-sixth of the entire farming community, have thus become interested in the movement, and it is going ahead at an unprecedented and rapidly accelerating rate of progress. They build and equip creameries; everything that the farmer wants in his industry they purchase in a large wholesale way, and pay particular attention to quality as well as to price. Some of the associations, called agricultural banks, aim at getting cheap credit for farmers through mutual security, thus enabling them to add to the working capital available for sound practical development of their industry.

Many of these bodies develop home industries, which employ the female members of the family chiefly, such as lace-making, crochet, embroidery, hosiery, rug-making, shirt-making, and so forth. But all the associations, whatever their purpose, are organized on the coöperative plan, the capital being provided by the members, and the management being in the hands of a committee democratically selected from among themselves. The movement is a severely self-help movement. No financial or other responsibility is taken by the parent society, which limits itself strictly to

giving advice as to the principles upon which these business combinations can be made to work efficiently and harmoniously, and so to be permanent.

LAWYER: What is the legal status of these associations? Are they merely partnerships or corporations? They must be one or the other, and in the former case their liability would be unlimited.

COÖPERATIVE CREAMERIES.

MR. PLUNKETT: They are corporations, mostly registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, which provides for limited liability, and they differ mainly from the ordinary joint-stock companies incorporated under the Companies Act in that the capital is elastic and can, without expense, be altered by resolution as the interest of the members dictates, and almost any arrangement as to the division of profits may be agreed upon. This is held to be essential in companies of this kind, because they are not primarily intended as investments for capital, but as associations of individuals for mutual advantage. The arrangement usually is that interest upon capital at the rate of 5 per cent. is the first charge upon the net profits, and that the remainder of the profits is divided among the farmers and the employees of the society upon an equitable basis which seeks to allocate to each contributor to the profits a share in proportion to his contribution to them, so far as this can be ascertained. For instance, in the case of a co-operative creamery, the milk is paid for at the price a capitalist would give at a proprietary creamery. But the capitalist would make more than 5 per cent. on his capital. Therefore, if the farmers manage their undertaking as well as he would,—and they ought to manage it better,—they can pay 5 per cent. on their capital and have a surplus to divide among the suppliers of milk and the workers in the factory,—so many cents on the dollar's worth of milk supplied and on the dollar of wages earned.

MUTUAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

PROFESSOR: I suppose the object of this arrangement is to harmonize the interests of all participants in the undertaking, and so produce the best results.

MR. PLUNKETT: Exactly, and so it works out in practice. The same principle is observed in all the societies, excepting those known as agricultural banks, which are incorporated under the Friendly Societies Act. In these, the liability of the members for the debts of the association is unlimited. They are chiefly located in districts where the farmers are all so poor that

they have little tangible security to offer. They therefore pledge their joint and several personal security and raise a loan. Having thus created a capital, the association, through its committee, makes loans to the members, also upon the personal security of the borrower and two sureties. The peculiarity of the system is that loans are made only for productive purposes,—that is, purposes which, in the judgment of the committee, will enable the borrower to repay the loan out of its application. When this condition is satisfied, the loan is made for just as long a period as is required to enable the borrower to fulfill the purpose for which he borrowed. There is, Professor, a point in this which will interest you. Our farmers complain of the hard-and-fast term for which money is advanced to them,—a term dictated by the usages and suitable to the requirements of trade and manufacture, but not to the conditions of agriculture. For instance, the farmer borrows money to put in his crop. It is absurd that he should have to repay it before he harvests the crop.

RANCHMAN: That interests me much more than it does the Professor. I always argue that way to those one-horse Wyoming banks. But they tumble to the racket, and I begin to wish I could transfer my business to Ireland.

MR. PLUNKETT: The real basis of security is the capitalization of honesty and the industry of the community, and this is not as visionary an asset as it might appear, for, owing to one provision of the constitution,—the unlimited liability, I mean,—the members of the association take very good care not to admit to partnership any man who does not come up to the standard in these respects.

RANCHMAN: I like the capitalization of honesty and industry. I will try to capitalize mine when I go out West again.

MR. PLUNKETT: Well, if you could get the whole round-up to join you in the loan, and to approve the purposes to which it was to be applied, I dare say you could get a moderate amount on the security you were prepared to offer. But, seriously, the scheme is, as I should have described it if you had not interposed your frivolous remarks, perfectly sound in actual operation. There are over one hundred of these agricultural banks in Ireland, and they have proved themselves to be perfectly solvent; indeed, their members never fail to repay their loans, and consequently the banks never fail to repay theirs.

JUDGE: I understood you to say there were two ways in which the Irish farmers, following, I think you said, the example of other European countries, were changing their methods in order

to meet the altered conditions. You have told us many things that they are doing, but they all seem to range themselves under the head of agricultural coöperation. It is, in effect, a reorganization of their business by applying to it the principle of combination. What was the other respect in which a change of methods is being effected? I should like to hear the whole story, if possible, before we have to join the ladies.

APPLIED SCIENCE IN FARMING.

MR. PLUNKETT: Well, I must be getting on to the second main point, where there is a great deal more to tell as to the effect of the self-help movement which I have so far described. But perhaps its most important effect is that it gave to the Irish farmer an education which made him realize for himself the next step which had to be taken. When competition with the whole world became a condition of agricultural production and distribution, the margin of profit became very narrow and only realizable by the application of science to farming in a manner and to a degree not before dreamed of. The provision of this education is, of course, the duty of the state. In all progressive countries, your own included, agricultural departments keep the farmers fully informed of all that it is necessary for them to know as to the discoveries of science in relation to their industry, the state of the markets for their produce, and all other matters of necessary and useful information.

They further pay special attention to the education of those who wish to devote themselves to agricultural pursuits. Nothing of this kind was done in the British Isles, and in Ireland no intelligent demand for such state assistance was heard until the influence of these organized self-help societies began to put pressure on the state to supplement the organized self-help of the people. Three years ago, we thus obtained,—I dare say you have heard the story of the Recess Committee; at any rate, I cannot tell it now,—a new department of government which was to serve the people in the manner I have indicated. One result of its having arisen out of a popular movement was that its constitution followed its origin and was made more democratic than any other central government institution in the British Isles. It has a popularly elected council, which is a sort of business parliament, and two popularly constituted boards which to a large extent hold the purse-strings.

OTHER INDUSTRIES.

PROFESSOR: But, Mr. Plunkett, before you conclude this interesting survey, there is just one

point I should like to call your attention to. You have described, I think as lucidly as was possible in so short a space of time, the agricultural developments on the self-help side, which are certainly a revelation to us here, and you are going on to describe the functions of a department of agriculture which comes in with remarkable appropriateness, it would seem, after the resources of self-help have first prepared the way. I presume the department will perform the same functions as similar departments elsewhere, and with these most of us are more or less familiar. But, of course, agriculture, although in all countries the most important, and in Ireland by far the most important, industry, cannot by itself make a country very prosperous. Is nothing being done by those who are devoting themselves, as you seem to be, to economic and social work to develop some industries subsidiary to agriculture in the rural districts, and also to further develop the industries in the towns? For although, as you said, there is not much highly industrialized town life except in Belfast, still there are other towns scattered about the country where you might surely develop industry.

RANCHMAN: Galway, for instance.

MR. PLUNKETT: I will get on to your political record in Wyoming presently. But, yes, Professor, I was going to deal with that side of the new development in Ireland next. The full parliamentary title of the department which I was going to tell you about is "The Department of Agriculture and Other Industries and Technical Instruction in Ireland," and that indicates its scope and purpose. It happened that when the time was ripe for the legislation to which I have referred, Mr. Gerald Balfour was chief secretary, and taking up the industrial-development policy of his brother, formerly chief secretary and now premier, he carried it much further and gave it a popular character, as I have explained. Mr. Arthur Balfour was known for his light railways and Congested Districts Board, with which he did immense good to the poverty-stricken parts of the country. Mr. Gerald Balfour applied to the whole country treatment of another and much more advanced kind. He created this new department to take over all the necessary functions of government in relation to agriculture, sea and inland fisheries, and industries, and also gave it a liberal endowment further to develop these interests so far as the state can interfere in these matters in a free-trade country.

PROFESSOR: Oh, I see; your department will not, as might have been feared by *laissez-faire* purists, overdo that paternalism which kills in place of developing.

MR. PLUNKETT: Yes, we are convinced that we must work along distinctly economic lines, and that all our efforts should be directed to the continued stimulation of self-help, under competent central direction, rather than to the substitution of industries bonused by the state, and, to that extent, founded on an artificial basis.

PROFESSOR: I am delighted to hear that, because from my knowledge of foreign departments of agriculture, on which you tell us yours was largely molded, they take a too paternal view of their duties and responsibilities,—they work, you must remember, in an atmosphere of protection and bonuses,—and I think your department, while copying many of their methods, might judiciously draw the economic line a little more sharply between doing too much and doing too little. In Ireland you have an opportunity of showing the right province for self-help and the due measure of state aid with which self-help ought to be supplemented.

RANCHMAN: When you and the Professor get through with your philosophy, could you give us an idea of what the department means to do to bring in dollars and cents to its expectant admirers?

MR. PLUNKETT: Very little, I am afraid, that would meet with your approval. You will be shocked to hear that we attach more importance to giving practical education than to anything else we can give to our farmers or workers.

RANCHMAN: You had more horse sense in the old days. I remember the professor of agriculture who came to your ranch, and your telling me that he was so full of philosophy he didn't know enough to live till morning.

MR. PLUNKETT: I now know that had I listened to all he told me upon the principles of stock-breeding, I wouldn't have made the idiotic blunders I did in bringing in those high-toned cows who turned up their toes in the winter of '85-'86. Our Irish farmers have more wisdom than I had then, and are getting to see the dollar value of science in stock-breeding, the use of fertilizers, the production of early vegetables and fruit, the perfecting of butter-making, and a hundred other things of the kind.

PROFESSOR: Don't you find the organized societies of farmers of use to the department in its educational work?

MR. PLUNKETT: Oh, certainly. I don't believe that any department of agriculture can do much good working through individual farmers, and there is no limit to the assistance they can give to well-organized associations. Indeed, at the present stage in these developments which I have been describing, I consider the work of the Irish

Agricultural Organization Society of more importance than that of the department. Unhappily, it is very difficult to get people to understand this, and consequently it is hard to get them to subscribe to this society. A good many wealthy Irish-Americans have supported it, and I doubt whether any of the generosity which has been shown by the exiles of Erin to those they have left behind has done one-tenth part as much good as these particular subscriptions.

SENATOR: Why shouldn't the same methods of agricultural organization be applied to the agricultural districts in the United States, which are suffering from the same kind of competition to which you have attributed the difficulties of the Irish farmers? For instance, some of the New England agricultural sections where the farms are being abandoned, or some of the Southern States where they are teaching the colored population the principles of agriculture, but not, so far as I am aware, organizing the business as you are doing in Ireland?

MR. PLUNKETT: Well, of course, I can't give an opinion without knowing all the local conditions, but I do firmly believe in the almost in-

variable applicability of the principle to modern farming.

[Here some ladies entered.]

JUDGE: Gentlemen, I am afraid this is a deputation from the ladies. My dear, we have just settled the Irish question. We will be with you in a moment.

[The ladies leave.]

JUDGE: Mr. Plunkett, on another occasion you must tell us more about this interesting new movement, especially on its industrial side.

MR. PLUNKETT: I shall look forward to another opportunity, and if things go on at the present rate, I shall have much more to tell you before long. I am sorry I could not tell you of our intentions for improving the industrial opportunities of the towns and developing industries subsidiary to agriculture in the rural districts. I hope you will all come and see things for yourselves, and in the Wild West to which I have now retired I can show my ranch friend some fat beeves which will be as great a revelation to him as our politics to the Senator, or our economics to the Professor. Now for the ladies, but I won't go first.

THE TRANS-CANADA RAILWAY.

BY E. T. D. CHAMBERS.

LESS than a quarter of a century ago, 99 per cent. of the world's financial and railway magnates were laughing at the supposed madness of a group of Canadian capitalists, backed by the government of the Dominion, who were undertaking the construction of a transcontinental railroad north of the Great Lakes, through the then unpeopled prairies of Canada's Northwest Territories and over the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific coast. Canadians themselves were so far from confident in the engineering and financial success of the project that the leaders of the great political party which to-day controls the reins of government bitterly opposed themselves to an undertaking which they regarded as far beyond the financial capacity of the country and bound to result in disaster to all concerned in it. The phenomenal success of the Canadian Pacific Railway is known of all men. Its common stock earns 6 per cent., and its value has hovered between 130 and 140 upon the New York Stock Exchange for several months past. In each of the two last years, notwithstanding the many locomotives and thousands of cars

which the company has added to its rolling stock, it has found itself badly beaten by the traffic of the Northwest Territories and the Province of Manitoba, and a great grain blockade has resulted. Everybody realizes that another Canadian transcontinental railway is loudly called for, and many are of the opinion that the next few years will witness the building of two or three such roads. Already the Canadian Northern Railway is pushing its way through the park lands of the Saskatchewan, to go by the path so strongly advocated by Milton and Cheadle, through the Yellow Head Pass to the Pacific. The Grand Trunk has become infected, and the Grand Trunk Pacific is to be built at once from North Bay or Gravenhurst. And now from the minister of railways come mutterings that lead to the inference that the government is itself thinking of carrying its own railway system westward, to add one more steel band from Atlantic to Pacific. It has well been said that no man can guess what this infection of progress will lead to.

The most promising of all the new projects

for girdling the continent with a new line of railway is that for which the Dominion government has granted a charter to the Trans-Canada Railway Company. The national character of this proposition from the Canadian standpoint, its military importance from the imperial point of view, the value, from a commercial aspect, of the remarkably short and direct route mapped out for it, and the popular interest attaching to it by reason of the high latitudes which it is likely to traverse, are attracting to it a large share of public attention.

DIRECTNESS OF THE ROUTE.

The proposed line of the Trans-Canada Railway is one of the most direct which can span the continent. Starting from deep-water termini at Chicoutimi,—the head of navigation on the Saguenay River,—at Quebec, and at Montreal, it is destined to traverse and develop the best part of the newly discovered wheat and timber lands of northern Quebec in the James Bay district, to tap the whole of the James Bay and Hudson Bay trade, to open up the valuable mineral country of northern Ontario, to cross the center of the rich wheat lands of the Peace River valley, and, finally, to reach one of the finest ports on the Pacific coast by a pass in the mountains only 2,000 feet high, as compared with 4,425 at Crow's Nest, and with 5,400 at Kicking Horse.

The most cursory glance at the line laid down on the map for the new road reveals the directness of the route and its far-northern location.

From Quebec to Port Simpson *via* the Trans-Canada Railway will be only 2,830 miles, all of the route south of the northern limit of wheat, while the distance between the same points *via* the Grand Trunk Railway will be about 3,400 miles, and that from Quebec to Vancouver by the Canadian Pacific Railway is 3,078 miles. The expected saving in both distance and gradients by the proposed road over existing routes from Manitoba to the Canadian seaports on the St. Lawrence is so great that the promoters have already undertaken to carry wheat from all points on its line in the Province of Manitoba to the ocean steamer at Chicoutimi, Montreal, or Quebec at rates which will save the farmers of Manitoba and the Northwest about seven cents per bushel on present cost of transportation to the seaboard. It is claimed that this saving alone will much more than pay the total interest upon the cost of the road's construction.

OCEAN PORTS.

It is admitted on every hand that the terminal seaports of the Trans-Canada leave nothing to be desired. The harbor of Port Simpson is

said to be the finest on the Pacific coast north of San Francisco. It has the additional advantage of being much nearer to Yokohama than either Vancouver or San Francisco. Nottaway, on James Bay, which is to be reached by a branch of the main line, is the only deep-water harbor on the bay, and with some dredging might be used by vessels drawing thirty feet of water. The coast line of James and Hudson bays, tributary to this railway, will be about four thousand miles. Chicoutimi, on the Saguenay, can be reached by vessels of any draught, and Quebec has magnificent docks, which have cost the government millions of dollars, with deep-water berth and elevator facilities for steamers of any draught. The new bridge now building over the St. Lawrence at Quebec will enable the Trans-Canada road to make use of St. John and Halifax for winter ports if ever those of Quebec and Chicoutimi should be blocked by ice.

GOVERNMENT SUBSIDIES.

From both Quebec and Chicoutimi to Roberval, on the western shore of Lake St. John, the railway is already built. For sixty miles northwest of Roberval, the line has been laid out, and construction was commenced before the fall of the present winter's snow. For this first section of sixty miles from Roberval, the government of the Dominion submitted to Parliament a subsidy bill, which was duly ratified, granting a subsidy of \$3,200 per mile, to be increased to \$6,400 per mile should the cost be in excess of \$15,000 per mile. The same grant is expected from the Canadian government for the whole length of the line, besides generous land grants from the governments of the different provinces through which the railway is to pass. Both the provinces of Ontario and Quebec have been asked to give a grant of 20,000 acres of land per mile for those portions of the Trans-Canada Railway which are to run through their territory.

Many of the far-northern lands through which it is proposed to construct the new railway, and which are capable of great development, are almost valueless at the present time for want of the means of communication. In illustration of this, it may be mentioned that an American syndicate has already offered to the prime minister of Quebec the sum of \$37,500,000, or \$1.50 per acre, for 25,000,000 acres of forest and mineral lands in the far north of that province which are to be traversed by the railway. This offer was promptly declined by the premier, though it would have furnished him with more than enough ready cash to pay off the entire public debt of the province; and in acquainting the legislature with the fact, Mr. Parent declared

that he considered these particular lands to be worth from five to ten dollars per acre when opened up by railway communication. The incident shows, however, how well the federal and provincial governments of Canada can afford to lend their assistance to the construction of such roads as the Trans-Canada.

AS A MILITARY LINE OF COMMUNICATION.

The importance attaching to the project from the British imperial standpoint arises from its far-northern route as well as from its directness. Colonel Kitson, one of the foremost military authorities of the day, who was some years ago a professor at the Royal Military College of Kingston, Ontario, told the people of England, the other day, at a banquet, that though trouble between

pool to Yokohama *via* the Trans-Canada is only 9,830 miles, against 12,089 miles *via* New York and San Francisco.

CLIMATIC CONSIDERATIONS.

It is difficult, at first sight, to understand what local traffic can be expected from a road located so far north as the projected line of the Trans-Canada. To arrive at a proper appreciation of the facts of the case, it is necessary to take into consideration the peculiar course and direction of the isothermal lines of northern Canada. It will surprise many people to learn that excellent grain and vegetables are raised at Moose Factory, on James Bay, where the mean summer temperature is almost as favorable as that of Montreal. Still more remarkable does it, at first



MAP OF THE PROPOSED TRANS-CANADA RAILWAY.

Britain and the United States never seemed further off than now, yet if it should come, the American regular army, stationed on the frontier, would raid the Canadian lines of communication, which are all quite close to the boundary line, and render Canada helpless. The Trans-Canada, on the other hand, would be comparatively safe from molestation, being, along all its course from Chicoutimi, between three hundred and six hundred miles from the American boundary line. This feature of the route of the Trans-Canada has been enlarged upon by writers in several of the English papers, and it is also pointed out that the eastern termini of the road at Chicoutimi and Quebec, its western at Port Simpson, and the point at which it touches James Bay, could easily be defended against all comers by British fleets; while in view of the possibility of an Anglo-Japanese alliance, it is interesting to note that the distance from Liver-

sight, appear that where the projected railway is to traverse the Peace River valley, more than five hundred miles north of the international dividing line, it will still be but half-way from the boundary to the northern limit of wheat. In other words, the wheat belt of northwest Canada extends as far north from the international boundary as the distance from Quebec to Chicago. This is the country into which the great trek of American farmers is now taking place. The warm winds known as the Chinooks come across the mountains from the Japan current and alter the climate of this great area north to the Arctic, so that the climate of western Canada does not correspond with the latitude; the isotherms, or lines of equal mean temperature for any period of the year, instead of running east and west, as they were formerly supposed to do, have a tendency to run northwest and southeast, and the spring in the Peace River

country opens up as early, or earlier, than it does in Winnipeg, thirteen hundred miles to the southeast.

Perhaps the strongest claim which the promoters of the Trans-Canada are urging upon the government of Canada is that their line is des-

tined to serve Canadian ports exclusively, at all seasons of the year, whereas the rival projects which are also asking government recognition and aid are using Portland, Boston, New York, and other American ports for their winter termini.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA'S LAND-GRANT RAILWAY.

BY THE HON. J. H. GORDON, K.C., M.L.C.

(Attorney-General of South Australia.)

SOUTH AUSTRALIA'S scheme for the construction of a railway across Australia is one of the biggest ventures ever undertaken by any state, and is certainly one of the most important ever offered to private enterprise in any part of the world. Put shortly, the offer is, "Build within our territory a thousand and sixty-three miles of railway, which shall remain your own property, and we will give you, as a bonus, a grant in fee simple of seventy-nine million seven hundred and twenty-five acres of land!"

Whoever earns this bonus will be the greatest private landowner of whom history has any record. He will possess in fee simple a territory larger than the whole of the United Kingdom.

WHY SOUTH AUSTRALIA MAKES THE OFFER.

Thirty years ago, South Australia earned the praise and gratitude of the world by building the transcontinental telegraph line, and not many years afterward, she began to bridge the continent with a railway also. Toward this great work, railways were built, running north from Adelaide to Oodnadatta, 688 miles, and south from Port Darwin to Pine Creek, 146 miles. Between these there remains a gap of 1,063 miles. It is this gap which it is proposed to fill with a railway built on the land-grant system.

Though circumstances have caused delay, the project of establishing railway communication between Adelaide and Port Darwin has never been abandoned by South Australia. If we cannot get the railway built upon the terms now offered, we shall, I am convinced, do the work ourselves. Possibly, in the long run, South Australia would gain by making it a state undertaking pure and simple. But the "long run" is too distant an outlook.

While we are waiting until we have money enough to build the railway ourselves, some other state will certainly "jump our claim." The route from Port Darwin to the southern coast

of Australia through our territory is much the best; but it is not the only route possible. Our rich sister states of New South Wales and Queensland have rival schemes, and they are not by any means blind to the immense advantage of having such a line within their borders. The necessities of Australia call for the railway. South Australia has upon all grounds the best right to supply the want, and she does not intend to sleep upon that right.

WHAT THE RAILWAY WILL DO.

It will be of immense advantage to the Australian Commonwealth from a military point of view. Port Darwin, as Major-General Jervois said many years ago, is the key to the East. A railway connecting a point of such strategical importance with the southern part of Australia will be invaluable for purposes of defense; indeed, it cannot be said that we are sufficiently protected against our powerful Eastern neighbors without it.

It will be of even greater commercial advantage. It is said that when the Russian Siberian Railway reaches Port Arthur, mails and passengers can be landed at Port Darwin in fourteen days from London. Given our proposed railway, they should reach Adelaide from Port Darwin (about nineteen hundred miles) in three days. Result: Seventeen days from London to Adelaide. Time is money. The railway means money to all Australia.

For a time, the trade of the East must be gripped by the paw of the Great Bear. But some day, perhaps in our time—who knows?—Singapore will be the terminus of a line running from Europe through India and Burma. Singapore is three days nearer Port Darwin than Port Arthur. When this is accomplished,—again, of course, given our railway,—we shall not only be within fourteen days of our imperial center, but we shall have ousted our Russian rival in favor

of a route which will run largely through British territory.

These are all advantages which every state in the Commonwealth will share. South Australia, with the gateway to a continent within her territory, as well as the only land approach thereto, will, of course, reap a special reward. In addition, South Australia will benefit by the opening up of an immense area of country much of which is eminently suited to carry a European

seventy-five thousand acres of land per mile of railway.

Bids must be sent in on or before May 2, 1904. The successful bidder must: 1. Construct the railway to the satisfaction of the engineer-in-chief, on the 3 feet 6 inches gauge; the rails to be of steel, and of not less weight than 60 pounds to the yard. 2. Complete the work in eight years, the minimum length of line to be constructed in any one year being one hundred



MAP OF THE PROPOSED SOUTH AUSTRALIAN LAND-GRANT RAILWAY.

population, but which is now idle for want of railway communication.

DETAILS OF THE SCHEME.

Boiled down, the main details of the scheme are as follow: Bidders must put up £10,000 as a guarantee that the contract will be signed if the bid is accepted; and they must state: 1. The quantity of land per mile of railway which is asked for the construction. 2. The time within which they will complete the work. No bid will be considered which asks for more than

miles. 3. Provide and always maintain a train service for goods and passengers once a week at least from each terminus, with a minimum speed of twenty miles per hour. 4. Deposit £50,000, which is to be absolutely forfeited if default is made in any of the conditions of the contract.*

The rates for carriage of goods and passengers are not to exceed those charged by the govern-

*These terms have been advertised in American newspapers.

ment on the line running from Port Augusta to Oodnadatta.

The successful bidder is given a right of purchase of the railway from Port Darwin to Pine Creek, at a price to be fixed by arbitration, and also running rights over all South Australian railways, on terms to be fixed by the railways commissioner.

As each forty miles of railway is completed, the contractor may select the land to which he is entitled, in blocks, which must be chosen alternately on either side of the railway, and abutting upon it. No two blocks may face each other, and each must be as nearly as possible in the shape of a parallelogram, running true east and west, having a width of twenty miles. The land will be granted with all gold, metals, and minerals thereon, and without any reservation except that public roads may be taken therefrom by the governor without compensation. The land is to be free from any land tax imposed by South Australia for ten years from the date of the grant. Gold fields actually proclaimed at the time of the passing of the act, and all lands in use for public purposes, are excluded from selection.

It is estimated that the railway, with equipment, will cost about five millions sterling (\$25,000,000). The government reserves the right to purchase the railway at any time, at a valuation to be fixed by arbitration in case of disagreement.

THE ROUTE AND THE COUNTRY.

The route presents no engineering difficulties. A nurse-maid could wheel a baby in a perambulator from end to end of it. Ballast can be obtained almost everywhere, and good water has been proved to exist all along the telegraph line. The climate is eminently suited for white labor. Malaria is unknown between Pine Creek and Oodnadatta. Mr. Simpson Newland, a most reliable authority, says that

The climate is more temperate than that of a large portion of inhabited Australia, as well as more fertile and better grassed. It is indeed excellent country, and exceedingly healthy; warm, with occasional excessively hot days, but cool nights. The climate of the MacDonnell Ranges in particular is reported by the residents of years as most enjoyable, as with such an elevation it must be. Prof. Baldwin Spencer writes: "There is no finer climate in the world than that of the MacDonnell Ranges; indeed, the winter in the interior was of a most perfect kind—bright, clear days and cool nights. Admirable conditions for a consumptive sanatorium."

The only dry stretch of country along the route is that between Oodnadatta and Charlotte Waters, one hundred and thirty miles. Over this, the average annual rainfall is about five

inches; but within this belt, low as the rainfall is, some of the finest cattle and horses in Australia are bred, and most of it is at present profitably occupied by stock-raisers. The country is also artesian, and good lucern [alfalfa] is grown at Oodnadatta when sufficient trouble has been taken to use the artesian supply.

Above Charlotte Waters, the rainfall increases until it reaches an almost tropical fall at Port Darwin, as the following table shows. The record is for twenty-eight years:

	Average Annual Rainfall.
Port Darwin	62.66
Southport	63.20
Yam Creek	47.79
Burrundie	46.01
Pine Creek	45.39
Katherine River	40.36
Daly Waters	37.59
Powell Creek	18.65
Tennant Creek	15.38
Barrow Creek	12.28
Alice Springs	10.73
Charlotte Waters	5.56
Oodnadatta	4.47

The products of the Northern Territory answer to the rainfall. In the north, all the useful tropical plants,—such as cotton, rice, and sugarcane,—flourish. From Powell Creek southward, the greater part of the country is admirably suited for the breeding of sheep, horned cattle, and horses. It would be unwise, perhaps, to speak too confidently of the mineral wealth of this vast stretch of country, throughout the whole of which gold, silver, copper, and other minerals have been found in varying quantities. The reports of our government geologist, Mr. Brown, F.G.S.; of the late Professor Tate, F.G.S., and of many other competent authorities, more than hint at immense possibilities of mineral wealth in the Northern Territory. It is well known that large and payable gold-bearing reefs exist in many places, only waiting the railway to make them available for working. Nearly every mail brings to Adelaide news of fresh mineral discoveries. The man who builds this railway will earn no barren estate.

WHAT SOUTH AUSTRALIA WILL GAIN.

Objections have mostly come from outside South Australia. South Australia itself is for the scheme almost to a man. Some people say that the bonus of 75,000 acres of land for each mile of railway is too great. It is certainly magnificent; but we have in the Northern Territory alone 523,000 square miles of land; that is, 335,116,800 acres. By far the greater part of this is not only idle, but an annual burden upon the state. After giving 79,000,000 acres for the railway, we shall have, in round figures,

256,000,000 acres left, and we shall have it occupied and a source of public revenue, instead of idle and a constant expense. We shall be very much in the position of a landowner who, having had more land than he had money to work, sold some of it to enable him to profitably use the rest. But the analogy is not quite true. We shall be in a better position. The landowner would cease to have any benefit from the land he had sold; not so with the state. The 79,000,000 acres of land will not only remain as a taxable asset, but it will become, like the government land adjoining, a source of indirect public revenue in many ways. The South Australian taxpayer is not a fool. He prefers to own 256,000,000 acres of land yielding him a revenue rather than 335,000,000 acres which costs him money out of pocket every year.

ARE LAND-GRANT RAILWAYS WICKED ?

There are many people, of course, who object to land-grant railways under all circumstances, and it must be admitted that there are cases in which such schemes have been disadvantageous to all concerned in them. On the other hand, some of these schemes have been of the greatest advantage to the country in which they were undertaken.

Personally, I think that every such scheme should be considered on its own merits. The question should be, "Is it good business?" From this point of view, South Australia is taking a sensible course in seeking to have the railway built in return for land, and I have advocated it from my first entry into politics. The bogey of "monopoly" has been raised to decry the scheme, but it is a misuse of terms to speak of the ownership of the land granted for the railway as a "monopoly" in the proper sense of that word. As I have already pointed out, the owner cannot occupy his land without contributing to the state revenue, and without adding to the value of the immensely greater area which remains the property of the crown. He cannot take his land away. It must remain forever a taxable public asset.

The *Sydney Bulletin*, in trying to defeat the scheme, has used this fact very unfairly. It has attempted to alarm possible bidders by hinting that the Commonwealth Parliament has power to impose a special "bursting-up" tax upon the land. But this is all nonsense; no tax can be imposed by the Commonwealth which is not equal upon land in every state. The constitution prevents discriminations; besides, as every one knows, a federal land tax is outside all reasonable probability.

IS SOUTH AUSTRALIA WITHIN ITS RIGHTS ?

The *Sydney Daily Telegraph* is the mouthpiece of those who say that the Commonwealth has the prior right to construct the railway, and who accuse South Australia of "seeking a state advantage at Commonwealth expense." Two reasons are given for this view. One is that the undertaking is too big for the state; and the other is that the state is precluded from undertaking it owing to negotiations which have passed between it and the federal government relating to the transfer of the Northern Territory to the Commonwealth. The first point hardly merits reply. South Australia is able to manage her own affairs, and may be trusted not to embark upon any scheme which she has not fully considered, and which is not well within her right to initiate and her power to manage. As to the second point, what happened was that Sir Frederick Holder, when Premier of South Australia, in April, 1901, proposed to the federal government that the Commonwealth should take over the Northern Territory "on fair terms." Nothing followed this proposal. Sir Edmund Barton replied, merely saying that the matter would receive "attention from ministers;" and there was a desultory debate in the federal parliament upon the question, but no obligation of any kind was created on either side.

In the meantime, the aspect of things changed very much regarding both the estimation in which the federal parliament was held by the parliament and the people of the state, and also in the outlook of the Northern Territory itself. Rightly or wrongly, the doings of federal legislators did not encourage confidence, and general opinion grew to a disinclination to intrust the Commonwealth with further power. Then the territory itself began to force its value upon us, first as a cattle-raising country, and then as being richer in gold in the temperate zone than we had dreamed of. The rapid advance of the Siberian Railway to Port Arthur, making Port Darwin the key to oversea communication with Europe, assisted the conviction that it would be well to withdraw the proposals to transfer the Northern Territory until events more fully justified the wisdom of such a course. There was nothing either in law or honor to prevent this being done, and it has been accomplished by later correspondence between the federal and the state governments. I think it is unlikely that any further proposal for the transfer will be made by the state government. The accomplishment of this great project will be an event of world-wide interest, and I am proud that South Australia has had the courage to initiate it.

THE AWARD OF THE ANTHRACITE COAL STRIKE COMMISSION.

BY WALTER E. WEYL, PH.D

WITH the publication of the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, on March 21, 1903, the great coal strike of 1902 comes to a close. It is ten months since the men quit work, the strike having lasted five months, and the deliberations of the commission an equal period. The award of the commission signalizes a complete victory for the miners. When the struggle began, in 1902, there were few who believed that the miners could escape a complete overthrow. At that time, the mine workers, rather than incur the fearful suffering of a strike, would have been willing to accept a small fraction of their original demands. Had the men in control of the coal companies understood the problems of labor as they understood those of finance, had they foreseen the results of the strike, they would by all means within their power have sought to prevent the outbreak of hostilities.

The sequel has shown that the miners gained more by the strike of 1902 than they would have gained by the agreement which they fought for, and that they secured more from arbitration than they could have secured even from a successful strike. The appointment of the commission was in itself a victory for the workmen, and the award of the commission, despite certain inconsistencies and irrelevancies, constitutes a clear and definite support to the main contentions of the union.

PERSONNEL AND CONDUCT OF THE COMMISSION.

Whatever the award of the commission might have been, the members of that tribunal would have been deserving of the gratitude of the public for the thorough and conscientious manner in which they approached the problem. The task which was assigned them was one of exceeding difficulty. Operators and miners had reached a point of exasperation and irritation which rendered the attainment of a mutually satisfactory award extremely improbable. The *personnel* of the commission, however, was in itself a factor contributing largely to the solution of the difficulty. It was felt by both sides that each individual member of the commission was a man of honor and intelligence, and that it would almost have been safe, despite the natural animus and bias of individuals, to leave the

whole determination of the problem to any single member of the commission. From the beginning, the commission displayed creditable caution, and maintained throughout a dignified and judicial attitude. During the long months throughout which the hearings were prolonged, the commission did everything in its power to avoid friction and to promote an amicable understanding between operators and miners. From the beginning, the commission seemed always to bear in mind that whatever the award, the miners and operators would be obliged to live together in the future, and it was therefore felt that the award would be made less in conformity with an abstract principle than with the view of promoting a harmony of interest and the attainment of permanently friendly relations and mutually satisfactory conditions.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE APPOINTMENT.

The appointment of the commission was an event unique in the industrial history of the country. The arbitration, while voluntary in appearance, was in actual fact compulsory. It is impossible not to believe that some form of pressure was exerted upon the operators during the ten days elapsing between their interview with the President, on October 3, and their "letter of submission," on October 13. What the form of this pressure was, and whether it was then present or prospective, is not of vital concern. The important fact remains that certain prominent men of extremely conservative views were obliged to submit to the decision of the people that there are clearly defined limits to the right of property and to the freedom of contract, and that in certain labor conflicts particularly affecting the public welfare the people may intervene and compel the contestants to compose their differences.

METHODS OF PROCEDURE.

The compulsory nature of the arbitration, and the suddenness with which peace gave way to war, will explain many of the difficulties of the situation at the time when the commission was appointed. To a large extent, it was incumbent upon this tribunal itself to limit the scope of its

inquiry, and to determine its method of procedure. It was for some time in doubt whether the commission was primarily one of arbitration or of mere investigation. In their letter of submission to the President, the operators avoided the use of the word arbitration, and the word is omitted from the title of the tribunal. From the first, however, both the miners and the public insisted that the tribunal was one of arbitration, and the procedure adopted and the limitation of the scope of the investigation by the commission itself justified this conclusion. The commission observed the usual rules of courts, while refraining from applying the more rigid rules of legal evidence. The formality of court procedure gradually lessened, however, and toward the close of the hearings every effort was made to arrive at the truth with the least possible amount of obstruction.

One of the most successful methods of obviating strife was the preparation of joint statistical reports by the representatives of the operators and of the miners. The accountants of the several companies presented their figures to the statistician and the accountant of the miners in advance of the actual trial, with the result that a joint report was presented and wearisome argument avoided. These conferences were carried on with great fairness on both sides, and in the case of the only two companies who refused to accept the joint award, or abide by it, the results were so disastrous that they vindicated the rule. In the case of one company so refusing, the cross-examination was particularly damaging, while the other company was obliged repeatedly to withdraw its figures upon the ground of admitted inaccuracy.

The procedure adopted by the commission was in many ways deserving of credit, and in view of the fact that there were no precedents to follow, its success was remarkable. It might have been better, however, had the legal aspect of the investigation been further minimized, and it would be better in most cases if the case of the companies and of the miners were presented by their usual representatives rather than by professional attorneys. The length of time given to each side for the presentation of its case and for the cross-examination of opposing witnesses should have been limited, and every formality should have been dispensed with wherever practicable. The most successful aspects of the actual method adopted were the joint reports upon statistical information, the avoidance of merely cumulative evidence, and the provision that the award should become effective from the beginning of the investigation.

The bulk of the testimony was enormous.

There was probably not less than ten thousand pages of typewritten testimony, presented by over five hundred witnesses. These witnesses represented all sorts and conditions of men, from all the various walks of life. The witness-stand was filled by a rapid succession of miners, miners' wives, breaker boys, engineers, firemen, pump men, day laborers, union officials, other labor leaders, mining experts, school superintendents, ministers, physicians, coal operators, superintendents, statisticians, militiamen, coal and iron police, factory girls, mine inspectors, factory inspectors, and other classes too numerous to mention. Witnesses were examined, cross-examined, re-examined, as in ordinary court procedure, but considerable latitude was allowed in these matters.

The monotony of the proceedings was relieved by a number of dramatic incidents. The testimony of Mr. Mitchell, under more than four days of rapid cross-examination, afforded an instance of poise, self-restraint, and mental alertness seldom witnessed in any court-room, and the arguments of Mr. Baer and Mr. Darrow were remarkable exhibitions of adroitness and eloquence. The testimony of Gallagher, of the little factory girls, of the Markle evicts, and of the Winston relatives was but part of a great mass of evidence of an intense human interest.

THE AWARD OF THE COMMISSION.

The present article will deal only with the award and principal recommendations of the commission and will not touch upon the argument. It was naturally not to be expected that any award made by the commission would be entirely acceptable to both sides, and there are many parts of the findings which will meet with opposition. On the whole, however, and viewed from a non-partisan standpoint, the award appears to be reasonably fair and equitable. There were four demands of the miners,—namely, for an increase of pay, a decrease in hours, the weighing of coal where practicable, and the recognition of the union. The first two demands of the miners have been compromised, the miners receiving over half of the increase demanded; the third demand was refused, but the conditions reformed; while for the fourth demand, the men secured practically what they desired, although formal recognition was denied them.

WAGES.

At the beginning of the hearings, the commission decided that any increase in the rate of pay, or any decrease in the hours, should be retroactive, and be effective from the first day of November. There would have been difficulty

in carrying out this plan, however, especially in the case of a reduction in hours, and in substitution therefor the commission provided for a 10 per cent. increase in all wages of all employees during the five months of investigation, from November 1, 1902, to April 1, 1903. This increase, which practically amounts to a bonus of half a month's salary, must be paid on or before the first day of June; and in the case of miners who have died in the interval, it will be paid to their heirs or assigns.

With regard to future wages and future hours of labor, the commission has adopted the plan of awarding increases for the various classes of employees and making this increased wage the minimum of a sliding scale. In other words, during the three years from April 1, 1903, to April 1, 1906, wages may not fall below the increased scale now awarded, no matter what the price of coal may be, but must rise above that rate in case the price of coal advances.

The contract miners asked for an increase of 20 per cent., and have received a minimum of 10 per cent. The engineers who are hoisting water, as well as the firemen, asked for a reduction in hours from twelve to eight, without any reduction in pay; or, in other words, for an increased hourly rate of wages of 50 per cent., and this demand has been granted. The hoisting engineers and other engineers, as well as the pump men, asked for a reduction in the hours of labor from twelve to eight, without any reduction in pay, and have received a 5 per cent. increase in wages and a reduction in the number of days worked per week from seven to six, these two changes effecting an increase of 22.5 per cent. per hour of work. The company men, or men paid by the day, asked for a reduction in the work-day from ten to eight hours, and have received a reduction from ten to nine, thus obtaining a minimum increase of 11.1 per cent., instead of an increase of 25 per cent.

THE SLIDING SCALE.

These wages, however, are not necessarily the wages which will prevail, but merely the irreducible minimum of wages during the next three years. It was suggested by Mr. Baer that a sliding scale should be adopted, and that the wages of all mine workers should not fall below what they were in April, 1902, but should be increased 1 per cent. for every five cents increase in the price of the large sizes of coal in New York City. There was much opposition to the sliding scale as it was practised by the Reading Coal and Iron Company during the twenty years preceding the strike of 1900. The men complained that they were not represented in the

determination of the true price of coal, and that the price was determined, not at tidewater, but at the interior shipping point, with the result that the basis of computation could always be reduced by increasing the freight rates to tidewater. They also claimed that there was no effective minimum, and that this sliding scale always slid down.

In the resurrection of the sliding scale before the commission, Mr. Baer placed it in such a form that the main disadvantages of the system would be obviated; but the objection was made that he placed the minimum at the present rate of wages, which the mine workers had claimed was unjustly low. While there has always been great opposition to the scale among the miners, it will be recognized in the present instance that it works merely as a bonus, since the prices cannot fall below the increased wages awarded by the commission, and may rise above it. The price fixed as the basis is \$4.50 for white ash coal in the harbor of New York, which in the light of past history is a high price; but it would appear on a rough calculation that probably over two-fifths of the advantage of any future increase in the price of coal will accrue to the mine employees. The sliding scale should work to the advantage of both public and miners by lessening the temptation to increase prices and decrease output.

With regard to the second demand of the mine workers for a decrease in the hours from ten to eight, the commission decided upon a compromise of nine hours. It thus raised the wages of the men a minimum of 11.1 per cent. The company or day men have never been paid per actual solar day, but by a group of ten hours, in whatever way distributed; and in the future they will be paid a day's wage, not for a group of ten but for one of nine hours. Thus, ninety hours of work will in the future be counted as ten days, instead of as nine days, as in the past. It is not clear whether the commission contemplates the restriction of the actual working day to nine hours per solar day, since, according to the award, any excess of work over nine hours is to be paid at a proportional rate. It is, therefore, not clear whether such excess of work is to be tolerated as a general practice. With the exception of the Reading company, however, most of the companies rarely employ their men for more than nine hours per solar day, and it is therefore hardly probable that much friction will result from the execution of this section of the award.

WEIGHING OF THE COAL.

The third demand of the miners, that in cases where payment is now made by the car it shall

in the future be made by weight, is refused by the commission. The award removes some of the objectionable features of the present system by compelling the operators to provide check weighmen and check docking bosses wherever and whenever the men demand them, and by prohibiting an increase in the size of the car or in the topping without a corresponding increase in the rate of remuneration; but the present system of payment is retained except where changed by mutual agreement. The commission did attempt to fix upon some method of weighing coal in the railroad cars, but the process, while equitable and just, was held by the operators and many of the miners to be too complicated, and as a consequence, impracticable.

RECOGNITION OF THE UNION.

The award of the commission recognizes the union in an emphatic and effective manner. This recognition is not formal, open, or official, but is none the less real. What the commission has said, and, above all, what it has not said, upon this point is one thing; what it has done is another and a different and a better thing. The commission says that it does not consider the question of recognition within the scope of the jurisdiction conferred upon it, although it states that "the suggestion of a working agreement between employees and employers embodying the doctrine of collective bargaining is one which the commission believes contains many hopeful elements for the adjustment of relations in the mining region." This concession, however, is qualified by the statement that "the present constitution of the United Mine Workers of America does not present the most inviting inducements to the operators to enter into contractual relations with it."

Notwithstanding its disclaimer of jurisdiction, however, the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission has in practical effect compelled the operators to grant to the union full, plenary, and distinct recognition. There are two ways of changing conditions,—by the passing of new laws or by the amendment or amended interpretation of old ones. Barring the improbable event of either side refusing to abide by the award, there will be no possibility of a trade agreement before April, 1906, and the commission was discreet, if not valorous, in refusing to cross this bridge before it was reached. The interpretation or amendment of the award, however, will give rise to a multitude of problems during the three years' life of the agreement, and in the machinery provided for this interpretation or amendment the union is clearly and unmistakably recognized.

This ultimate recognition of the union will not come as a surprise to the mine workers, since they realized from the very inception of arbitration that the real recognition of the union was logically inevitable. There could be no award of a commission without machinery for its enforcement, and there could be no machinery for enforcement and no guarantor of enforcement other than an organization among the men.

The recognition of the United Mine Workers is clearly indicated by the language of the award. Section 4 provides that "Any difficulty or disagreement arising under this award, either as to its interpretation or application, or in any way growing out of the relations of the employees and employers, which cannot be settled or adjusted by conciliation between the superintendents or managers of the mine or mines and the miner or miners directly interested, or is of a scope too large to be settled or adjusted, shall be referred to a board of conciliation, to consist of six persons, appointed as hereinafter provided. That is to say, if there shall be a division of the whole region into three districts, in each of which there shall exist an organization representing a majority of the mine workers of such district, one member of said board of conciliation shall be appointed by each of said organizations, and three other persons shall be appointed by the operators, the operators of said district appointing one person." The award of this board of conciliation shall be final, and in case of dispute the matter shall be referred to an umpire appointed by one of the Circuit judges of the Third Judicial Circuit of the United States.

There could be no clearer, no more definite, recognition of the union than is herein provided. The anthracite regions are divided by the State Bureau of Mines into eight districts, and by the United Mine Workers into three districts. The present districts of the United Mine Workers are apparently accepted by the commission as the basis of representation in this board of conciliation, and the geographical basis of representation among the operators follows the basis adopted by the miners. Had there been created as many districts as there are large coal companies, each company being assigned one district, and each company electing one delegate to the Board of Conciliation, there might still have been left some vestige of the figment that the companies were dealing with their own employees, and the recognition of the union might have been somewhat less signal.

Each of the district organizations, 1, 7, and 9, of the United Mine Workers of America corresponds exactly to "an organization representing a majority of the mine workers of such

district." Moreover, it is provided that the parties to the contest "may be represented by such person or persons as they may respectively select," which permits any aggrieved mine worker to have his case presented by the local union, by the district union, or by the national organization, if he or they so desire. The award even goes to the extent of preserving the identity of the anthracite branch of the United Mine Workers, while merging all the operators. In any contest between a mine worker, whether he be a union or a non-union man, and any one of the companies,—as, for instance, the Delaware & Hudson Company,—the matter in dispute must be ultimately referred, not to a joint committee of the union and the Delaware & Hudson Company, but to the Board of Conciliation, to which the union appoints three members, and all the companies combined appoint three. The manifest effect of this plan will be an increased attractiveness of the union to both union and non-union men, while the removal of disputes from the excited arena of the immediate contestants to the broader field of the joint board of high union officials and allied coal operators will result in obviating much friction and in securing better and fairer awards.

SUGGESTED REFORMS.

The commission, in its award and in its recommendations, has suggested a number of improvements in the methods of conducting business. As was before stated, the appointment of check weighmen and of check docking bosses is made compulsory upon the companies upon request of the men. It is provided that no increase shall be made in the size of the cars, or in the amount of the topping, without a proportional increase in the rate of remuneration. It is further provided that the companies shall "file at once with the United States Commissioner of Labor certified statements of the rates of compensation paid in each occupation as they existed April 1, 1902," the purpose of which appears to be to put a price upon the job rather than upon the man, and to prevent the evasion of the award through the expedient of discharging employees and reëngaging them at lower wages. Another reform made in the award of the commission provides for the payment of the miner's laborer directly by the company, instead of by the miner. The latter system had been adopted by the companies to save clerical expense, and to make it appear that the miner, and not the company, was the legally responsible employer of the laborer.

This is a small but a not unimportant reform. It will increase confidence and prevent occasional extortion by the miner, if the rate of division between him and his laborer is a matter of record. Its adoption will also prevent much drunkenness, as the division of wages is now made in the saloons, the publican being also the money-changer. The commission further decided against all discrimination against either union or non-union men, while it recommended the discontinuance of the system of employing coal and iron police, a stricter enforcement of the laws in relation to child labor, and the creation by the State and federal governments of commissions for the compulsory investigation of similar difficulties.

THE AWARD, AND AFTER.

It is not to be doubted that the award will be lived up to fairly and honestly by both sides. The cost of the great struggle which preceded the arbitration, and which, according to the estimate of the commission, cost the operators and miners the sum of one hundred millions of dollars, will give a sanction to the unanimous award of a commission whose findings had been agreed to in advance. The advances awarded to the miners will cost the operators roughly from eight to ten millions of dollars a year, and will represent an increased cost of about 15 cents per ton of coal, or about 25 cents per ton of prepared sizes. As the price of coal has been advanced, however, and as the prospects for the next three years are excellent, there will be little reason for the operators to complain of the effect of the award.

The great benefit that will arise from the sessions of this commission, however, will be the increased respect which the operators and miners will entertain for one another. The union will grow very much stronger, as the result of its recognition, and with increasing strength will come greater restraint and conservatism. The representatives of the operators and miners will daily meet each other in the Board of Conciliation, and it does not require a sanguine temperament to predict that before the lapse of three years the operators will be not only willing, but anxious, to meet the miners in a permanent trade agreement. If this result be attained, and if, as Mr. Mitchell believes, there will come from this arbitration "a permanent solution of the troubles which have vexed the anthracite field from time immemorial," the work of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission will not have been in vain.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

LEO XIII. AND AFTER.

A VIVID picture of Pope Leo XIII. and his daily life is given in an article in the April *Frank Leslie's* by Federico Paronelli, who also discusses the cardinals who are looked on as the chief candidates for the pontificate when the aged Leo is gone.

A RAPID RISE TO POWER.

Pope Leo's father was, strangely enough, a colonel in the army of Napoleon I. The Pope was born on March 28, 1813. He exhibited marked talent even as a boy, and in 1841, only four years after he had been made a priest, he was sent to Brussels as Papal Nuncio, a position of the greatest importance. He was elected the successor of Pius IX. in 1878. Among many interesting things that this writer tells us about the Pope, is the fact that he is a poet and man of letters. The encyclical letters are true works of Latin literature, and his discourses on the occasion of receptions and pilgrimages are excellent in literary workmanship.

THE POPE'S SIMPLE LIFE.

The Pope rises at or before 6 o'clock, and after mass, he reads during the first meal the newspapers of all sorts. These have been previously marked and red-penciled by four clerks, who designate any articles referring to the Vatican or to social questions. From 9 to 10 in the morning, the Pope receives his state secretary, Cardinal Rampolla, and takes his second breakfast, while another secretary reads his correspondence to him and takes notes on it which the Pope dictates without interrupting his meal. Between 11 A.M. and 2 P.M., when there is neither reception nor special conference, the Pope retires into his bedroom or library. At 2 o'clock, he takes his drive in the Vatican garden. His coachman, a fat, majestic, and venerable automaton, has seen more than a generation of Papal history.

THE DAILY WALK IN THE VATICAN GARDEN.

"As soon as he reaches the garden, the Pope gets down from his carriage, without leaning on the stick which he always carries without using, and he takes a fairly long walk, holding his hand behind his back, like Napoleon I. When he reaches the Torrione, he dismisses his court, leaves his valets in the rooms below, and mounts alone to the first landing to rest himself. In the evening, accompanied by his attendants, he retires to the private chapel, and with them answers

the Rosario, said by Monsignor de Angeli. Afterward, he reads and writes, usually until 10 P.M., in the green salon, and then withdraws to his bedroom; but he is rarely in bed before midnight.

"In summer, and often in winter, it is his habit to take a bath, thus driving his faithful Centra to despair, since the Pope forbids him to be in the room, in spite of the warnings of Dr. Gapponi that he should pay special attention to his master at these times, on account of his great age. 'It is useless,' said poor Centra; 'the Holy Father will not listen to reason; but, however, if not with my eyes, I can still be near him with my ears.'

A SUFFERER FROM NEURALGIA.

"The Pope's fasting is phenomenal. He suffers a great deal from neuralgia, and at such times speaks to no one, though when in good humor he enjoys talking with his entourage.

"His memory is extraordinary. He remembers the smallest and most insignificant particulars of past occurrences. When he speaks of his birthplace, it is as if he quitted it the day before. He is kind, indulgent, and willing to pardon, but he hates those who hide the truth from him, and when he is suspicious of being deceived, grows sad and very severe."

THE POSSIBLE SUCCESSORS OF LEO XIII.

The most probable candidates to the Papal succession are Cardinals Rampolla, Svampa, and Vanutelli. All are Italians, and a foreigner would scarcely be elected, as forty of the seventy-two cardinals are Italians, and their votes, as well as those of Austria and Germany, would certainly be given to an Italian.

This writer seems to think Cardinal Rampolla the most probable successor. He has been in many ways the true head of the Church during the last year, on account of the great age of the Pope. He is described in this article as tall, imposing, and majestic, with a hard expression; his appearance is haughty, and he looks those with whom he speaks straight in the face, with eyes that seem to hypnotize. "Rampolla is descended from a noble family, but while still very young he left Sicily to study in Rome at the Vatican seminary, afterward at the Capranica College, and finally at the Academy of Nobles, where he stayed until 1875. After having been a counselor of the Nunziatura in Spain, with Cardinal Simeone, he was appointed Secretary of Propaganda Fide, in 1867, when he was only

thirty-four, a position which is usually the first step toward becoming a cardinal. But before attaining that dignity, Rampolla was sent, in 1882, as Nunzio to the Court of Madrid, and there he worked hard for the settlement of the conflict which threatened to arise between Spain and Germany for the possession of the Caroline Islands.

"VIRTUAL RULER OF THE VATICAN."

"Rampolla was finally appointed a cardinal on the death of Cardinal Jacobini, and he also succeeded him as secretary of state, and since that day he has been virtual ruler of the Vatican. He rapidly conquered the heart of the aged Pontiff, and became in turn his inspirer, confidant, and finally his despotic ruler. This statement may not be considered very respectful, but it is nevertheless the truth—a truth recognized by all who have frequented the Vatican during this later time."

Cardinal Parocchi, perhaps the most important rival of Rampolla, recently died in Rome. Cardinal Rampolla is tall, imposing and majestic, and is very plain-spoken.

CARDINALS SVAMPA AND VANUTELLI.

Signor Paronelli says that Cardinal Svampa, Archbishop of Bologna, would be better welcomed by the Italian Government as Leo's successor. Svampa was born in 1851, and is one of the youngest members of the Sacred College. "Svampa has a fairly strong following, but it is composed of persons of not sufficient importance to serve him. What has just been said of him can also be applied to Cardinal Vanutelli, who has the support of the old Catholic unyielding Roman nobility; but seeing that the partisans of both would impose conditions in exchange for their votes, a weakness is produced which will be enough to prevent these two cardinals from becoming Pope."

CARDINAL RAMPOLLA.

ALONE among the twenty cardinals who habitually live in Rome, Prince Rampolla is a living force in the government of the Roman Catholic Church, and he is openly called by his enemies, as well as by his friends, "The Vice-Pope." Further, and this is perhaps more significant, among the Roman populace he is simply known as "The Cardinal." In the *Nouvelle Revue* is a striking article on this eminent prelate, whom many thoughtful observers of Papal politics regard as the next Pope.

A YOUNG CARDINAL.

Cardinal Rampolla is, from the ecclesiastical point of view, still young; that is to say, he is

on the right side of sixty, for he was born on August 27, 1843. He belongs to one of the oldest of Italian patrician families, and seems to have made up his mind to become a priest when still quite a child. A mere accident occasioned his entrance at the Vatican Seminary, where



CARDINAL RAMPOLLA.

his remarkable intelligence caused him to be early noted as one destined for preferment; he took orders at twenty-three, and shortly after, Pius IX. made him a Canon of St. Peter's. By the time Rampolla was thirty, he had entered diplomacy, and was attached to the Spanish nunciature. The Spanish Papal Nuncio was Simonei, and a short absence made by him gave Rampolla his chance, for just then Spain was being torn in two by the Carlist War, and the young Italian priest played his difficult part between the two parties with extraordinary intelligence and astuteness. This brought him to the notice of another great Papal diplomat, the present Pope, and it was through his efforts that Rampolla was made Papal Nuncio at Madrid, and together the then new Pope and Rampolla managed the difficult arbitration case concerning the Caroline Islands. Shortly after this episode, Leo XIII. sent for his young coadjutor, and he has now been the Papal Secretary of State for fifteen years.

The fact that Cardinal Rampolla has kept his great position so long is perhaps the most remarkable proof of his marvelous ability; the more so that the aged Pope,—now ninety-three years of age,—is, of course, surrounded by many

who would ardently desire to wield the immense power which has necessarily fallen into the hands of the "Vice-Pope."

RAMPOLLA'S LIFE.

Cardinal Rampolla is tall, slight, and dark, full of energy, and blessed with the charming manners and high-bred courtesy which seem to be the birthright of great Italian patricians. His suite of apartments is situated on the third floor of the Vatican, above those of the venerable Leo XIII., and both suites command a marvelous view over the Eternal City. The cardinal rises at daybreak, and after having said mass in his private chapel, he reads over his private letters, and then sends for his secretary, who submits to him the innumerable dispatches and documents which have to be shown to the Pope. Then comes breakfast, after which the cardinal takes a brief rest, followed by his daily audience with the Pope. Then follows perhaps the most fatiguing duty of the day,—that of the reception of visitors, who belong to all classes and to all countries, and who are generally received by his eminence in his study. Like an American editor, Cardinal Rampolla is the servant of all men; it is not necessary to make an appointment in order to see him, but twice a week, on Tuesdays and on Fridays, his doors are opened only to the diplomatic corps. At 1 o'clock he has his lunch.

HIS POLITICAL VIEWS.

As to the cardinal's political views, they are known to be, at any rate outwardly, of the most anti-Quirinal order. In this he is quite unlike the late Cardinal Parocchi, who was most desirous of seeing a reconciliation effected between the Vatican and the reigning house of Savoy. Cardinal Rampolla is believed to be the determined enemy of the Triple Alliance, because the latter guarantees the possession of Rome to the King of Italy. As regards social questions, the cardinal is said to be an opportunist, but on the whole he has shown himself the champion of Christian democracy.

At the present moment, his eminence is giving a great deal of thought to the higher biblical criticism, and it is by his advice that the Pope lately named a commission whose difficult duty it is to go into the whole question.

At the end of his most remarkable article, M. Raqueni gives a hint of what will probably come to pass,—namely, that Cardinal Rampolla will not be the next Pope, but the Pope after next; indeed, it is probable that Leo XIII.'s actual successor will be the humble and godly Cardinal Gotti, an aged churchman who has been a student rather than a diplomat.

THE GERMAN EMPEROR AND THE HIGHER CRITICISM.

THE publication of "Babel and Bible" by Professor Delitzsch, the leader among German Assyriologists, has occasioned an amount of comment in Germany out of all proportion to the importance of the work, which is merely a concise, popular statement of the results of recent discoveries in the ruins of Babylon. The book might have attracted little notice but for the unusual interest in the subject displayed by Emperor William, who invited Dr. Delitzsch to lecture before him and subscribed to funds raised for the further prosecution of his researches.



PROFESSOR DELITZSCH.

In his last lecture before the Emperor, Dr. Delitzsch took occasion to express his own views as to the effect of the Babylonian discoveries upon the authority of the Bible narrative. Professor Delitzsch merely stated the conclusions which many scholars have arrived at as to the Babylonian origin of what is popularly called the Mosaic cosmogony of the laws of the Jews. According to the literal interpretation in the Pentateuch, these laws were directly delivered to the Jews on Mount Sinai. The discovery of ancient libraries in the ruins of Babylon brought to light the fact that hundreds of years before the law was delivered to Moses on Mount Sinai, similar laws had been reduced to writing on the tablets which are now being unearthed from the buried libraries of Babylon. (A translation of the lecture appeared in the *New York Sun* of

March 8.) The fact that the Emperor listened to such a statement of the relation between Babylon and the Bible created considerable ferment among the orthodox in Germany. To allay this excitement, and to guide his people in the paths of truth, the Emperor wrote and caused to be published the following remarkable manifesto, in which he solemnly reproves Professor Delitzsch and lays down his own loyal and imperial theory of the manner of divine revelation.

The form of the Emperor's manifesto was a letter addressed to Admiral Hollmann on February 15. It appeared in the *Greuzboten*.

We omit the opening passages, in which the Emperor explains how he came to listen to Delitzsch's discourse, how he regretted that Delitzsch, abandoning the note of mere historian and Assyriologist, had indulged in hypotheses very nebulous or daring. The theologian Delitzsch, he says, ran away with the historian, and led him, among other things, to deny the divinity of Christ, a matter in which his standpoint is diametrically opposed to that of the Kaiser, who thinks it a grave mistake to trace revelation to purely human elements. The Emperor then sums up his view of the higher criticism, whose conclusions he evidently thinks should be kept from the common people.

SPARE THE PAGODAS OF TERMINOLOGY.

"What Dr. Delitzsch did was to upset many a cherished conception, or even mental picture (*Gebilde*), with which these people link ideas that are sacred and dear to them; he indubitably shook, if he did not remove, the foundations of their belief. That is an achievement which only a mighty genius should venture to attempt, but for which the mere study of Assyriology is not enough to qualify any one. Goethe has dealt with this subject in a passage where he expressly points out that people when they are dealing with a large and general public ought to be careful not to demolish even 'pagodas of terminology.' The excellent professor, in his zeal, rather forgot the principle that it is really very important to make a careful distinction between what is appropriate to the place, the public, etc., and what is not. As a theologian by profession, he can state, in the form of theological treatises, theses, hypotheses, and theories, as well as convictions, which it would not be proper to advance in a popular lecture or book."

REVELATION OF TWO KINDS.—NO. 1, SECULAR.

Proceeding to discuss the doctrine of the revelation of Gooldman, the Kaiser says:

"I distinguish between two different kinds of revelation,—one continuous and to some extent

historical, and one purely religious, a preparation for the later appearance of the Messiah.

"With regard to the first kind of revelation, I have to say that there is to my mind not the slightest doubt that God constantly and continually reveals himself in the human race, which is his own, and which he has created. He has 'breathed his breath' into man; that is to say, he has given man a part of himself—a soul. He follows with fatherly love and interest the development of the human race; in order to lead it and to advance it further, he 'reveals' himself, now in this, now in that, great sage, whether it be priest or king, whether it be among heathens, Jews, or Christians. Hammurabi was one of these, and so were Moses, Abraham, Homer, Charlemagne, Luther, Shakespeare, Goethe, Kant, the Emperor William the Great. These he has sought out, and of his grace judged them worthy to perform in accordance with his will glorious and imperishable achievements for their peoples, both in the spiritual and in the physical sphere. How many a time did my grandfather expressly and emphatically maintain that he was only an instrument in the hand of the Lord! The works of great spirits have been bestowed by God upon the peoples in order that they may model their development upon them and may continue to feel their way through the confused labyrinth and the unexplored pathways of their earthly lot. God has certainly 'revealed' himself to divers persons in divers ways corresponding to the position of a nation and the standard of civilization it has attained, and he still does so in our day. For just as we are most overwhelmed by the grandeur and might of the glorious character of the creation when we contemplate it, and, as we contemplate, marvel at the greatness of God which it reveals, as surely may we recognize with gratitude and admiration, in everything really great and glorious which an individual or a nation does, the glory of the revelation of God. He thus acts directly upon us and among us.

NO. 2.—RELIGIONS, CULMINATING IN CHRIST.

"The second kind of revelation, the more strictly religious, is that which leads up to the appearance of our Lord. From Abraham onward, it is introduced slowly, but with prescient vision, infinite wisdom, and infinite knowledge, or else mankind would have been lost. And now begins that most marvelous operation, the revelation of God. The seed of Abraham and the nation developed therefrom regarded with iron consistency the belief in one God as their holiest possession. They were obliged to cherish and foster it. They were disintegrated dur-

ing the captivity in Egypt, Moses welded together the separate fragments for the second time, and they always persisted in their endeavor to preserve their 'monotheism.' It is the direct intervention of God which makes it possible for this people to emerge once more. And so the process continues through the centuries until the Messiah, foretold and announced by prophets and psalmists, at last appears. This was the greatest revelation of God in the world. For he appeared in the Son himself; Christ is God; God in human form. He delivered us; he inspires us; he attracts us to follow him; we feel his fire burn in us, his compassion strengthen us, his displeasure destroy us; though, at the same time, we feel that his intercession rescues us. Assured of victory, relying on his word alone, we endure labor, scorn, wretchedness, distress, and death; for we have in him the revealed word of God, and God never lies.

THE OLD TESTAMENT AND ITS DEFECTS.

"That is my view upon this question. For us Evangelicals in particular, the word has through Luther become our all, and as a good theologian Delitzsch ought not to forget that our great Luther has taught us to sing and to believe, 'the word they must allow to stand!' It is to me self-evident that the Old Testament contains a number of passages which are of the nature of purely human history and are not 'God's revealed word.' There are purely historical descriptions of events of every kind which are accomplished in the political, religious, moral, and spiritual life of the people of Israel. For example, the act of the giving of the law on Mount Sinai can only symbolically be regarded as inspired by God, inasmuch as Moses was obliged to resort to the revival of laws which perhaps had long been known (possibly they originated in the codex of Hammurabi) in order to draw and bind together the structure of his people, which in its composition was loose and hardly capable of offering any resistance to outside pressure. The historian may be able, by aid of the sense or the words of the text, to establish at this point a connection with the laws of Hammurabi, the friend of Abraham, and the link would perhaps be logically correct; but this would never invalidate the fact that God prompted Moses and to this extent revealed himself to the people of Israel.

THE KAISER'S CREDO.

"The conclusion which I draw from the whole matter is as follows:

"(a) I believe in one God, who is one in substance. (*Ich glaube an einen, einigen Gott.*)

"(b) In order to set God forth, we men require a form, especially for our children.

"(c) This form has hitherto been the Old Testament as at present handed down to us. This form will certainly undergo considerable alterations under the influence of research and of inscriptions. That does not matter, and another thing which does not matter is that much of the nimbus of the chosen people will disappear. The kernel and the contents will always remain the same,—God and his dealings.

"Religion was never a product of science; it is an effluence of the heart and being of man arising from his relations with God.

"With cordial thanks and kindest regards, always your faithful friend, WILLIAM I. R."

Professor Harnack's Criticism.

As might have been expected, this remarkable declaration of faith met with considerable criticism in Germany, and Dr. Harnack felt called upon to deliver himself of an article in the March number of the *Preussischer Jahrbücher*, from which the following are the salient passages:

Dr. Harnack remarks that "the Babylonian origin of many of the 'myths and legends of the Old Testament' has long been recognized, and that in the general opinion of scholars 'this fact has been recognized as fatal to the popular conception of the inspiration of the Old Testament.'"

It is, however, going much too far to say that on this account the Old Testament has now become worthless. The traditional forms in which the Old Testament has been authoritatively handed down to us are urgently in need of alteration.

THE UNITY OF REVELATION.

Professor Harnack expresses his agreement with the Emperor when he asserts that the revelations of God to mankind are persons, and, above all, great men, whose individuality and power constitute their secret, but he cumbrous his theory of the revelations. He says:

"There can be no question of two (separate) revelations, for surely religion, moral power, and intellectual knowledge are most closely connected. There is, on the contrary, only one revelation, the instruments of which doubtless differed from each other and continue to differ altogether in respect of their character and their greatness, their calling and their mission. If Jesus Christ loses nothing of his peculiar character and his unique position when he is placed in the line of Moses, Isaiah, and the Psalmists, he likewise suffers no loss when we regard him in the line of Socrates, of Plato, and of those

others who are mentioned in the Emperor's letter. The religious contemplation of history can only, in fine, attain unity when it delivers and raises to the position of children of God mankind, whom God leads forth out of the state of nature and emancipates from error and from sin. This is without prejudice to the view that the history of God in Israel represents the specific line in ancient times.

THE DISTINCTION OR THE DIVINITY OF CHRIST ?

"The Christian community must reject every estimate of Christ which obliterates the distinction between him and the other masters. He himself, his disciples, and the history of the world have spoken in such clear terms on this point that there ought to be no room for doubt ; and in his word he still speaks to us as clearly as in the days of old he spoke to his disciples. Yet the question may and must be raised whether the rigid formula, the divinity of Christ, is the right one. He himself did not employ it ; he selected other designations ; and whether it was ever adopted by any of his disciples is, to say the least, very doubtful. Nay, the early Church itself did not speak of the divinity of Christ without qualification ; it always spoke of his 'divinity and humanity.' 'Godmanhood' is, therefore, the only correct formula, even in the sense of the ancient dogma. This formula implies the almost complete restoration of the 'mystery' which, in accordance with the will of Christ himself, was meant to be preserved in this question. Of the truth that he is the Lord and the Saviour, he made no secret ; and that he is so was to be experienced and realized by his disciples in his word and his works. But how his relationship to his Father arose, this he kept to himself and has hidden it from us.

A VISION OF REUNITED CHRISTENDOM.

"According to my reading of history and my own feeling, even the formula 'man and God' (Godmanhood) is not absolutely unexceptionable, for even this formula trespasses upon a mystery into which we are not allowed to look. Nevertheless, this formula may well remain, since it really does not profess to explain anything, but only protects what is extraordinary from profanation. The Pauline phrase, 'God was in Christ,' appears to me to be the last word which we can utter on this subject after having slowly and painfully emancipated ourselves from the delusion of ancient philosophers that we could penetrate the mysteries of God and nature, of humanity and history.

"If ye love Me, keep My commandments ; ' thereby shall every one know that ye are My

disciples if ye love one another ; ' it is more important to meditate on these words and to live in accordance with them than to put into formulæ what is incomprehensible and venerable. And moreover, the time will come and is already approaching when Evangelical Christians will join hands in all sincerity in confessing Jesus Christ as their Lord, and in the determination to follow his words ; and our Catholic brethren will then have to do likewise. The burden of a long history, full of misunderstandings and replete with formulæ which are as rigid as swords, the burden of tears and of blood, weighs upon us ; yet in that burden there is vouchsafed us a sacred inheritance. The burden and the inheritance seem to be inextricably linked together, but they are gradually being severed, although the final 'let there be' (*sic*) has not yet been uttered over this chaos. Straightforwardness and courage, sincerity toward one's self, freedom and love,—these are the levers which will remove the burden. In the service of this exalted mission the Emperor's letter is also enlisted."

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF THE GERMAN EMPEROR.

OF the anti-German literature constantly appearing in the English reviews, no small part is aimed at the Kaiser himself. The spirit of many of these articles is well represented in a paper contributed by "Scrutator" to the March number of the *National Review*, entitled "The Kaisers" (note the plural form).

"Scrutator" regards the Kaiser as a psychological study, and sees the explanation of his vagaries in his "multiplex personality," the symptom of which is that the individual affected pursues contrasted courses at one and the same time. There is something protean and extraordinary in the Kaiser's temperament, and just as he is—in external dress—private individual, hussar, British admiral, the wearer of a dozen uniforms all on the same day, so he is mentally the friend and enemy of everything at the same time.

THE PRO-ANTI-BRITISH KAISER.

The Kaiser, "Scrutator" points out, has always been pro-British and anti-British. The anti-British Kaiser sent the Krüger telegram, and when the war broke out, hinted at Hamburg that if the German fleet had been ready there would have been intervention. The pro-British Kaiser abandoned the Boers, and sent money to the Indian Famine Fund, with the remark that "blood was thicker than water." The anti-American Kaiser dreads the nightmare strength

of the United States; he risks a rupture at Manila; the pro-American Kaiser sends his brother, Prince Henry, to flatter and coax the American people. In his relations with France and Holland, there has been a pro- and an anti-Kaiser.

"But the pro-British, the anti-British, the pro-American, the anti-American, the pro-Russian, the anti-Russian, the pro-French, and the anti-French Kaisers do not exhaust the catalogue. There is the Christian Kaiser who declared that 'the foundations of the empire are laid in the fear of God;' that 'whosoever does not base his life upon faith is lost;' that 'only good Christians can be good soldiers;' who preaches sermons on board the imperial yacht; who has conferred upon the Almighty the distinction of being the special ally of Germany, in words which certainly astonished the reverent world, and who has graciously beatified the old Kaiser Wilhelm and Frederick the Great. Side by side with this Kaiser stands the ruler who directed his troops, when embarking for China, to give no quarter—to kill all they met. And the people who obeyed this behest, whose army's line of march was marked by a trail of burned villages, outraged women, and murdered children, found fault with British humanity in South Africa!

MANY OTHER VARIETIES OF KAISER.

"Time and space fail us to exhibit side by side the Socialist Kaiser and the Kaiser who punishes strikes with penal servitude, instructing his soldiers that they must be ready to fire on their own kinsmen at his behest; the poet Kaiser, author of the quaint ode to Aegir; the dramatist Kaiser, the terrible volubility of whose letters and telegrams drove his collaborator, Signor Leoncavallo, into the mountains of Italy, where he might at least have rest from these messages; the theater-critic Kaiser; the artist Kaiser, who draws everything, from pictures of the armed Michael to diagrams of battleships; who produces a perfect shower of memorial cards, postcards, paintings; who dictates the rules of their profession to German artists; who is, in a word, omniscient and omnipotent, but whose works must not be criticised under penalty of *lèse majesté*; the crusader Kaiser, who made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, and, while speaking in that thrice holy spot of his devotion to the service of the Redeemer's cause, at the same time complimented the Sultan, though that potentate's hands were then red with the blood of the Armenians, and avowed friendship with him; the absolutist Kaiser, who has written *Sic volo, sic jubeo, regis suprema voluntas*, and who has said, 'There is one law only, and that is my will;'

the soldier Kaiser, who turns out garrisons, rehearses maneuvers, and commands the most formidable army the world has ever seen; the sailor Kaiser, who knows every detail of his fleet and who is persistently pressing for its increase, who dismisses admirals, captains, and lieutenants where they fall below the standard which he sets, and who orders Venezuelan bombardments *pour embêter les États Unis*.

"But the real puzzle has yet to be solved. Which of all these twenty-odd Kaisers is the real one? That, perhaps, the history of the next few years may reveal."

THE MACEDONIAN ATROCITIES.

LAST month, we quoted at some length from Mr. Charles Johnston's article on Macedonia. In the *Contemporary Review* for March, Dr. E. J. Dillon writes of the Macedonian atrocities and the futility of Turkish reforms. He describes scenes which, as he truly says, come to us "like deadly visions from out the plague-polluted mist of hell."

He ridicules the idea that the Sultan will execute any of the reforms recommended in the Austro-Russian note.

"All these reforms—with the exception of the administration of the provinces by the Ottoman Bank—have over and over again been decided upon and announced by the Sultan, but they have always remained on paper."

The Turk, while promising to carry out the reforms, is preparing to fight.

"The best Turkish generals have been appointed to the chief strategic positions in the country; Ali Riza Pasha—who served for several years in the Prussian army and will probably be commander-in-chief in the future war—is at the head of the province of Monastir, and Mehmed Hafiz in Uskub."

WHAT IS GOING ON IN MACEDONIA TO-DAY.

Dr. Dillon quotes from the reports of Mme. Bakhmetieff, the American wife of the Russian consul at Sofia, and from the official report of M. Westman, Russian vice-consul at Philippopolis, details of atrocities enough to make the blood run cold. He says that one-third of the male population of one of the best-behaved districts in Macedonia have been compelled to flee the country.

"The Russian vice-consul at Philippopolis, M. Westman, crossed over into Macedonia in order to verify the incredible statements of many of the fugitives, and the startling results of his investigations were sent to the foreign office in St. Petersburg. Among other interesting facts, he

there informs his government that a belt of territory thirty versts broad, running parallel to the frontier, typifies the abomination of desolation; the churches having been defiled and the villages partly burned to the ground, while the inhabitants have fled no one knows whither.

"M. Westman declares that he saw women who had run away to save their honor and their lives and were huddled together in mountain fastnesses where the snow lay several feet deep, and the wretched creatures were in an almost naked state. Some of them, he adds, had trudged along on foot, floundering in the snow for twenty consecutive days with no shred of clothing but their chemises. Forty of the women who reached Dubnicza and were cared for by Mme. Bakhmetieff, were about to become mothers. Most of these misery-stricken women and men were almost naked, wasted to skeletons, with dull, sunken eyes and pinched cheeks. Several were mutilated or disfigured, and the livid welts, the open wounds, the horrible marks of the red-hot pincers with which they had been tortured, were witnessed by all.

HOW THE TURKS TORTURE WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

"One of the women in Dubnicza, who seemed more dead than alive, was asked by the kind-hearted lady why she looked so utterly crushed in spirit, now that the danger had passed and life, at any rate, was safe. Amid tears and sighs and convulsive quiverings of the body, the poor creature told the sickening story of how her brother had had his head cut off before her eyes, after which she had to stand by while the ruffians chopped up his body into fragments. Several witnessed the agony of their tender daughters—children of from ten to thirteen—and heard their piercing cries as the men who wore the Sultan's coat subjected them to nameless violence. Numbers of children succumbed to these diabolical assaults, their last looks being turned on their helpless parents or their smoking homes. In one place, two children—one aged eighteen months, the other four years—had their skulls split open by the soldiers. Other little girls and boys were deliberately and methodically tortured to death, while a place was assigned to their fathers and mothers where they were forced to listen to the agonizing screams and watch the contractions of the tender bodies each time that the once pretty faces were slowly lowered into the fire, into which Turkish pepper had been plentifully scattered. This is in truth a form of torture which only a devil could have invented, for long before death releases the tiny mite, the eyes are said to start from their sockets and burst.

THE EVIDENCE OF AN AMERICAN LADY.

"We have the authority of Mme. Bakhmetieff—who traveled about in the deep snow with the thermometer at 22 Celsius below freezing point, to bring succor to the fugitives—for saying that two priests of the villages of Oranoff and Padesh were tortured in a manner which suggests the story of St. Lawrence's death. They were not exactly laid on gridirons, but they were hung over a fire and burned with red-hot irons. In the village of Batshoff, thirty-two peasants were beaten almost to death in the presence of the district chief (Kaimakam) of Mehomia."

The Revolutionary Movement.

In the *Nineteenth Century*, Mr. G. F. Abbott writes on Macedonia and the revolutionary committees. His article is chiefly valuable because it contains a translation of the rules and regulations which govern these revolutionary bands. Mr. Abbott makes the most, or the worst, of the case against the Macedonians. He says:

"Macedonians as a distinct and homogeneous ethnic group do not exist. What actually exist are a Greek population in the south of the province, a Slavonic population in the north, a mixed and debatable congeries of nationalities and dialects in the middle, a few Wallachs here and there, and Mohammedans sprinkled everywhere. The whole thing strikes the traveler as an ethnological experiment conceived by demons and carried out by maniacs—not devoid of a mad sort of humor. Add that the Slavs themselves do not always know whether they are Servians or Bulgarians, and, if the latter, whether they are Schismatic or Orthodox, or, if Schismatic, whether they wish to see the country independent or part of the Bulgarian Principality, and you have a fairly accurate picture of a state of things presented by no other part of the globe of equal dimensions."

A PLAN TO PROVOKE A MASSACRE.

It is, perhaps, not to be wondered at that the revolutionary organization should be subject to splits and schisms.

"At the annual congress, held last August, the adherents of Sarafoff refused to recognize MM. Michailovski and Zontcheff as heads of the committee, and on being excluded from the sittings, proceeded to form a committee of their own."

But although they differ on the question of annexation *versus* independence, they agree as to their *modus operandi*.

"Zontcheff and Sarafoff and their respective

adherents, however, believe that they can induce Europe to intervene by provoking a massacre, and it is not at all impossible that their calculations may prove correct. The Porte is incapable of sustained and vigorous action."

The committees raised their funds by blackmail enforced by murder, and he asserts that it was they who kidnapped the American missionary, Miss Stone.

"The Central Committee not long since issued postage stamps with the figure of Macedonia as a woman in chains and the legend 'Supreme Macedonia Adrianopolis Committee.' These stamps were purchased by patriots and used in addition to the ordinary stamps, the proceeds of the sale going to feed the insurrectionary movement."

What Is Needed.

The *National Review* for March contains a well-written article, signed "Diabantos," on the subject of Macedonian reform. The writer maintains that the following are the fundamental requirements of the situation :

"Protection of the Christian against the Moslem, without giving the Christian majority of two to one the means of thereby obtaining the ascendancy ; protection of the peasantry of all races and religions against the officials, without thereby unduly weakening the executive or reducing the revenues ; protection of the provincial administration against the central government, without injuring the prestige or power of the empire."

"Diabantos" quotes Sir H. D. Wolff to the effect that the only hope of Turkey lies in decentralization ; and he points out that the Padi-shah was never so powerful as when he was the head of a feudal state. The railroad and telegraph, which put an end to the relative independence of the provinces, put an end also to their comparative prosperity. The writer urges that the present administrative division of Macedonia into three vilayets, or provinces, should be retained, as it breaks up the Bulgar majority of the population and balances the sections against the three rival races—Serbs in Kossovo, Greeks in Monastir, and Turks in Salonika. He says that the governors of these vilayets should be subordinated to a governor-general whose appointment would be for a fixed term and should be approved by a majority of the powers.

"To sum up in a few words : Reform must be reduced to its lowest expression, to the least common multiple of the three factors—protection of the Christians, the peasantry, and the provinces—and this desideratum is to be found in the Lebanon *règlement* of 1864."

THE FIRST CRADLE OF GREEK CIVILIZATION.

IT is a striking sidelight on the near Eastern question, now at the acute phase once more, that the liberation of Crete from Ottoman misrule led directly to the discovery of an early and hitherto undreamed of civilization. This fact appears in a paper by Mr. D. G. Hogarth in *Cornhill* on the Cretan Exhibition at Burlington House, London. Minoan Knossos was the center of the most significant of the Hellenic myths and traditions of power, and Schliemann had endeavored to institute explorations there ; but the Ottoman governors and the Moslem owners of the site interposed difficulties. After Prince George and freedom came, Mr. Arthur Evans, keeper of the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, had no difficulty in buying out the Moslem owners, and in March, 1900, he put in the first spade. The result of three seasons' work has shown this hillock "to contain by far the most varied and extraordinary evidence of a dead civilization that perhaps has ever been brought to light at one spot in any part of the world."

"Not only could the Knossian builders pile story upon story of massive stonework, connected by broad and easy internal stairways, rising flight over flight, for the first time in the history of architecture, but they could drain and sanitize their constructions better than our own medieval builders.

"There are many indications here of a peaceful prosperity and a sumptuousness of civilization for which one was little prepared in wild Crete in the middle of the second millennium before the Christian era. It is most significant, that this great Palace building, with all its wealth in kind suggested by the presence of hundreds of oil and wine jars as high as a man, and with all its wealth in precious material—gold, silver, ivory, crystal—whose existence actual remains, paintings, and the many sunken treasure-chests abundantly prove, should have been wholly unfortified. Its great portals, north and south, open straight on to the surrounding country ; and the town, clustering round, seems to have had no wall."

The Cretan king, it is inferred, had command, not only of his own island, but of the South *Ægean*. Hence the luxurious peace enjoyed at Knossos, which neither Memphis, Thebes, nor Babylon could ever enjoy.

"Thanks to natural advantages of isolated position and fertility, Crete seems to have taken the lead of all its neighboring lands in the third millennium B.C., and to have kept it till the cataclysm which everywhere overwhelmed *Ægean* civilization about the beginning of the first.

"The acme of Knossian culture seems to fall

contemporaneously with the Eighteenth Pharaonic Dynasty,—that is, in the sixteenth century, just before that epoch to which the Mycenaean treasure seems chiefly to belong.

"To the art of this Minoan age proper, stimulated by political greatness, and encouraged by profound peace, belongs the great bulk of the wall paintings, the ceiling designs, the friezes, the sculpture in stone and ivory, the gem designs, and the ceramic handiwork illustrated in the exhibition room."

An enormous number of clay tablets have been found at Knossos, inscribed in yet undeciphered characters. The glory of this *Ægean* chapter in the history of the civilization extended from 2000 to 1000 B.C., when it was stamped out by the invader.

"A movement of semi-barbarous peoples from East Europe and West Asia, which has left its mark on Greek tradition as the 'Dorian Invasion,' evidently swept over the civilized lands, invigorating the stock, but eclipsing a while the culture. But the old artistic race lived on, amalgamating itself with the new-comers and modifying its conquerors; and after general peace was established once more, idealism revived in the joint issue of the older and newer peoples. The sudden appearance of high art in Hellas in the seventh century was, therefore, a Renaissance rather than a miracle of spontaneous generation; and something of the spirit and tradition of Knossian culture inspired the Ionian art of the sixth century and the Attic of the fifth, and contributed to make that Hellenism to which we of western Europe are the actual heirs."

VENEZUELA: UNDER WHICH EAGLE?

IN England, the opinion is beginning to prevail that Germany's ultimate policy in South America is to challenge the Monroe Doctrine. That is the view set forth in the *Monthly Review* for March by Mr. W. B. Duffield. He says that American statesmen are perfectly well aware of this; hence the folly of British coöperation. Germany has infinitely more to gain by annihilating the Monroe Doctrine than by attempting to seize any of England's possessions.

"As has been well pointed out by Captain Mahan, Germany's geographical position forces her to conquer us or be friends with us. The latter is clearly the less expensive course. Her international manners, like those of the United States before the era of Mr. Hay, are, it is true, deplorable. She has attempted to frighten us, just as the United States did with Canada in 1891, and with the same result. Even if she overcame all the difficulties involved in a war

with us and appropriated some of our colonies, they are already occupied and exploited by a patriotic and hard-working population. Can the profit be compared for a moment with that to be reaped from a successful attack on the Monroe Doctrine, which would in no way upset the European balance of power, and would not expose German commerce to the same risks as would arise from war with a great maritime power at her own doors? This theory fits in entirely with the Kaiser's reiterated statements, and it has the merit of possessing, not only solid business reasons, but also very plausible grounds in theoretical justice."

Germany wants real and profitable colonies. Mr. Duffield points out that the subsidy given to every German colony, save one, exceeds the annual revenue.

GERMAN COLONIAL ESTIMATES FOR 1902.

	Revenue.	Subsidy.	Total Expenditure.
East Africa.....	£159,815	£280,760	£480,075
Cameroons.....	101,575	110,255	211,830
Southwest Africa.....	91,200	381,745	472,945
Togoland.....	81,750	50,750	84,500
New Guinea.....	5,000	36,100	41,100
Carolines, etc.....	1,655	15,253	16,905
Samoa.....	12,550	8,530	22,070
Kiao-Chau.....	18,000	608,400	626,400

And Venezuela is just such a promising but unoccupied country as the Kaiser wants.

"To show the extraordinary fertility of many Venezuelan territories, our consul points out that a plot in the vicinity of his own house has produced six crops of maize in one year! Fruit farming would prove enormously productive, and coffee and cocoa, especially the latter, are largely grown; in fact, the latter is now the principal product of the country, which could grow anything. Cotton, indigo, rice, barley, and india-rubber have been produced with success. The water-supply is ample, the climate is not unhealthy, and in most parts fit for Europeans. The mineral wealth is almost untouched,—'iron, gold, coal, petroleum, silver, copper, lead, are found in every direction.' Eye-witnesses have related to the writer the shipping of huge ingots of gold on the Orinoco steamers in the best days of the great mine of El Callao; but now, mining, like every other industry in this unhappy land, is almost impossible, owing to insecurity of tenure. Under a rapid succession of governments, the leader in to-day's fortunate revolution refuses to recognize the title given by his predecessor, or constant pillage and oppression forbid Europeans to embark capital at such risks. We are told by our consuls

that there is nothing that can strictly be called an industry in Venezuela, yet she could 'grow her own grain, make her own flour, grow her own tobacco and cotton, make her own cloth and her own wine, burn her own kerosene, make her own leather, and have, besides all this, a surplus for export.' "

THE AMERICAN CAPTURE OF THE TRADE OF THE ORIENT.

NOW that the success of the United States in securing the trade of the far East is generally acknowledged, there is some discussion, both at home and abroad, as to how this result has been accomplished. Mr. Harrington Emerson contributes an article to the March *Engineering Magazine* in which he says:

"A few years ago, steamers no longer fit for the Atlantic or Indian service were sent to the Pacific, as being quite good enough for all requirements. With the exception of the *Empresses*, built for the Canadian Pacific Railroad, there was not, until the Spanish-American War, a first-class steamer on the American Pacific. Now, the largest steamers ever constructed in American waters, and, with one exception,—the *Cedric*,—the largest steamers ever built, have been ordered for the Pacific Ocean trade."

NEW YORK TO SAN FRANCISCO VIA SUEZ.

What has brought about this change? asks Mr. Emerson, and answers his question as follows:

"Exports to the Orient must come from the Eastern and Southern States,—railroad iron and other equipment, mining machinery, tobacco, and cotton,—and for these goods the usual railroad rate across the continent is prohibitive, as it costs almost twice as much to send boxed goods from New York to San Francisco as from New York to London, and thence by steamer direct to Puget Sound *via* the Suez Canal, the Straits, Hongkong, and Yokohama. . . . Before there could be any hope of a large increase in Pacific coast exports and imports, the whole railroad situation had to be changed, and this is what has happened."

The first railroads pushed to the Pacific were built to enrich the promoters rather than to make money out of the operation. It was not until Mr. James J. Hill made and developed the Great Northern Railroad that different methods were introduced. He built, not for the sake of bonds or subsidies, but for the immediate and prospective traffic. He made his terminus at Seattle, on Puget Sound, by far the best harbor on the Pacific coast. He formed an alliance

with the great Japanese line—the Nippon Yusen Kaisha—a line in ocean tonnage ranking among the foremost in the world, and began to divert a part of the tea and silk trade from the Canadian Pacific and the "Empress Line" to his own railroad.

A GREAT COMBINE.

At first he had to regard the other transcontinental lines as rivals, but "with dramatic unexpectedness the Northern Securities Company was formed, identifying these three roads (the Northern Pacific, the Great Northern, and the Burlington) with the deliberate intention of diverting the cotton exports of the United States to Asia by way of Atlantic and European ports to the ports of Puget Sound. The temporary and apparent rivalry between the combination of the Northern and of the Southern roads was but an episode. It is not a question as to whether Puget Sound ports shall not be favored in transcontinental rates compared to San Francisco, or whether the Great Northern shall carry fruit from southern California to Chicago, but whether the unlimited trade of eastern Asia shall pass to Europe by Pacific American steamers and American railroads or continue to go by way of the Suez Canal."

THE NEW STEAMERS.

Mr. Hill then proceeded to build the largest ships in the world. Mr. Emerson says:

"By building the largest ships in the world, even though they run under the more expensive American register, by filling the west-bound cars at a rate little more than the cost of handling, Mr. Hill knows that he can turn the export trade with western Asia from its three-hundred-year-old way past India to the direct Pacific sea route past Alaska. Before these new ships were ordered, experts were sent to Scotland, Ireland, and Germany to absorb all that could be learned of modern mammoth shipbuilding; and to escape from all hampering traditions of the past, an entirely new company, the Eastern Shipbuilding Company, was formed to construct them, and took the contract before even the site was purchased on which the new yards were to be established."

These steamers are 630 feet long, 73 feet wide, with a displacement of 37,000 tons. Each steamer can carry 1,200 troops, and the cargo capacity exceeds 20,000 tons. Some of the hatches are large enough to admit a complete locomotive. Horse-power of 11,000 will maintain a speed of 14 knots. To accommodate these vessels, enormous docks and warehouses have been built at Seattle and Tacoma.

TO CAPTURE THE AUSTRALASIAN TRADE.

There is little doubt that the whole of the trade between the Eastern States and the Orient will now go by these new lines of steamers running in connection with the great transcontinental railways, instead of going, as now, *via* Europe and Suez. Nor is this all.

"The Northern railroads have quoted a rate of \$8 a ton for the transport of government supplies from Chicago to the Philippine Islands. Return rates have been quoted on wool from Australia and New Zealand which make it probable that the imports from British Australasia to Boston, New York, and Philadelphia will come by the Pacific overland route instead of through Suez."

CANADA VERSUS UNITED STATES.

The Canadian railroads, however, will offer serious rivalry.

"From an American point of view, there is one shadow in this bright light of future American supremacy on the Pacific, and that is the rivalry of the Canadian roads to the north. One of these, already in full operation—the Canadian Pacific—runs from ocean to ocean. The other, the Grand Trunk, is now building to Port Simpson, the most northern seaport in British Columbia. Both these roads command rich wheat belts; both of them tap exceedingly rich and very good coal fields; both of them as they approach the Pacific coast pass through timber lands of the same general character as the heavy forests of Washington and Oregon. The Grand Trunk will have six advantages over all its American competitors. It will stretch from Atlantic to Pacific under one management, and can make its own through rates, while none of the American roads extend further than Chicago, and it will further control ocean-steamer connections at both ends; it will be the latest-built road, with the latest and most consistent equipment; its Pacific terminus, Port Simpson, a magnificent harbor on the Alaskan border, is nearer by five hundred miles to Asia than is Puget Sound or Vancouver, yet the road itself is as short as any other transcontinental line; it escapes entirely the climb and heavy grades over the Rocky Mountains, which do not extend as far north as its line; its wheat belt extends from Manitoba unbrokenly to a region that is west of Vancouver, a gain in local agricultural lands of nearly one thousand miles over the American lines; and it will, by the location of its terminus, monopolize the whole of the enormous and rapidly growing Alaskan traffic."

Mr. Emerson concludes his valuable article as follows:

"The heavy capitalization and the merger of the Northern roads will in the end prove advantageous, not only to them, but in far greater degree to all the people of the United States, as it will necessitate the development of every local resource, and also bring about a diversion of the world's Oriental trade from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from European to American control, and thus quicken into being a thousand industries not yet conceived."

THE MAN WHO WON THE NORTHERN PACIFIC FIGHT.

THE man who could best wear the mantle of Mr. J. P. Morgan, if that financier should leave Wall Street, is Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, according to Robert N. Burnett, who contributes a sketch of the banker to the April *Cosmopolitan*, in its "Captains of Industry" series.



MR. JACOB H. SCHIFF.

Mr. Schiff it was, so Mr. Burnett tells us, that really won from J. Pierpont Morgan and James J. Hill the famous fight for the control of the Northern Pacific. While Mr. Harriman appeared more prominently on this occasion, "Mr. Schiff was the power behind the throne." Furthermore, Mr. Schiff can not only fight and win, but can compromise. He voluntarily suggested that Mr. Morgan be empowered to name the new board of directors of the Northern Pacific, which should represent both sides and agree to

unite on a plan for the joint control of the road. Then he further showed his generosity by allowing the unfortunates who had been "short" of Northern Pacific to cover their contracts at the nominal price of one hundred and fifty dollars per share, when he might have compelled payment of two or three times that amount.

Mr. Schiff's ability as a financier was first brought before the public several years ago by the reorganization of the Union Pacific Railway and the settlement of the debt to the Government. Later on, he took a hand in the purchase of the Chicago & Alton, and also in the acquisition of the Southern Pacific. The firm of which he is the head, Kuhn, Loeb & Co., is frequently employed by such great concerns as the Pennsylvania and Baltimore & Ohio railroads to conduct their largest financial operations.

One of the most recent feats of financiering which placed Mr. Schiff among the mighty men of Wall Street was the purchase of a majority of the stock of the Reading Railroad in the interests of the Baltimore & Ohio and Lake Shore railroads. When such transactions as this are to be carried out, there is room to save or lose millions of dollars, and by his wonderful diplomacy, Mr. Schiff saved these millions.

He is a very wealthy man, with a fortune estimated at from \$75,000,000 to \$100,000,000, most of it made within twenty years—perhaps in a dozen.

He is perhaps the leading Hebrew of New York, and there are many monuments to his great generosity, such as the Montefiore Home, the Jewish Theological Seminary, the Semitic Museum at Harvard University, and the Nurses' Settlement on the New York East Side. He is a trustee of the Baron de Hirsch Fund, and has been treasurer of Barnard College. Mr. Schiff was born in Germany, and spent the larger part of his business career in Frankfort, until he came to this country, over thirty years ago.

THE DAY'S WORK OF A RAILROAD PRESIDENT.

THE daily grind of a railroad president's job, and the dangers from cranks and pass-seekers that constantly beset him, make the subject of Mr. F. N. Barksdale's article in the April *World's Work*. The railroad president is apt to get to his office at 9 o'clock in the morning and to leave at 4 in the afternoon. But if it is necessary for him to stay until 12 o'clock at night in some conference of great importance, there are no union rules to prohibit it, and he does so. The first hour is taken in clearing the desk of the morning's mail that has sifted

through the secretaries, a very small part of that addressed personally to the president; then he has handed him a collection of cardboard sheets with clippings from the morning newspapers pasted upon them, to give him a bird's-eye view of the commercial, financial, industrial, and railroad news of the preceding day. With these news items are also the editorial comments of the principal newspapers.

"Now the real work of the day begins. This includes the consideration of an endless array of legal, engineering, financial, traffic, and transportation questions. The adoption of plans for some extensive improvements in terminal facilities follows closely the determination of a question of general policy. The development of traffic by the extension of the main line and branches, questions affecting the relations with connecting lines, and matters relating to every phase of the vast field of traffic and transportation come up for settlement. The consideration of these diverse matters touches at some point almost every branch of human activity which yields something to the demand of a great system of transportation. The chief enlists in his aid in the decisions of these multiplied issues the thought and skill of his staff, who, having worked out the details, bring before him the results for final approval."

But the president of a great corporation is certain to have a similar position in a number of smaller companies, and aside from his duties on the great railroad, he has to preside over meetings of directors of many concerns, so that even at luncheon he is not always free from business. Nowadays, the executive offices are arranged in suites, and include apartments where luncheon can be served. Thus, the president may eat the midday meal in the next room to his desk, with officers of his own corporation, visiting officials, or business friends as his company.

Mr. Barksdale says it is a popular delusion that the inevitable private car of the president is a pleasure vehicle for himself and his friends. "But it is as much a workshop as his office, and it frequently affords that privacy and exclusiveness for the transaction of business which are not obtainable even in the private office. An appointment is to be kept in a distant place. The president's car is attached to a regular train, or run 'special,' as the case may be. The private secretary is directed to report on the car with such mail and papers as demand immediate attention, and the president gets down to work just as if he were sitting at his desk. The dispatch of business is uninterrupted. On the car, consultations are held and conferences occur between the chief and his subordinates or invited

guests. Meals may intervene, and social intercourse may break for a moment the monotony of work, but the spirit of business is ever present. The paraphernalia of the workshop, such as maps, reports, and official papers, are oftener in evidence on the private car than any of the usual concomitants of a pleasure jaunt."

THE NEW CUBAN RAILROAD.

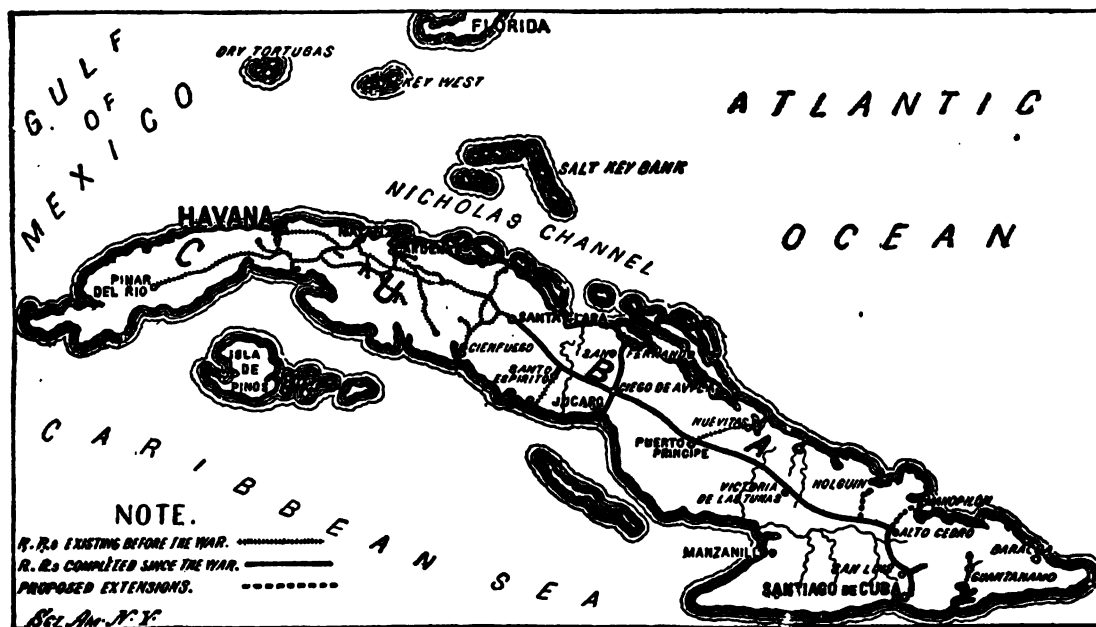
AT the close of the Spanish-American War, it became clear to all intelligent observers that one of the pressing necessities for Cuba was a trunk line of railroad from one end of the island to the other, with branches to important ports on the northern and southern coasts. The importance of such a railroad system was pointed out by Mr. Robert P. Porter, who had been specially commissioned by President McKinley to report on the industrial, commercial, and financial condition of the island. Mr. Porter, however, thought it extremely doubtful whether such an enterprise could be made to pay,—at least for many years to come; but within a year after the close of the war a route had been surveyed from Santiago westward to Santa Clara, the eastern terminus of the old road from Havana, a distance of about four hundred miles, and during the ensuing three years the entire line has been completed, so that Havana and Santiago, which were formerly as far apart, in

point of time, as New York and San Francisco, are now connected by rail, and important branch lines will soon be opened. The master spirit in this work from the beginning has been Sir William Van Horne, the builder of the Canadian Pacific. An account of the progress of the enterprise, and of some of the difficulties encountered, is contributed to *Gunton's Magazine* for March by Mr. J. W. Davies, whose description of the trunk line and its branches follows:

THROUGH TRAINS FROM HAVANA TO SANTIAGO.

"The new railway is of standard gauge, and its bridges are of steel and masonry; its equivalent is similar to that of the best American railways, and it is intended at an early date to run through express sleeping-cars between Havana and Santiago de Cuba.

"The trunk line begins at Santa Clara, where the hitherto existing western system ends, thus affording a continuous communication on to Sancti Spiritus, Puerto Principe, and Santiago de Cuba. Along the main line are to be found great areas of land of the richest description, well watered and to a great extent well wooded, and suitable for sugar cane, tobacco, Indian corn, cotton, coffee, cocoa, and all the fruits of tropical and sub-tropical regions. The mineral wealth of this large tract is said to be very valuable, and the rural districts are peculiarly adapted for cattle; indeed, cattle do well everywhere,



MAP OF THE CUBAN RAILROAD SYSTEM.
 (From the *Scientific American*.)

for the grasses are luxuriant and highly nutritious, and there is usually an abundance of good water.

THE SYSTEM OF BRANCHES.

"The most important branches of railway soon to be opened are those running across the eastern part of the island connecting Santiago de Cuba with the Bay of Nipe at the extreme end, another further up from Jugaro to San Fernando, and two smaller lines forming a connection with Sancti Spiritus and Holguin, respectively. When these works are finished, as they soon will be, the whole island will be opened out and provided with excellent railway facilities for both commercial transportation and passenger traffic. A direct trunk rail connection will then be established between Havana and Santiago de Cuba, and the most important seaboard cities will be connected by branch lines, and the whole system will develop a vast extent of new and attractive country for settlement and cultivation, all of which will add largely to the attractions Cuba offers to tourists, for it will make many interesting places and districts easily accessible which have heretofore been difficult to reach and rarely visited."

AN ENORMOUS CANAL.

A WRITER in the *Magazine of Commerce* tells of the proposed great canal traversing Russia and connecting the Baltic with the Black Sea. This canal would start from Riga and end at Cherson, near the Crimea—a length of 1,607 kilometers. The average depth would be 26 feet. "By keeping to this line, some of the most important towns of central Russia, such as Riga, Dunaburg, Kiev, Yekaterinoslav, and Cherson, would be served directly, while those on the tributaries of the Dnieper and Duna would come within easy reach by the deepening of these tributaries."

The canal would enable Russian men-of-war and large steamers to pass through the heart of Russia, thus strengthening enormously the naval position in the Black Sea. As to the cost of this great undertaking, the writer says that "an American syndicate has declared itself ready to undertake the work and finish it in five years, and at a cost of £32,500,000 [\$162,500,000]. The construction of such a network of canals would constitute Russia the country best served with inland waterways in Europe. They would bring its most distant districts 'near to the sea,' and the enterprise obviously means an important development of the 'world-traffic,' as well as of the land itself."

AMERICANS IN THE CANADIAN NORTHWEST.

IT is estimated that there are 75,000,000 acres of arable land in the Canadian Northwest, and allowing one-eighth for pasture and other purposes, there are left about 65,000,000 acres for growing crops. Taking the average yield per acre for all grains of last season as a basis,—about twenty-nine bushels,—it is apparent that this district may grow some 2,000,000,000 bushels of grain of all sorts yearly, to say nothing of various other products. Mr. William R. Stewart writes in the April *Cosmopolitan* on "The Americanization of the Canadian Northwest," and shows the conditions and reasons of the great migration that has been and is going on from the United States into Manitoba, Alberta, Assiniboia, and Saskatchewan.

Mr. Stewart says that this American invasion of the Canadian Northwest really had its beginning in the advertising done some five years ago by the Canadian government with the purpose of peopling this great western territory. Free lectures were given both in the East and the West, bureaus established in several cities from which large quantities of literature were distributed, Canadian maps were placed by permission in American schools and colleges, attractive advertisements were inserted in newspapers and periodicals, and exhibitions of western agricultural products made at the State and county fairs. This was done with the object of disabusing the American mind of the belief that western Canada was a land of frost and snow. The farmers of Iowa and Indiana found that these statements were really true; and as they could sell their farms at what was a fancy price as compared with the cost of land in the Northwest Territories, they sold them and moved to Canada.

One of the noteworthy industrial results of this American invasion is the introduction of flax-growing on a great scale in the provinces. Canadians thought it unwise to cultivate flax, as they believed it hard on the land and a great weed-protector. But the Americans have shown that with land selling at twelve dollars an acre and yielding an average of fifteen bushels to the acre of flax, the newly bought farms have paid for themselves during the very first year. Flax can be sown and harvested in ninety days, and with the rich soil and long daylight of the Canadian Northwest, it constitutes an ideal crop for that country.

Manitoba was the earliest settled of the Northwest Territories. People began to move there in a desultory way as long ago as thirty years. When the Canadian Pacific Railway was completed, in 1883, a great impetus was added to its

growth. In that year, 260,000 acres were planted in wheat in Manitoba, yielding 5,600,000 bushels. In 1902, the acreage in wheat had increased to 2,720,000, and the yield was estimated at 65,790,000 bushels. Besides this, there were 1,350,000 acres sown to oats and barley, producing a crop of more than 52,000,000 bushels.

While wheat is the staple product of the northwest, the growth of other grains is conducted on an immense scale, and cattle-raising and dairying are also important industries, and are steadily increasing. Manitoba alone produced more than a million dollars' worth of butter and cheese last year, and large creameries are being established at central points.

The best ranching section is in Alberta, in the so-called Chinook belt. The tempering Chinook winds melt the snow in an incredibly short time, and the hillsides afford excellent grazing for cattle. The Peace River country also possesses many thousand acres of as fine grazing land as there is in the world. Mr. Stewart adds: "It is not only the northwest of Canada which is being invaded by American settlers and American capital, but the entire Dominion is becoming Americanized, though the inflow is naturally more marked in particular localities. The agreement recently made between a Chicago syndicate and the Canadian government, looking to the colonization by the former of two million acres of land in what is known as the 'New Ontario,' is only one of many evidences of the fact. Under this agreement, the Canadian government receives fifty cents an acre, which is the regular price for settlement land, the patent being issued direct to the settlers. It is the expectation of the syndicate that fifty thousand people will be brought into the new country during the next few years."

AMERICAN CHILDREN OF LABOR.

WILLIAM S. WAUDBY, special agent of the United States Department of Labor, says, in an article in the April *Frank Leslie's*, that the last census will show 1,750,000 children in the United States from ten to fifteen years of age reported as engaged in gainful occupations. The most important part played by child labor is in the cotton and woolen mills. This writer says that the mill managers often refuse to employ a single man, while if the next applicant be a man with a wife and five children, they are all employed at once, being valuable to the mill from the fact that the entire family are workers as well as consumers.

Mr. Waudby shows a very dark picture of the conditions of child labor in the mills and the

coal breakers, and discusses the regulations which will most quickly do away with the worst abuses. He considers the New York law for the government of establishments employing children one of the best that has yet been formulated. "The issuing of permits requires not only discretion, but also involves considerable work on the part of the inspector. First, an affidavit stating the date and place of birth of the child must be made; then the permits are issued in triplicate, —one being given to the child, to be kept on file in the establishment where it is employed, one sent to the chief factory inspector at Albany, and the third kept in the local office. A ledger is also kept where the names of the children to whom permits have been issued are alphabetically arranged. These permits give a complete description of the child, in order to prevent fraud in their use; but occasionally fraud is practised. The fact that the inspector is associated with the health office gives him ready access to the registry of births."

THE KIND OF LEGISLATION DEMANDED.

Mr. Waudby reviews the laws in various States, which differ in great degree. He says that, according to reliable information, there are over one thousand children between the ages of six and fourteen employed in five cotton mills in South Carolina which stand within a mile of the State Capitol. There are all sorts of laws in the Western States, and no legislation as to the hours of child labor prevails in Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Texas, or the District of Columbia.

"I do not believe that laws should be passed regulating any of the social or industrial affairs which can be settled by our own common sense and mutual agreements, but in this question of child labor there appears to be no other way of checking the desires of the employer, on the one hand, for cheap labor and the necessities of the parents (or their greed, in many well-substantiated cases) to force their children into the shops, the factories, and the mines. The compulsory registration of the date of birth, and the presentation of this certificate, would do away with the misstatements as to the child's age; furthermore, a certification of the school attendance, together with an examination as to educational fitness, should be made, and the legal age of employment raised in all the States to that of sixteen years at least.

"The labor organizations generally favor the limitation to sixteen years, with the educational restrictions. Tinkering with this problem cannot be carried on forever; the social conditions require a thorough overhauling."

THE COMING AUTOMOBILE.

MR. HENRY NORMAN, editor of the English *World's Work*, contributes an article to the April number of the American publication of the same name on "The Coming Automobile," in which he traces the influence on the railway, on society, and on the individual of practicable and cheap auto-cars.

A GREAT RADIUS OF ACTION.

Mr. Norman calculates that the owner of a pair of horses in the country may have a practical, every-day radius of movement of about ten or twelve miles, and even to drive twelve miles away and back to make a visit is a tiring proceeding for man and beast. He calculates that a carriage and pair means \$2,000 a year in town and \$1,500 in the country. Mr. Norman thinks that a big automobile should not cost less than a carriage and pair, and a small one not less than a horse and carriage; but he thinks that the cost of maintaining automobiles has been exaggerated, and gives statistics of one automobile owner who drove his large car nearly five thousand miles last year at a total cost of \$575, and of another man who went 1,648 miles on a small car with an entire expenditure of only \$22.50. He regards it as certain that an automobile costs less to keep than a carriage and horse, and the radius is far greater. With a ten-horse-power car the radius of the whole family is easily thirty miles, with a possible fifty miles. Thus, he figures out that our horse-and-carriage man can move over an area of 452 square miles, while the automobile man has a sphere of activity of at least 2,827 square miles.

WHAT THIS MEANS.

"Every friend within three thousand square miles can be visited, any place of worship or lecture or concert attended, and business appointment kept, the train met at any railway station, every post and telegraph and telephone office within reach, every physician accessible, any place reached for golf or tennis, or fishing or shooting, and with it all fresh air inhaled under exhilarating conditions. It is a revolution in daily life. With an automobile, one lives three times as much in the same span of years, and one's life, therefore, becomes to that extent wider and more interesting."

FOR BUSINESS PURPOSES.

Mr. Norman believes that business automobiles will soon be universal. Commercial travelers will take their samples through the country in suitable motor cars, and the farmers will send their produce to market at a fraction of their

present transport cost and much quicker, by the coöperative use of automobiles. A company now is formed for manufacturing an agricultural gasoline motor which has proved itself practicable.

WILL THE RAILWAY DISAPPEAR?

Mr. Norman is not only convinced that there will not be a horse left in New York or London within ten years, except a few kept for pleasure and police purposes; he is also inclined to hazard the opinion that the motor will kill the railway. "Why should the community pay a huge sum per mile for a special roadway for electric cars and a huge generating station, when self-propelled motor omnibuses of equal speed, comfort, capacity, and economy can use the common road, and, by their ability to be steered round obstacles, not interfere with the rest of the traffic? I am convinced that municipalities would consult their own interests by carefully considering the introduction of motor omnibuses before embarking upon the heavy initial cost of an electric railway system which may quite likely be obsolete before their depreciation fund has been charged a dozen times."

THE EXTENT OF THE INDUSTRY.

"In 1902, Great Britain imported motors and parts to the value of \$5,512,310, and exported only \$657,405. The value of the American output of motor vehicles for 1902 is officially reckoned at \$25,000,000. In the same year, France exported motor cars to the value of \$5,310,200. Two firms manufacturing pneumatic tires in France turned out, in 1902, \$4,100,000 worth, and each of them has \$400,000 worth of goods in the charge of agents. Seventy French firms manufacture motor cars, and their combined output last year was 12,000 cars. The industry employed 180,000 workmen, earning, on an average, \$360 a year each."

MR. RHODES AND OXFORD.

A WRITER signing himself "Academicus" contributes an interesting and suggestive paper to *Blackwood's Magazine* on the needs of Oxford. It is a welcome illustration of the good which Mr. Rhodes has done by his will, even before the first Rhodes scholar has reached the university. Whatever else he did, or did not do, Mr. Rhodes has certainly waked up Oxford.

THE RHODESIAN WHITE ELEPHANT—

"Academicus" complains that the gift is a white elephant.

"Mr. Rhodes, in 'promoting' his imperial pro-

gramme, forgot to provide working capital, inasmuch as he required a poverty-stricken university to house and teach three hundred new scholars without providing a penny to equip them with teachers, house-room, or apparatus. It is as if a philanthropic millionaire were to bequeath to a friend whose small income was mortgaged to its last sixpence a dozen splendid carriages and a stableful of hungry horses, and expect him, out of the atmosphere of an historic tradition, to build stables, feed the noble creatures, and create and pay the requisite staff of trained stablemen. Accordingly, in May last, the university found itself the richer by three hundred future scholars, together with the bracing knowledge that its own funds were *nil*, the staff of the colleges already doing full time, the colleges manned to overflowing, and the world crying out, 'What good fortune! What wealth!'"

WHICH HAS WAKED UP OXFORD.

Nevertheless, he says that Oxford is bravely preparing to make room for the three hundred Rhodes scholars.

"That Oxford will somehow absorb the Rhodesians and not the Rhodesians Oxford is as true as that the sun will rise to-morrow, and, after all, that is the only important matter; and so the don, after a shrug of his shoulders at the curious ways of the curious, passes on to a generous confession that if Mr. Rhodes had done nothing else he had done yeoman service in focusing the public mind on the unlimited possibilities latent in the oldest of our universities. An imperial Oxford! that is a conception which may well fire the mind and elevate the sentiment of every British citizen, from Gibraltar to Vancouver; and an imperial university we may slowly build up if we are not in too great a hurry."

A CRUCIAL CATECHISM.

He then proceeds to discuss what is necessary to be done to convert Oxford into an imperial university that the empire needs.

"And here let us pin the discussion down for a moment by framing a brief catechism, suggested by the considerations advanced. Let us ask—1. Are the university and the colleges doing all that their resources permit for the encouragement of learning and the promotion of research? 2. Are the colleges using and choosing their tutors in the most effective way? 3. Are they likely to get and to retain in the future, with the same ease as in the past, the staff and the services that the university and the colleges really need? 4. Is the system of university and

college finance so framed and worked as to secure efficiency—financial and intellectual? Is it so framed as to combine the new needs of the university and the empire with those of the old? 5. Is Oxford welcoming as they deserve the new studies which have arisen since 1880, without forgetting the extended borders of the old? 6. Is her machinery so devised as to supply the public services—the professions—as they have altered, with the men trained as they ought to be trained in the number that is required? 7. What is being done to assist the army in providing it with educated officers? 8. Are the colleges tapping the social strata which will supply the recruits that Oxford requires for all that she hopes to do?

"In a word, is the university to her utmost possibility educating capable men (and women?), creating and employing the best kind of teachers, fostering the best knowledge? The present writer, at any rate, who is not of those who believe that Oxford has stood still, or is sunk in sloth, far from it, certainly could not answer these and similar questions with an unhesitating affirmative, and he is convinced that scarcely one competent person who knows the facts would do so either."

POST-GRADUATE SCHOOLS AND NO CHURCH TESTS.

He then goes on to explain what he thinks Oxford should do under each of these heads. We have not space to follow him throughout the whole of his recommendations, but will quote one or two. He says:

"Post-graduate schools do not exist. Oxford, then, must create them—schools in economics, sociology, archeology, art, and all the branches of science that science demands; they may have courses of one, or two, or three years, they may provide degrees and classes, honors or pass, they may be few or many, but come they must if liberal education is to be saved and the just claims of knowledge and research are to be met. For they are, and must be, part of the machinery which she provides as a seat of learning. Furthermore, Oxford must frankly sacrifice the last dike of the Anglican tradition which still closes the B.D. and the D.D. to all but the Anglican."

DEMOCRATIZE THE UNIVERSITIES.

Considering that *Blackwood* has ever been a most unyielding champion of all Toryism, this last admission is significant indeed. The paper concludes with an earnest and eloquent appeal to Oxford to cease to draw her students from the aristocratic classes, but to attract to her halls students from all classes of the community.

"The future of our race, if we would but act

upon our beliefs, rests beyond all controversy on a national determination at all costs to see that not a single brain in the nation is starved or lost. It is no use blinking facts: to-day, hundreds of brains are starved, stunted, or lost—Oxford does not command the respect and confidence of more than a section of the nation. But with 1903 Oxford can begin at least to plan and dig the foundations of a university, national as the term has not been understood save in Scotland."

WITH THE THEOSOPHISTS.

PIERRE LOTI continues in both the February numbers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* his striking travel articles on India. He takes us this time on the road to Benares to visit the Theosophists of Madras, and he clothes the subject in his well-known exquisite style. In the house of the Theosophists he found a warm welcome, especially from two men,—the one a European who, wearied with agitations and uncertainties, had taken refuge in the detachments preached of old by Buddha; the other a Hindu who, after winning high honors in the universities of Europe, had returned to India with a certain contempt for our Western philosophies. M. Loti asked them to give him proofs of their statement that something of man's individuality resists for a time the shock of death. They replied that they could not offer visible proof, for the perception of those who were improperly called the dead required special senses and special temperaments, but in their library there were books which gave well-accredited details of apparitions. M. Loti was disappointed. He asked about the fakirs, and received the unexpected reply that there were none. The Hindu went on to explain that there were plenty of mendicant fakirs, but the old class of "seeing" fakirs, possessed of real power, had died out, though the records of them remained in the library.

THE THEOSOPHIST PHILOSOPHY.

After further talk, M. Loti was sent on to the Theosophists of Benares. Then, follows an inimitable description of the Temple of Jugger-naut and the Taj. At length he comes to the House of the Wise Men, where he was warmly received, and where they say to him with a calm certainty, "Our philosophy begins where yours ends." M. Loti describes in exquisite language these sages working at the *arcana* of Brahminism, which includes conceptions too lofty for our degenerate comprehension. Their flesh is nourished by no other flesh, and by long medi-

tation and prayer they have acquired delicacies and subtleties of conception which are unknown to us; and yet they say in all modesty, "We do not know anything, we understand with difficulty, we only seek to learn."

MRS. BESANT AND MME. BLAVATSKY.

Then M. Loti gives us a picture of Mrs. Annie Besant, with her still charming countenance under her white headdress, living detached from the world, with bare feet, frugal as the wife of a Brahmin, and austere as an ascetic. On her M. Loti counted to open for him a little the gates of knowledge, for he felt that there were fewer barriers between her and him, inasmuch as she had been formerly in his world and his native tongue was familiar to her. He spoke to her of Mme. Blavatsky, the sad memory of whom sufficed to render him skeptical; but Mrs. Besant pleaded that the intention was so excellent as to excuse Mme. Blavatsky for having attempted to work miracles in order to convince the outside world. Mrs. Besant went on to say that Theosophists had no dogmas, and that M. Loti would find among them Buddhists, Brahmins, Moslems, Protestants, Catholics, and Orthodox,—in fact, people of every faith, or none. "What is necessary in order to be one of you?" asked M. Loti, and the answer was—to take an oath to consider all men as your brothers without distinction of caste or color, and to treat with the same regard the most humble workmen or princes; to take an oath also to seek truth by all possible means in the anti-materialistic sense. "It is in an esoteric Brahminism under its most ancient form," Mrs. Besant continued, "that we find peace and light. It seems to us to contain the highest expression of truth which it is given to man to know." There is much more of the same kind, but we cannot leave the subject without noting the unforgettable description which M. Loti gives of the animals and birds which depend on these sages for their sustenance, and which are exquisitely free from the terror and shyness inculcated in them by sad experience in other lands.

THE FOSSIL MAN OF KANSAS.

AT the recent Congress of Americanists in New York, and also at the meetings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Washington, the subject of the human skeleton discovered about one year ago near Lansing, Kan., was fully discussed. Geologists are divided in their conclusions as to the antiquity of the bones, evidence of which must be sought in the nature of the surrounding de-

posits. In the *Popular Science Monthly* for March, Prof. S. W. Williston, who has examined the place of discovery, gives an illustrated account of his investigations.

The skeleton was exhumed at the end of a cave or tunnel which a farmer and his two sons were excavating in the side of a hill near the mouth of a ravine opening into the Missouri River valley. This ravine is less than a mile in length, with a fall of more than one hundred feet. Very near its mouth it has a tributary branch, perhaps a quarter of a mile in length, coming from the south, nearly parallel with the river-bank. The excavation was made at the extremity of the intervening spur, beginning a few feet above the bed of the ravine and extend-

the decomposition of the ligaments had occurred, nor could it have been exposed to the atmosphere for any length of time, nor even for a short time to the depredations of predatory animals, while yet inclosed in the flesh. In other words, it seems almost beyond dispute that the person had either been thrown into the water very soon after death, or had been drowned, and that the body had remained immersed in comparatively quiet water until covered so deeply by the soil that it could no longer suffer the vicissitudes of exposure to the atmosphere and predatory animals. Evidences of artificial or accidental burial beneath the silt are wanting, and are improbable. So far as any theory of the age of the skeleton is contradictory to this evidence, it may be rejected."

It is held by Professors Winchell and Upham that the material covering the remains was deposited during the time of the fourth recrudescence or southward extension of the glaciers in the United States, in what is known as the Iowan stage, during the next to the last glacial extension, which reached as far south as central Iowa. According to this view, the Missouri River was filled to a depth of one hundred feet or more, but has since been excavated to its present level, and the material covering the Lansing



SIDE VIEW OF SKULL AND FEMUR FOUND IN THE LANSING TUNNEL.

ing southward nearly horizontally for a distance of seventy feet. The cave is floored with carboniferous limestone, but the material excavated is believed to have been deposited by the river, or else by recurrent freshets in the ravine. The present course of the river is at the opposite side of the flood plain, a mile or more distant, but until within a few years the river flowed only a few hundred yards from the cave entrance.

Professor Williston affirms his belief in the post-glacial age of the remains, attributing their inhumation to a time when the Missouri River flowed at an elevation of from forty to fifty feet above its present bed. He says:

"It seems very probable that the skeleton had been immersed in water while yet held together by the flesh. It is impossible that it could have been subjected to strong currents of water after

skeleton represents a part of the deposit that has not since been carried away. Professor Upham estimates the age of the skeleton at about twelve thousand years.

Other geologists, including Professor Chamberlin, of the University of Chicago, assign the skeleton to various periods—all far short of the glacial epoch.

ANTIQUITY OF MAN ON THIS CONTINENT.

In conclusion, Professor Williston has one or two suggestive paragraphs bearing on the general subject of the antiquity of the American man:

"As to the character of the remains themselves, both Dr. Hrdlicka and Dr. Dorsey, to whom may confidently be left the final decision, assert that they are of modern type, and might well belong to an Indian inhabiting the plains

region within quite recent times, so far as anthropological evidence goes. Nor does this verdict as to the character of the remains have much to do with either of the views presented. It is certainly not improbable that the widespread races of American Indians date back for thousands of years in their history. Mr. Upham's estimate of the time since the death of the Lansing man is about twelve thousand years, a not unreasonable time for the evolution of the American Indian.

"Evidences of the high antiquity of man in America have hitherto been wanting, or doubtful, and the Lansing man, whichever age is assigned to him, can claim but little greater age than might be given him from *a priori* reasoning. One must frankly admit that proofs of man's contemporaneity with the many extinct animals of the pleistocene times in North America have been few, and perhaps in some cases doubtful. But that man has existed with some of the large extinct animals of North America, the present writer, in company with other vertebrate paleontologists, believes. But this belief does not carry with it, necessarily, a belief in any very great antiquity. It seems very probable that some of these large animals, such as the elephant, mastodon, and certain species of bison, have lived on this continent within comparatively recent times.

"Furthermore, if the evidences of the commingling of human and extinct animal remains in South America are to be accepted, and such evidences seem almost beyond dispute, it must necessarily follow that man has existed on our own continent for a yet longer time, since there could have been no other way for him to reach the southern continent than through the Isthmus of Panama."

THE TREE-DWELLERS OF MALAYA.

IN the excellent April number of *Outing*, Mr. Caspar Whitney, its editor, has a description of the tree-dwellers of the Malay Peninsula, whom he visited in the course of a rhinoceros hunt. The inaccessible country of these strange people was reached on elephant-back, and Mr. Whitney gives some surprising facts in regard to the agility of these great creatures, apparently so clumsy, when they are traversing the narrow valleys and steep mountains of the interior of Malaya. The huge beasts explored every step where the path was uncertain, and surmounted ascents that a man with hobnailed shoes would find difficult or impossible. He never saw one slip, and they kept going even when sunk belly-deep in the swamp. Three miles an hour was

the average speed, each elephant carrying six hundred or seven hundred pounds on fair roads, and four hundred pounds when climbing the mountains.

The country of the tree-dwellers is a primeval forest of upstanding trees, "limbless to their very tops, where umbrella-like they open into great knobs of foliage, and form a huge canopy so dense that not a ray of sunlight may break through. Below is the most luxurious and wettest undergrowth to be found on earth."

The Sakais, or tree-dwellers, build their houses in this country in forked trees, eight to twelve feet above the ground, and reached by bamboo ladders, which are hoisted at will. "The house itself is very much of the kind of shack we put up for each night's shelter, except that the flooring is lashed together piece by piece and bound securely to the tree limbs by rattan."

The tree-dwellers are armed with long blow-guns shooting poisoned arrows, and showed themselves inclined to respect generous treatment. But their shyness and wariness was phenomenal, and Mr. Whitney, in the course of his stay, never could get within arm's-reach of them. They are smallish people, of lighter complexion than the Malays, though not so good-looking. They have no idols, no priests, no places or things of worship, no written language, and their speech is a corrupted form of Malay.

The bamboo furnishes most of their articles of ornament and utility. The blow-gun is a bamboo about an inch and a half in diameter and six and a half feet in length. The bore, drilled most accurately, is a quarter of an inch, and the darts nine inches in length, about the circumference of a heavy darning-needle, sharpened at one end and poisoned. With these, they secure all the meat they eat in the jungle,—birds, monkeys, snakes, and lizards. They also have knives made of bamboo. Mr. Whitney speaks with admiration of the accuracy of these blow-guns, and says the Sakais could hit a small target sixty feet distant.

ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION.

THE outline map, reproduced from the *Geographical Journal*, shows the bases of three of the four expeditions now engaged in exploring the far South, the area of which is said to be greater than twice that of Europe. These are the English, the German, and the Scottish parties. The fourth party, the Swedish, has its base near the Falkland Islands.

The German expedition, amply equipped and provisioned, did not expect to report to civilization before June, 1904.

ISLANDS THAT COME AND GO.

Much less is known of submarine volcanoes than of those on land, naturally enough, for the science of hydrography is mainly pursued as an aid to navigation, and the greater depths of the ocean do not interest the navigator; he only wants to be warned where he may expect shoals. When he is out at sea, he does not care how many miles of water he has below his keel. The whole subject demands the pen of a Jules Verne. At any rate, the fact of the existence of submarine volcanoes cannot be denied. An island called Julia appeared to the south of Sicily in 1831, and vanished again after an existence of about two months. Soundings taken at the spot showed a depth of fifty meters. An island called Sabrina appeared and disappeared in 1811 in the neighborhood of the Azores. In 1866, the island Georgios appeared in the Archipelago of Santorin. So lately as September, 1901, the little island of Bermuda, in the south of the Gulf of Mexico, suddenly disappeared. These eruptions generally occur in comparatively shallow water; but sometimes, as in the case of the island of Sabrina, the depth is very great. At the spot where that island vanished, an enormous fissure has been traced at a depth of at least three thousand five hundred meters.

ZONES OF VOLCANIC ACTIVITY.

M. Thoulet considers that there are two great zones of volcanic activity,—the one terrestrial, running through Central America, Mexico, the Antilles, the south of Spain, Santorin, the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulf, to the Malay Archipelago; while the other line traverses the Atlantic in the neighborhood of Tristan d'Acunha, St. Helena, Ascension, the Canaries, the Azores, and Madeira.

PECULIARITIES OF REPTILES AND AMPHIBIANS.

THE last number of the *Biologisches Centralblatt* publishes the results of a somewhat unusual series of observations made by Dr. F. Werner, of Vienna, upon reptiles and amphibians, members of the animal kingdom of which comparatively little is known.

It is not exactly easy to form an idea of the sense-perception of an animal that is not constantly under observation, for our own preconceived ideas concerning them may be a source of error in the interpretation of their actions. The writer observed one hundred and eighty-six specimens, about one-third of which were free, and took care that the animals should not be

affected by fear or unusual conditions, or know that they were being watched.

Both reptiles and amphibians are strongly attracted by water even at distances too great for it to be detected through any sense known to us; and on this account, the writer explains it as a sort of chemical attraction. Sunlight also attracts them (*heliotropism*) independently of the heat associated with it, and in winter they would come out from places in the laboratory where they were sleeping to sun themselves, even when this necessitated leaving a warm place and lying before an open window.

Sight, perhaps, is the most acute of the senses in all reptiles and amphibians. Alligators and crocodiles see best sidewise, and can also see backward at an angle of 40 degrees. They can see a man at a distance equal to about ten times their own length, but fishes, etc., in the water, not more than a distance of one-half their own length away. Land turtles can see farther than water turtles. Snakes have extremely dull sight. The boa constrictor, for example, cannot see more than one-fourth or one-third of its length away, and three species of vipers that were tested could only see as far as one-eighth to one-fifth of their own length away. Frogs can see to a distance of fifteen or twenty times their own length.

With regard to hearing, although the drum of the ear is well developed in reptiles, all, so far as observed, are entirely deaf except alligators and crocodiles, which can hear to a slight extent, as might be expected from the fact that they produce calls for one another. The boa is entirely deaf.

Apparently, the sense of taste is not entirely lacking in any reptile or amphibian. Even the snake has a sense of taste sufficiently delicate to distinguish between different species of frogs, although the tongue itself is withdrawn into a sheath when the animal eats, and the sense of taste must be located somewhere else—perhaps in the palate.

The snake's tongue also presents the only remarkable point observed with regard to the sense of touch either in reptiles or amphibians. By means of this organ, the snake doubtless obtains knowledge of surrounding objects which it has never touched.

The tongue is moved rapidly up and down, and apparently the air vibrations produced strike against objects and are reflected back from them in such a way as to give an idea of their position.

It has been found that there is a growth limit for every kind of animal, and as a rule, this maximum size is reached at about the same time as sexual maturity; but there are exceptions among

reptiles and amphibians, especially among the snakes, many of which grow as long as they live, and live until they die a violent death. Death from old age appears to be unknown to them.

The largest kind of snake now living is *Python reticulatus*, which may grow to a length of ten meters, while the other species of python do not attain a length of over one and one-fourth meters.

Boa constrictor is the largest kind of boa, reaching a length of six meters, although no other kind is over three meters long; and it is curious to note that the species developing to the largest size is the smallest of all the boas when hatched, and the species that is the largest when first hatched is the smallest of all the boas at maturity.

Many snakes become of one color in old age, although in youth they have distinct color patterns. Although snakes, crocodiles, and turtles are very long-lived, some reptiles, such as, certain lizards, do not live more than a year or two.

ALCOHOL: FOOD OR POISON.

THE alcohol question is of immediate interest in France, where the spread of drinking habits among all classes of the population, due in part at least to the unfortunate system of practical free trade in liquor, has excited the alarm of all thoughtful minds. M. Dastre, in the second February number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, attacks this old yet ever new problem, and succeeds in showing that the question whether alcohol is good or bad, useful or injurious, is by no means capable of a direct answer. Everything depends on the quantity absorbed, the condition of the drinker, and the proportion of pure alcohol contained in the liquor consumed; indeed, M. Dastre shows us that alcohol can be at one time a medicine, at another a poison, at another a stimulant, and at another a food. The extreme view of the teetotalers is that alcohol is always a poison, and they deny that it has any hygienic or alimentary value. This is, of course, disputed by physiologists; but, unfortunately for the theorists, it is found that the limit of dose beyond which alcohol becomes a poison is in practice almost always passed, and thus the abuse of this substance is continually sapping the intelligence, the morality, and character of humanity and enormously increasing the total volume of crime.

M. Dastre tells us that when the use of alcohol has become a habit it degrades the organism instead of maintaining it, so that there is really no place for alcohol in a rational diet except in insignificant quantities. What really interests physiologists, however, is not the recommendation of

a suitable diet for the people, but the light which may be thrown upon the human body by studying the action of alcohol on it. Some five years ago, the United States Government opened an inquiry into the diet of people, and the head of the commission, Professor Atwater, paid special attention to the question of alcohol. He deprived a person on whom he experimented of all butter and vegetables, substituting an equivalent quantity of alcohol, and found that the condition of the subject remained exactly the same. On the other hand, the experiments of Van Noorden and his pupils, Stammreich and Miura, seemed to show that alcohol is not equivalent, isodynamically, to other foods.

Views of Various Experts.

La Revue for February 15 opens with a symposium contributed to by eminent French doctors and others on the question whether alcohol is a food or not. Dr. Roux says that while it may be admitted that alcohol may be a food under certain conditions, that does not limit the need for fighting against it, as those who drink alcohol will never consent to drink it in small quantities. There is no doubt whatever that alcohol is harmful in the way it is taken. Professor Metchnikoff says flatly that alcohol is merely a poison. Dr. Brouardel denounces alcohol as an element of physical decadence and moral ruin for the greater part of the European nations. Dr. Richet says that alcohol is a food; when taken very pure, in small doses, it is practically inoffensive. But from the economic point of view, it is a food without any advantages.

Professor Lancereaux says that alcohol is dangerous, but that he thinks as much wine as three liters a day may be drunk without harm. Dr. J. Héricourt replies by considering the cases of three men—an abstainer, an ordinary drinker, and an alcoholic—attacked by the same disease. The abstainer will recover easiest, the ordinary drinker will have the next best chance, while the alcoholic will have no chance at all. Dr. Faisans says that alcohol is one of the most potent factors in the propagation of consumption; he mentions that out of twenty-four alcoholics under his care, fourteen are tuberculous. Professor Joffroy is of opinion that a certain quantity of alcohol may be taken with impunity, but he nevertheless declares that it is a poison. Dr. Legrain says that alcohol may be a chemical food, but it is not a physiological or hygienic food. The conclusion seems to be that alcohol may be a food, that depending on the definition of the word food; but that practically all the leading authorities in France regard its consumption as at best useless and at worst ruinous.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY.

THE series of articles on "Great Business Combinations of To-day" is continued in the April *Century* with "The So-called Steamship Trust," by J. D. J. Kelley, U.S.N. This writer rather tends to defend the financiering of the steamship combination, in so far, at least, as the charge of overcapitalization is concerned. In this fleet of 1,100,000 tons, he shows that the capitalization is \$155 per steamship ton. While this average cost is, when taken alone, high, compared with the price for which new and better ships, with later devices for handling cargo and saving coal, can be built abroad, it is not, perhaps, so high as one would suspect. This writer says the average cost in the United States for efficient steamers, not tramps, is from \$70 to \$110 per ton for freighters, and from \$110 to \$200 per ton for fast craft, while steamers of exceptional speed and equipment will cost more than this maximum. Thus, the average cost per ton of the International Company's fleet is a reasonable mean between the limits set down for fast steamers, while the composite fleet is made up of types entitled to more modest classification. The company has in service seven steamers of 20 knots, three of 17 knots, and eleven of 16 knots, or twenty-one in all above the 16-knot rate.

Mr. Ray Stannard Baker has a very readable article on "Butte City, Greatest of Copper Camps," which has grown up out of the bare desert, protected from the rest of civilization by high and forbidding mountains. "To-day, over a million dollars every week is taken out of the ground at Butte. A surprisingly large portion of the money yield of the mines is earned and held by residents, and Mr. Baker says that money seems more free and the people more prosperous than in any other town of the United States. Butte is the Paradise of the labor union; common miners receive \$3.50 a day; carpenters, \$5; bricklayers, \$6. The stores are magnificent. Miners wear fifty-dollar suits of clothes, and buy gorgeous sets of furniture to put in any unpainted shack.

Mr. Charles Moore gives an account of "The Restoration of the White House," the writer being a clerk of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia. His thorough account of the work which has just been done to carry to completion Hoban's and Latrobe's plans for the exterior of the President's house is illustrated minutely and profusely with drawings by well-known illustrators. Francis E. Leupp contributes some witty "Humors of Congress;" J. F. McLaughlin gives a sketch of Col. Matthew Lyon, "A Picturesque Politician of Jefferson's Time," and there are further chapters of Prof. Justin H. Smith's "Prologue of the American Revolution."

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

DR. RICHARD T. ELY begins *Harper's Magazine* for April with a careful study of "Economic Aspects of Mormonism." Dr. Ely calls the organization of the Mormons "the most nearly perfect piece of social mechanism with which I have ever in any way come into contact, excepting alone the German army." It is this perfect mechanical organization of the Latter-Day Saints that accounts for the great economic success of the Mormons. As to the present status of polygamy,

Dr. Ely shows that the Gentile influence, with the growth of fashion and luxurious living, operates against plural marriages; in fact, it was one of the purposes of polygamy to encourage plain living, frugality, and industry, as even a moderately rich man with four or five families would be obliged to live carefully. The social defect of polygamy, Dr. Ely thinks, is the lessening of the influence of the father. He adds the generally recognized defect of the absence of spirituality as an element in the faith of the Mormons which seems to be a result of the practice of polygamy.

Mr. Carl Snyder writes on "Physiological Immunity," and attempts to explain the philosophy of our modern scientific efforts to ward off infections and to provide the body with new weapons of defense when the infection has come. The very latest theory to account for the baleful effects of disease microbes, and for their defeat, is that of Professor Ehrlich, head of the Institute of Experimental Medicine at Frankfurt. He supposes that there exist in the animal cell what he terms "side-chains," or partially saturated groups of atoms, whose normal function it is to enable the cells to take up from the blood stream their food elements, which, passed on into the interior, become a part of the cell itself. His theory supposes that the poisons fix themselves to the side-chains and bar the way to the entry of normal food material. Under certain conditions, the side-chain and poison molecule are thrown off from the cell, and new side-chains being formed, the cell resumes its orderly life. But not only this; a superabundance of new side-chains is formed, and these are sloughed off into the blood stream, there to float about as free units. Given, then, that a poison is introduced into the system, these free side-chains in the blood will fix the poison before it ever reaches the cells at all. They confer immunity from disease.

A pleasant literary feature of this number appears in the "New Longfellow Letters," with comment by Mary Thacher Higginson, niece of the first Mrs. Longfellow. The correspondence is of the date of 1830 and the immediately succeeding years. A sketch of "The Land of Theocritus," by William Sharp, has its classical influence reinforced by delicately tinted pictures. There are the concluding chapters of "The Dutch Founding of New York," by Thomas A. Janvier, a short story by Alice Hegan, author of "Mrs. Wiggs," and other notable contributions of fiction.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

THE April *Scribner's*, which appears in a very handsome special cover with the Easter sentiment, contains "An Explorer-Naturalist in the Arctic," Mr. Andrew J. Stone's account of his expedition to the Bering Sea islands in search of new specimens of flora and fauna. The record of the white man as a universal destroyer is well maintained in the present condition of animal life in these beautiful islands, which only a short time ago possessed the most valuable and interesting fur-bearing creatures that the world has ever had. In the sea, there once lived vast herds of sea cows,—magnificent animals, grazing on the shore on seaweed, kelp, and marsh grasses. In thirty years after the arrival of the white man, the entire race was exterminated.

The valuable fur seals are being persecuted beyond endurance. The still more valuable sea otter has been driven from the shores everywhere, and the miserable scattered fragments of the most valuable of all fur-producing animals can no longer find peace or safety near land.

WHAT THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT DOES.

Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip, formerly Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, writes on the organization and functions of that department of the Government. He shows that the Secretary of the Treasury has for many years been obliged to devote two-thirds of his time to problems bearing little or no relation to the strictly fiscal business of the Government. The establishment of the Department of Commerce will greatly aid in so relieving the Secretary of the Treasury that he may give his chief attention to the Government's financial business. In addition to raising and distributing \$1,000,000,000 of government revenue, the Secretary of the Treasury has before him the problems of an intricate and diverse currency system. He supervises the whole national banking organization of the country; he is the custodian of \$300,000,000 of gold and silver coin stored in the Treasury vaults; he, with the Treasurer of the United States, is responsible for the \$200,000,000 representing the government cash balance; he controls the mints and assay offices, directs the operations of the great factory employing 3,000 operatives in printing money and government securities, is responsible for collecting commercial statistics, and is at the head of the greatest auditing offices in the world.

Mr. Benjamin Brooks, in a handsomely illustrated article, "Below the Water Line," gives a vivid account of the life of the engineers and firemen in the machinery-room and stokehole of a transatlantic liner; Mrs. H. M. Plunkett gives the story of "Ten Co-Educated Girls Two Hundred Years Ago;" Clarence Cary describes "Dalny, a Fiat City," the new and chief commercial terminus of the great Trans-Siberian Railway system on the North China Pacific coast, and there is the usual pleasant array of fiction features.

MCCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

THE April *McClure's Magazine* is an exceptionally entertaining number, but is more occupied than is usual with fiction and other æsthetic features. The sixth chapter of Miss Tarbell's "History of the Standard Oil Company" deals with the defeat of the Pennsylvania Railroad by Mr. Rockefeller's combination, the passing of its dividend by the Pennsylvania, and the absorption of the Empire Transportation Company, the rival pipe line backed by the railroad, into the all-devouring Standard Oil Company. This was in 1877; and while the struggle with Mr. Rockefeller had left the Pennsylvania Railroad with empty coffers, the Standard Oil Company paid a dividend of 50 per cent. The downfall of the Empire concern was quickly followed by the collapse of all the independent pipe lines, and Mr. Rockefeller was absolute master of the entire oil-transportation business. As a result of four years' work, Mr. Rockefeller controlled 90 per cent. of the oil-refining interests of the country, and the entire oil-gathering system; he was recognized by the four great trunk lines as the autocrat of the business, who had merely to express his wish to get what he wanted from them, and he was able to raise the oil market to an un-

natural figure, giving him a net profit of fifteen to twenty-five cents a gallon, and held it there for six months.

OTHER ARTICLES IN THIS NUMBER.

There is an authoritative analysis of the work of Hogarth, with a sketch of the artist's life, by Mr. John La Farge, very beautifully illustrated with pictures of Hogarth's famous paintings. Mr. La Farge says that the reason Hogarth has gone out of fashion and is now so much a mere name is that his works, which were known so well to our forefathers, have the habit of showing disagreeable sides of life too frankly, calling a spade a spade. Adrian Kirk, in "Masters of Their Craft," makes a pleasant little study of the men who get their chief pleasure in life out of the exercise of their own skillful handicraft, treating them as artists in a broad sense. Eighth Avenue motormen, Fifth Avenue bus drivers, the foreman of a metropolitan newspaper's composing-room, and an engineer of the New York Central Railroad serve him for models of these interesting artists. There is a chapter of Clara Morris' autobiography, and a number of readable stories.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

A DESCRIPTION by William R. Stewart of the great Northwest Territories of Canada, which are being settled up by American emigrants, and a sketch of the New York financier, Jacob H. Schiff, by Robert N. Burnett, which appear in the April *Cosmopolitan*, are quoted from in another department. There is a capital illustrated article on Björnson, "The Prophet-Poet of Norway," by Louise Parks Richards, which gives a good account of the home life of the sturdy Scandinavian. She shows that the people of Norway have a wonderful love for Björnson—that he is in their hearts the first man in the country. This is in striking contrast to Ibsen's position. Ibsen is always alone, and looks on the people about him as would an analytical dissector. They regard him as a judge, and a severe judge. Björnson is in the midst of the people, and is one of them. Nearly every house in the country has his biography and one or more of his books on the family table. His photographs are displayed in the shop-windows of all the towns and cities, and even in the railway stations in the country one sees colored prints of his portrait hanging on the wall.

MEDICINE AS A PROFESSION.

Dr. George F. Shears, writing on the choice of medicine as a profession, contradicts the current assertion that this profession is overcrowded. He says that this is in nowise true except as concerns the crowding in of incompetents, and that the opportunity is as great to-day as ever to make a name and place for one's self as a physician. He does not think that a university course is a very essential means of attaining high success in the profession of medicine. However, though the matriculates of the medical schools are showing now a larger percentage of graduates than ever before, yet even now the proportion of those possessing college degrees is not over 25 per cent. Dr. Shears emphasizes the value of one form of preparation that is rarely remembered by students of medicine. This is the acquirement of true business habits. He does not sympathize with the idea that a doctor should be a more or less eleemosynary institution, with his eyes so fixed on science that he has no chance to collect his fees. "There

still remains in the minds of many laymen the old-world idea that a professional fee is a gratuity and differs from other obligations. A prompt and proper compensation for services rendered should be insisted upon, not as a favor, but as a right."

THE "CURES" OF CONTINENTAL EUROPE.

There is an article from the pen of the late Julian Ralph on "Famous Cures and Humbugs of Europe." The "cure" season begins in August, when some two hundred thousand or more people gather from all parts of the world to the popular resorts, such as Homburg, Carlsbad, Aix-les-Bains, and lesser-known institutions. All sorts of theories and systems prevail in these "cures." "For instance, an American-English duchess recently boasted to me of the good which had been done to her by a course which was not only new to me, but which is so strange as to be almost comical. The 'air-and-draught' cure was what she praised, and it was a remedy for cold hands and feet." The patient retires to a bedroom with great apertures instead of windows. The hands and feet are left exposed, and the strong winds in the Ardennes, where this cure is situated, blow through the bedrooms and over the extremities of the patient, and in some mysterious way their members develop a strong circulation, and are presently able to resist cold and to guarantee to themselves uninterrupted warmth for all time to come.

THE NATIONAL MAGAZINE.

MR. S. G. ANDRUS, writing in the April *National Magazine* on "Men and Affairs in Modern Mexico," takes the ground that ultimate annexation of Diaz's country by the United States is within speaking distance, "when it is learned that no less than \$28,000,000 of capital from the States is invested in property and agriculture in Mexico, that the city of Chicago has forty Mexican investment companies, sending more than \$1,000,000 a month into the republic; that in the past five years a majority of 1,200 Mexican investment companies have been organized in the United States, and that in the city of Monterey alone, \$10,000,000 was recently invested by Americans in a single manufacturing enterprise." Mr. Andrus makes the statement that the Standard Oil interests have invested, in the past two years, more than \$18,000,000 in Mexican mines, and has in hand deals which will necessitate \$40,000,000 more.

A SHIP CANAL ACROSS FLORIDA.

Mrs. Leonora Beck Ellis tells of the project to dig a ship canal across southern Florida. Such a canal would help chiefly the exports of New Orleans, Galveston, and Mobile and neighboring ports. The foreign commerce of these points aggregates at present three hundred million dollars, and they have a coastwise trade estimated as being larger. Such a canal must be at least a hundred miles long, but it will run through a region little above sea level, will have natural waterways to help it, and a soil easy to excavate. There are two main routes discussed, known as the upper and the lower,—one from the mouth of the Suwanee River to the St. Mary's, the other from Charlotte Harbor, on the Gulf, to Jupiter Inlet, on the Atlantic, *via* the Caloosahatchee River and lakes Hickpochee and Okechobee. There are other articles on the newly elected Governor Pardee, of California, the first native

governor of that State; "The New Berlin, a Monument to Wilhelm II.;" "The New Socialism and the Trusts," and "How Women are Winning the Ballot."

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

IN *Frank Leslie's* for April, there is a sketch of Pope Leo XIII. by Federico Paronelli, and a study of child labor in the United States by William S. Waudby, which we have reviewed among the "Leading Articles of the Month." A curious account of "The Fire-Walkers of Fiji" is contributed by Walter Burke. Fiji is a British crown colony, and in coronation week the Fiji Islanders prepared to celebrate by fire-walking. This ceremony consists in digging a great hole in the earth to make an oven, on which is put a collection of large rounded stones up to a foot in length. The stones are heated until they are literally red-hot, when the fire-walkers tread on them barefooted. Physicians have made the most careful tests of the great heat of this strange pavement, and have been unable to find that the devotees have prepared themselves in any way to lessen the effect on their extremities. Scientific observers have estimated that the heat must be hundreds of degrees above the boiling point, and yet the fire-walkers show not the slightest sign of any burns. Professor Langley and other scientists have investigated the phenomenon without any more satisfactory explanation than that the rapid evaporation from the surface of the skin taking place when the intensely hot stones come near it creates a momentary protection.

"The Autobiography of a Shop Girl" gives a very good idea of the life of the young women who wait on us in the big metropolitan stores. Their salaries range from five dollars to twenty-five dollars a week, with occasionally thirty dollars to exceptionally competent girls in the silk, fur, or suit departments. A brief sketch of N. C. Goodwin, the actor, and a number of short stories, with many illustrations, round out this issue.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

IN the *World's Work* for April, there are articles on "A Day's Work of a Railroad President," by Mr. F. N. Barksdale, and "The Coming Automobile," by Mr. Henry Norman, which we have quoted from in another department. An account of the Young Men's Christian Association and its present work gives a striking idea of the varied and important work done by this "Vast Machine for Social Betterment." One of the most interesting departments of the association described here is that devoted to naval men. For instance, the Brooklyn branch is the regular club house of sailors with shore leave in New York Harbor, the average daily attendance being 365, and the average number of lodgers 125. When a Brooklyn policeman finds an intoxicated sailor, he takes him to the association building, instead of to the station-house, now. Sailors who have been robbed of their money and left unconscious on the street are sometimes found by the association people, taken to the naval building, sobered up, and hurried back to ship before their leave of absence has expired. Such work encourages sailors to leave allotments with the association. This is an arrangement by which the sailor can assign a part of his wages to the Young Men's Christian Association, about the only way the average sailor can be made to save anything.

The Brooklyn branch receives more than five thousand dollars a month in this way. It even acts as a general business agent, and when the sailors get into trouble in any part of the world they write to the secretary to help them out. This writer says the Young Men's Christian Association has now property worth thirty million dollars.

LEMON-RAISING,—A NEW AMERICAN INDUSTRY.

W. S. Harwood describes the growing industry of lemon-raising in southern California, where there is only about five degrees difference between summer and winter temperature and lemons mature all the year around. Only a few years ago, Americans had no lemon-supply except that from Sicily. So rapidly has the industry progressed in southern California that last year there were shipped out of the State nearly six hundred thousand boxes of lemons, although nearly half of the four hundred thousand lemon trees have not yet reached bearing age. The climate is perfect, but the water-supply is deficient by at least twelve inches of annual rainfall. The extra water is obtained from great reservoirs in the mountains near by that hold the rains in check by means of enormous walls of masonry. The water is piped down into the valleys to the ranches, and meters measure the quantity used by each grower. This industry has been built up in spite of the small duty of one cent a pound on imported lemons, and in spite of the fact that California pioneers had to compete with the cheap labor of Sicily,—from 30 to 45 cents a day for men pickers, and from 6 to 12 cents for women pickers. In California, the planters have to pay from \$1.25 up to \$2.00 a day for the same work.

WOES OF THE EUROPEAN NEWSPAPER CORRESPONDENT.

Mr. Wolf von Schierbrand tells of the woes of newspaper correspondents in Europe, and especially in Berlin, where he was a prominent member of the craft. He shows how impossible it is for a correspondent in Europe to be straightforward and direct in reports of interviews and news, owing to the impossibility of quoting the source of information, and still more to the danger of punishment if disagreeable facts are plainly stated. He says the correspondent in Europe must be in the thick of social activity, and must be liberal, too, with tips to subordinates of the men who can give news. The leading correspondents must have homes of comfort, and must throw them open to the official and unofficial world at stated intervals,—say, three or four times per season. Their private fortunes, or their incomes, must be large enough to admit of that. Their annual expenditures cannot be less than five thousand dollars, and may exceed fifteen thousand dollars. The *London Times*, for instance, pays its correspondents on a liberal scale, salaries of from five thousand dollars to ten thousand dollars being the rule; yet the majority of them find it necessary to make up regular deficiencies in their exchequer out of their own private funds.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

MR. CHARLES A. CONANT begins the April *Atlantic Monthly* with an article on "The Function of the Stock and Produce Exchanges," intended to disabuse the minds of the good people who have come to regard these institutions as mere gambling-houses. A stock exchange is, Mr. Conant explains, not at all an elaborate Monte Carlo, and it has very useful and, indeed, necessary functions in a complex system. The

fundamental function is to give mobility to capital. Without the exchanges, the stock and bonds of a share company cannot be placed to advantage. The publicity of stock exchange quotations gives the holder of a security not only the direct benefit afforded by such publicity for the moment, but gives him, free of charge, the opinion of the most competent financiers in the capitals of Europe and America. A second benefit of these markets is in affording a test of the utility to the community of the enterprises asking the support of investors. Further, the produce exchanges afford a form of insurance. They enable a man with contracts to execute in the future to ascertain to-day what will be the cost of his raw material in the future, and by buying options to know that he will get the raw material at that cost, even though it may rise in the open market above the price which he could afford to pay for it in view of the price at which he has contracted to deliver his finished products. Still another important influence of the stock exchange is on the money market. The possession by any country of a large mass of salable securities affords a powerful guarantee against the effects of a severe money panic. Finally, the stock market, bringing all values to a level in a public market, determines the direction of production, and Mr. Conant shows that it would be difficult to imagine how this could be accomplished in any other way.

EMERSON AND HERMAN GRIMM.

There is an unusually interesting literary contribution in this number of the *Atlantic* in the letters between Emerson and Herman Grimm, the German prose writer and critic, the correspondence being edited by F. W. Holls. The German critic and the American philosopher met once in 1873, in Florence. This is Grimm's interesting impression: "A tall, spare figure, with that innocent smile on his lips which belongs to children and to men of the highest rank. His daughter Ellen, who looked out for him, accompanied him. Highest culture elevates man above the mere national, and renders him perfectly simple. Emerson had unassuming dignity of manner,—I seemed to have known him from my youth."

There is an exceedingly pleasant whimsical essay by Mr. S. M. Crothers, entitled "The Honorable Points of Ignorance." An anonymous study reviews "Makers of the Drama of To-day" with breadth and authority; the new installment of Mr. Arthur Sherburne Hardy's novel, "His Daughter First," shows that the author of "Passe Rose" has not lost his distinction as a story-writer; there is a travel sketch, "In Old Brittany," by Anna S. Schmidt; an appreciation of Horace E. Scudder, former editor of the *Atlantic*, and an article on "The Social Unrest," by Mr. J. H. Gray, who assumes that labor and capital are to find their peace in the immediate future by collective bargaining, in the form of working agreements, between organized employers on the one side and organized workmen on the other.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

"A JEFFERSONIAN DEMOCRAT," writing in the March number of the *North American* on "The Venezuela Affair and the Monroe Doctrine," takes the ground that the original interpretation of the doctrine excludes any such construction as has recently been put upon it by foreign creditors who claim the right to sequester the customs duties of the Latin-

American states for the payment of ordinary debts. The theory of Señor Calvo, which seems to be adopted by this writer, is that so far as ordinary debts are concerned, foreign creditors, in the event of a default of payment, should be relegated for their payment to the courts of the debtor country exclusively, and that an enforcement of payment should not be attempted by diplomatic pressure, much less by acts of war.

THE NEW NILE RESERVOIR.

Writing of the object-lesson in expansion presented by the completion of the new Nile reservoir at Assouan, Mr. Frederic C. Penfield remarks that this great engineering achievement should have no more interested observers than in the United States, where the irrigation engineer is succeeding the railway-builder as a developer of the Western and Southwestern domains. The industry that will be chiefly benefited in Egypt will be cane culture. It seems that during the years when the Cuban crop was curtailed by war and political uncertainties much French and British capital was invested in sugar enterprises in Upper Egypt. The valley of the Nile is well adapted by climatic and other advantages for sugar-raising, and it is said that the Nile cane is of exceptional quality. It is predicted that the crop will be trebled in the coming five years.

OUR ACTUAL NAVAL STRENGTH.

Admiral Melville shows how dependent the national naval strength is upon the auxiliaries required by the fleet. Supremacy on the sea, as he shows, can only be secured by that nation which is rich in natural, manufacturing, and material resources, and whose people possess or can acquire the sea habit. As an illustration of the importance of naval auxiliaries, Admiral Melville cites the fact that Great Britain has invested from three to four times as much money in such auxiliaries as in battle-ships. These auxiliaries include training-ships, torpedo boats, supply vessels, cruisers, arsenals, docks, and naval stations, as well as countless incidentals necessary to supplement or to support the vessels of the battle line. The immense indirect cost of warfare is illustrated by the fact that the Spanish-American War cost over a million dollars a day for over a year, although in less than three months from the time of the declaration of war the Spanish fleets had been destroyed or captured and all open resistance by the Spanish troops had ceased. Admiral Melville reviews the various elements of our naval strength, especially our coal resources, our food-supply, our transportation facilities, our schools of technology, and what may be termed our national "sea habit." In concluding his article, Admiral Melville shows the importance of an adequate and efficient navy as a factor for peace.

LEGAL PENALTIES AND PUBLIC OPINION.

As an alternative for the modern system of penalties for criminal acts, Mr. Julian Hawthorne suggests the return to the system in vogue in colonial days by which persons having been convicted of law-breaking were sentenced to be branded with a letter or other mark indicating the nature of the crime of which they had been convicted. Having put this mark upon the guilty person, Mr. Hawthorne would permit him to go about in the world, and to mingle, if he chose, with better creatures than himself, yet being continually kept in mind of his crime. "It would, in short, put him in much the same condition as that provided by the divine law of conscience." While this seems but a slight punishment

for the murderer, Mr. Hawthorne reminds us that punishment is not the object which our enlightened public sentiment demands, but the reformation of the criminal. The mere consciousness of bearing an indelible mark, the dread of its revelation to the public eye, would, in Mr. Hawthorne's opinion, operate to make the man hesitate many times before doing evil again.

CANADIAN RECIPROCITY.

The Hon. J. W. Longley, the attorney-general of Nova Scotia, reviews the various attempts to secure trade reciprocity between Canada and the United States. He points out that during the last few years the United States has profited more by Canadian trade than any other nation in the world. While the imports from Great Britain by the Canadian people for the fiscal year ending June, 1902, were \$49,206,062, during the same period the imports from the United States were \$120,814,750. Canada's exports to Great Britain, however, have been very much greater than her exports to the United States. For the year 1901, Canadian exports to the United States amounted to \$70,000,000, and to Great Britain to \$105,000,000. It is believed that the figures for 1902 will show no great change in the proportion. The American tariff is much higher than the Canadian tariff, while the British market, of course, is absolutely open and free; so that many articles produced in Canada that are much needed in the United States are diverted to Great Britain.

RIGHTS AND METHODS OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Mr. Albert S. Bolles takes the ground that labor unions should be required to organize legally, like other individuals associated for a distinct industrial purpose, so that responsibility may attach to their conduct. He also holds that so long as members of the unions are at enmity with their employers and consider a state of open or intermittent warfare as their true status or condition, their employers are justified in not recognizing the unions. And, in fact, it is questionable whether such associations should be permitted to exist at all. And the same doubt may be raised in regard to corporations which entertain toward their employees a similar spirit of aggression.

POLICE METHODS IN LONDON.

Josiah Flynt, whose studies of tramp life and the "under-world" in American cities have frequently appeared in our magazines, contributes an interesting paper on the London police system. The most striking facts, from the American point of view, that his observations reveal are: (1) that the force is composed mainly of honest and conscientious men; (2) that politics is not allowed to play any part in the management and direction of the organization; (3) that Londoners receive, in exchange for the taxes levied for the support of the force, a protection of life and property which makes London one of the safest cities in the world. The most striking difference between the London police and the police forces in the United States, as regards management, is that the former is an imperial force. As to police corruption in London, there is very little to report. Mr. Flynt found no corruption which could be compared with the blackmailing system for which the New York police have been so long notorious. "When a gambling-den is suspected, clever men are told to watch it until there can be no doubt that illegal gaming is going on. Then the raid takes place, the guilty parties are brought into court, and the magistrate or

judge gives them their punishment with very little delay. Appeals are seldom granted, and the Londoners are spared the disgusting postponements and legal subterfuges by which so many guilty gamblers escape imprisonment in the United States. Richard Canfield and his alleged gaming-house could not exist a week in London, if it be true that his 'dive' was run as openly as has been stated. The place would not only be raided, but Canfield would go to prison. Such a place might be able to run secretly for a while, but it would have to enjoy great luck to keep open for weeks."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Hamlin Garland writes appreciatively of the work of Mr. Howells in his article entitled "Sanity in Fiction;" Mr. W. D. McCrackan contributes an article on "Mrs. Eddy's Relation to Christian Science;" the Rev. John T. Driscoll writes on "Philosophy and Science at the Dawn of the Twentieth Century," and President Joseph Smith, of the reorganized Church of Latter-Day Saints, discusses "Polygamy in the United States: Its Political Significance."

THE ARENA.

IN his article on "Law and Human Progress," contributed to the *Arena* for March, Chief Justice Walter Clark, of the North Carolina Supreme Court, reviews the various changes that mark the progress of constitutional and statute law, from the point of view of social development. These changes are most notable in the departments of labor legislation, the rights of married women, the law of private corporations, and in the criminal law.

The municipal ownership of many quasi-public institutions seems likely to greatly modify our jurisprudence in the near future.

THE MOROCCAN QUESTION.

Mr. Edwin Maxey expresses the conviction that the trouble in Morocco may at any time develop complications that will convulse Europe. It is clear enough that reconstruction is a necessity in Morocco, but the question how, when, and by whom is still unanswered. Mr. Maxey shows that the jealousies of the great powers of Europe rather than any inherent strength of her own will determine the future of Morocco. England's interests would impel her either to maintain a *status quo* or else to back Spain. Italy, he thinks, would concede to France a free hand in Morocco in return for a like concession by France to her in Tripoli. In fact, it has been asserted that such an agreement already exists between the two powers. Germany's attitude, like that of Great Britain, is in favor of the maintenance of the *status quo*. The interest of the United States, at present, is, of course, purely a commercial one.

THE INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM IN OREGON.

Mr. W. S. U'Ren gives an account of the movement in Oregon for the initiative and referendum. This writer states that Oregon's experience shows that the politicians are at least as anxious as any other class of Americans to improve our system of government. The referendum measure was put forward especially by the newspapers as a non-partisan demand by the people, and in this way it made many friends in all parties. When the amendment went to popular vote, last June, it was adopted by the vote of 62,024 in its

favor to 5,668 against it. This is the first amendment to the Oregon constitution that has been approved by the people, though many have been rejected.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Duane Mowry writes on "The Passing of Church Influence;" Mr. B. O. Flower on "Giuseppe Mazzini;" Mr. Bernard G. Richards on "Zionism and Socialism;" Carrie L. Grout on "The Rights of Children;" and Dr. Henrik G. Petersen on "Hypno-Suggestion as a Therapeutic Agent."

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

IN an article in *Gunton's* for March on "Importance of Currency Reform," the Hon. Charles N. Fowler dwells on the methods employed for the protection of national bank notes against default. He calls attention to the fact that, according to the special report made by the Comptroller of the Currency, if all the United States bonds which were deposited with the Government from 1863 to 1901, inclusive, to secure the payment of the notes of the national banks which had failed, had been lost, an average annual tax of only 8-1000 of 1 per cent. upon the notes outstanding during that thirty-eight years would have paid all the notes of the failed banks that had not been redeemed. This seems to substantiate Mr. Fowler's contention that "a credit currency can be made as safe as any currency." The two essential qualifications of a sound credit currency laid down by Mr. Fowler are these: first, there should be an adequate coin reserve; and, second, there should be a mechanical device for constant, swift, and frequent redemptions.

EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Dr. Theodore de Laguna points out various evils in the educational system of the Philippines as at present administered, and offers several suggestions in the line of reform. The greater number of American teachers now in the islands, in the opinion of this writer, should be sent home. Primary instruction should be intrusted to well-paid native teachers, and should also be invariably given in the local dialect. In the grammar schools established in the larger towns, however, part of the teaching force should be American, and the pupils should be taught English. Municipal schools should be supported in great part by insular, or at least provincial, funds. Suitable schoolhouses should be built and furnished. Text-books should be prepared in the native dialects for use in the primary schools. Wherever there has been established a municipal government, primary education should be made compulsory.

THE ARID LANDS AND EDUCATION.

Mr. Augustus Jacobson has a plan for the administration of arid lands now held by the Government which cannot be utilized until made available by irrigation. These lands, in his view, should not be sold, but should be held permanently and made to produce revenue for school purposes. They should be subdivided into tracts of ten acres each, and the revenue arising from their use should be appropriated to educate the children of the nation, in order to help equalize the opportunities of life for the young. The arid lands, in Mr. Jacobson's opinion, can be made to furnish the means to give every boy and girl in the United States all the education he or she can take.

OTHER ARTICLES

There are editorial articles in this number of *Gunton's* on the new trust law and "Poverty as a Character-BUILDER." Mr. W. C. Jameson Reid furnishes the usual monthly review of foreign affairs. A paper on the "Opening of the New Railroad in Cuba," by J. W. Davies, has been quoted from in another department.

THE YALE AND HARVARD ECONOMIC QUARTERLIES.

WRITING in the current number of the *Yale Review* on "The Passing of Pacific Blockade," Prof. Theodore S. Woolsey suggests that in cases where some form of pressure on recalcitrant nations is necessary, two courses are left to the aggrieved power: (1) what the Frenchmen call "intelligent destruction,"—that is to say, punitive methods without seizure of territory; or (2) some form of arbitration. As between these two methods, there can be, as Professor Woolsey intimates, no hesitation whatever from the American point of view.

The subject of the bonds of industrial corporations, to which comparatively little attention has been paid heretofore in this country, is treated by Mr. Lyman S. Spitzer, who analyzes the capitalization, assets, and liabilities of a number of the leading corporations of this class. Adopting the comparison instituted by Mr. Charles R. Flint of the earnings of forty-seven of the more prominent industrial corporations, not including the Standard Oil Company, with those of thirty-seven railroads, it appears that the earnings of the industrials averaged over 11 per cent. on the market value of the industrial stocks, and more than 7 per cent. on the par of the capitalization. The thirty-seven railroads averaged 4½ per cent. of the market value, and a little more of the par value of their capitalization. Mr. Spitzer, therefore, concludes that, in general, industrial bonds, at least those of the large consolidations, are amply secured, and are a stable and desirable investment.

THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF ECONOMICS.

In the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, published by Harvard University, Mr. Frederick Kellogg Blue, of San Francisco, gives an analysis of the efforts of society to appraise its own welfare in the valuation of gifts and services of various kinds, both present and future. Dr. O. M. W. Sprague, of Harvard, writes on "Branch Banking in the United States," weighing carefully the advantages and disadvantages of the proposal. This writer duly considers the disadvantages of the plan at the present stage of economic development in this country. He believes that present tendencies toward concentration and integration of industries, together with the greater interdependence of industrial and financial institutions, render it doubtful whether it is expedient for the Government to hasten another step in the process, at least until we are able to see the outcome of the present tendency. A still more serious objection is that it would tend to displace the present arrangement under which banks in the smaller cities and towns are controlled by the men interested in the development of local industries and thoroughly acquainted with local conditions and the interests and possibilities of would-be borrowers.

In his article on "Occupations in Their Relation to

the Tariff," Mr. Edward Atkinson analyzes the statistics of gainful occupations in the United States for the purpose of determining what proportion of the workers would be directly injured by the immediate removal of protective duties. He concludes that less than 1,000,000 of the 20,000,000 engaged in such occupations would be injuriously affected by such removal, and challenges any one to find a larger number.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

IN the *Nineteenth Century* for March, Professor Vambéry, of Budapest, writes on "The Agitation Against England's Power." As a friend of England, this writer protests that the English manufacturers "take things far too easily, and, trusting too much to their own supremacy, many an advantage has been lost; the pupils have outstripped their master, and anger and envy are of little avail now. Nothing but an energetic pulling of one's self together, a thorough clearance of all the old system of education, can render assistance here."

THE EXTINCTION OF RARE BRITISH BIRDS.

Mr. R. Bosworth Smith concludes his charming essay on the raven by a lament that so many of England's most interesting birds and animals are ceasing to exist. He says: "The bustard and the bittern, owing to the increase of the population and the reclamation of the fens, are things of the long past. The buzzard, the harrier, and the peregrine falcon are becoming rarer and rarer. The fork-tailed kite is as dead as Queen Anne. The Cornish chough is nearly as extinct as the Cornish language." He suggests that England should imitate the Americans and create a preserve for interesting wild animals, such as would otherwise be extirpated.

THE AVERAGE HINDU IN A NEW LIGHT.

In an article bearing the altogether misleading title of "Reincarnation," a Brahmin, Marayan Harischandra, describes the Hindu from an altogether new point of view. The ways of a Hindu, he says, are as clear as a crystal brook. His motives of conduct can always be known to a certainty, and his rules of conduct are as clearly defined as the laws of gravitation. His entire conduct depends on his belief in reincarnation and his doctrine of Karma, which is equivalent to the Christian doctrine "As thou hast sown, so shalt thou reap." There is very little basic difference between the principles of Brahminism and Christianity.

"But what is the average Hindu in his dealings with his neighbor? Even this: an ideal 'Christian,' save in one thing—where the interests of his loved ones are at stake. Then the saintliest Hindu becomes a sinner. He would see the whole world go to ruin if thereby he could bring happiness to his loved one—be it parent or child, wife or mistress. From his earliest childhood, the Hindu is taught one practical virtue,—to love his own people. Reverence for parents, love for brothers and sisters, constitute his chief moral training in his youth; from that, the love for wife and child follows in the course of nature. It becomes the keynote of his external conduct."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Sir Robert Anderson pleads more passionately than before for the imprisonment for life of all professional

criminals; Mr. W. F. Lord dissertates upon the Brontë novels; Mr. L. Douglas discourses on the real Cimabue; Mr. I. C. Medd gives us a well-informed fact-and-figure-crammed paper upon agricultural education in Holland.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

WITH the exception of Dr. E. J. Dillon's paper on "The Reign of Terror in Macedonia," there is nothing in the March *Contemporary Review* calling for special note. We have quoted briefly elsewhere from Mr. H. W. Nevins's article "The Chance in Ireland," and from Mr. W. R. Lawson's on the waking up of British railways.

THE EFFECT OF SCIENCE ON RELIGION.

Archdeacon Wilson contributes to the March *Contemporary* a paper on "The Influence of Scientific Training on the Reception of Religious Truth," from which we quote the following passage:

"Now, the most permanent, and perhaps the most important, effect of scientific training is to compel the ultimate adoption in theology of some scientific method of investigation, and to force us to find some firm ground in experience, and in the nature of things, for those beliefs which have been common to the whole human race and form the foundation of religion. The effect is, in a word, to compel the treatment of theology as a science; and, so far as the method is applicable, as an inductive science. None of us can as yet see all that is implied in this. But this, at any rate, can be seen: that the effect is to compel us to assume the reality of the phenomena with which religious experience is concerned, and to make them the foundation of faith. The prevalence of scientific method demands serious attention to the science of theology, as one dealing with facts of the highest importance, and submits to verification every stage of the inductions of that science. The ultimate result is to include religion in the realm of universal law."

LABOR AND TRADE-UNIONISM.

Mr. Haldane, M.P., reprints an address on "The Laborer and the Law," which he read some weeks ago to a working-class audience. In discussing the question of the monetary liability of trade-unions for the acts of their agents, he says the only way to keep the benefit funds free from liability would be to separate the benefit organization from the union organization. Mr. Haldane recommends that the obscurity of the present law should be cleared up in the following manner:

"The appointment of a small commission of experts to report upon the state of the law, and to say what it is, how it can be expressed, and what it ought to be. Such a commission should be small, and, above all, should not be representative of special points of view. It ought to be of a judicial or scientific character. A distinguished judge who has not manifested any particular tendencies in regard to labor questions in the course of his judgments might easily be found to preside over it. He might be assisted by another lawyer of eminence, selected in the same fashion. For the third member of the commission, and I think three would be the best number to constitute it, I should like to see chosen some distinguished man,—and there are several alive,—who has had experience, in high administrative office, of the working out of trade-union questions. Such a commission would frame a report, which,

of course, would not be conclusive, as to the remedy. But the conclusions to that report should be embodied in a bill and submitted for the consideration of Parliament by the government of the day."

RUSSIAN LIBERALISM AND THE GOVERNMENT.

Mr. Felix Volkovsky, in a paper entitled "The Revival of Russian Liberalism," gives a very interesting account of the open revolt caused among the members of the local governments owing to the policy adopted by the government in regard to the committees recently appointed to inquire into the needs of Russian agriculture. The zemstvos, which were excluded from the deliberations of these committees, protested, and in one case held a counter-meeting in Moscow, whereupon several of the members were summoned to St. Petersburg to receive a reprimand from the Czar. Others lost their posts, were threatened with exile, or sent to live on their estates. Little petitions of rights were drawn up in several provinces, the parties responsible refusing to withdraw them. The Karkoff Zemstvo succeeded in passing a resolution that a complaint should be lodged in the Senate against the unjust strictures of the local governor; and they defeated the governor when he threatened to close their session if they did not revoke the resolution.

SOUTH AFRICAN LABOR.

Mr. E. Jerome Dyer contributes a paper on this question, the gist of which is a new suggestion,—that England should import Moplar from southern India. He says they are incomparably superior to the Matabele, and can be obtained at much less than the wage of African native labor ruling before the war. The Moplar are skilled miners; whereas Mr. Dyer asserts that Chinamen absolutely refuse to work underground.

"The Moplar is, physically, morally, and socially superior to the best African, Chinese, or other colored laborer, as he is temperate in habits, obedient, industrious, and good-tempered. He is law-abiding, devoted to his family and loyal to his chiefs, and no fear need be entertained that difficulty would be experienced in returning him to his native land at the termination of his contract. As a safeguard in this respect, he should sign a contract before leaving India, agreeing that only 15 per cent. or thereabouts of his wage should be paid to him personally in Africa; 50 per cent. should be handed regularly to his family, if any, in India, and the balance should be paid to him on his return to India on the proper completion of his contract."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is another paper by "Voces Catholicæ," this time entitled "The Abbé Loisy and the Catholic Reform Movement." Mme. Duclaux contributes one of her charming French sketches. The Countess Martenengo-Cesaresco contributes a paper entitled "The Modern Pastoral in Italy."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

IN the *Fortnightly* for March, Col. G. E. Church has an important paper on "Canada and Its Trade Routes," in which he pleads for a new Canadian Pacific Railway to run at a distance of from two hundred to four hundred miles from the present line. Colonel Church lays great stress on Canada's agricultural future, and upon the inadequacy of the present transport

system. The production of wheat per acre is already, in Canada, double that of the United States; and in the Northwest Territories there are 205,000,000 acres of arable land, of which not more than 900,000 are at present under cultivation. But geographical conditions have forced all Canada's railways to run south of Lake Winnipeg; and strategically, her railways are in close touch with the United States frontier. It is therefore proposed to build a new transcontinental railway which would cross the country to the north of Lake Winnipeg. The line would take an almost direct course from Quebec to the northern end of Lake Winnipeg, reaching the Pacific coast at Port Simpson. It would be 2,839 miles long, or from 250 miles to 550 miles shorter than any existing Pacific railway. The line would also have the advantage of crossing the mountains at an elevation above sea level one-half that of any other Pacific railway north of Mexico. Other features of the scheme are brought out in an article contributed to this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

FREE TRADE.

Mr. A. C. Pigou contributes a logical defense of free trade, from which we quote the following:

"Unless England found that she could get the food she needs with less expenditure of effort by devoting herself to manufactures and exchanging them for foreign food materials than she could by growing all the food she wanted herself, she would not adopt this roundabout method of getting it. A tax either on foreign goods or on English manufactures, whether levied at our ports or at those of the United States, will diminish trade, and will compel us to change from the less to the more expensive way of getting some of our food. It is totally irrelevant to reply that America taxes English manufactures, and that nevertheless we trade with her. The point is that if she did not tax them we should do still more trade with her; whereas, on the other hand, if we were to retaliate and tax her exports to us, we should do still less. By her tariff, we are compelled to expend more effort than we should otherwise need to do in getting our grain and cotton; were we to set up a tariff, it would cost us more effort still."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. R. S. Rait writes on "The Tercentenary of the Annexation of England," the "annexation" being the coming of James VI. of Scotland and I. of England. There is a literary supplement of fifty pages devoted to a play by Mr. W. Somerset Maugham. Sir Hiram Maxim writes in a humorous vein on Chinese labor, citing American experience with reference to the importation of Chinese into South Africa.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

ONE of the principal papers in the *National Review* for March is Mr. R. J. Boyd's scathing exposure of the Brussels Sugar Convention. Mr. Boyd is managing director of the great firm of James Keiller & Co., but he writes from the general public point of view. He lays stress upon the fact that the British West Indian sugar industry has failed, quite apart from the damage inflicted upon it by the Continental bounties.

"Sugar still comes to this country from the West Indies in small quantities, it is true, largely because it is in such a very different state to the Continental product. No two West Indian parcels are alike. There is no standard whatever, and every parcel has to be landed

and sold by auction. In addition to this, it loses a large amount of weight through drainage, and reaches its ultimate end in a very different condition to that produced by the enterprising German. Small wonder, then, that the West Indian has been unable to compete in this market. It must also be remembered that in importing raw sugar to this country from the West Indies, freight and charges have to be paid on a large proportion of waste material which must be eliminated in the process of refining, and with freight at 25 shillings per ton, as against 5 shillings from Germany and France, it is little wonder that the business is unprofitable."

If the beet-sugar industry of Europe were curtailed, its place would be taken, not by sugar from the West Indies, but from the Cuban producer and the American sugar-refiner. Another point raised by Mr. Boyd is that it will be quite impossible to ascertain whether imported confectionery and other goods made from sugar are made from the bounty-fed article or not.

RADICAL OXFORD.

"The Lament of an Oxford Tory," the Hon. Edward Cadogan, to wit, is caused by the successful onslaught which Radicalism and allied movements have made upon that old center of reaction. Mr. Cadogan is simply horrified by the decline of Toryism indicated by the following revolutionary changes:

"In Oxford, the opposition leaders are indeed working with a will. The walls of the university common rooms and public meeting-places are continually echoing to the forcible and vociferous denunciations of Mr. Lloyd-George, the graceful epigram and seductive persuasion of Lord Rosebery, the overpowering eloquence of Mr. John Morley, and the volubility of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. At one time, some of our colleges even fostered the opinions of the so-called Pro-Boers, until the ubiquitous generals asked these individuals for something more substantial than their sympathy. Certain of our college fellows rushed into print in a manner which startled the stagnant feelings of their more reserved and more pedantic brethren. One of the first indignation meetings against the government education bill took place in Oxford, and there are perhaps few places in England where this measure has met with so much hysterical animosity. The 'imperial idea,' so far from being a term to conjure with, is in Oxford dismissed with the sneer of contempt. Even the question of home rule is countenanced as a question thoroughly worthy of consideration, if not of approval. In fact, when it is said that all sections of the opposition find their admirers and followers in the university, even the Irish Nationalist party must not be excluded from the category."

There is not a single Conservative club in Oxford which is supported either by great numbers or by any enthusiasm; and the Union Society discusses problems which savor of Hyde Park socialism.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW.

IN the *Monthly Review* for March, the series of articles by Austro-Hungarians on the future of their empire is continued.

Count Banffy agrees with last month's contributors that there is not the slightest foundation for the belief that the dismemberment of the empire is probable. Both Austria and Hungary are aware that, failing the

common bond which insures them twofold independence, neither could survive except through the hardest of struggles. He refuses to take the Pan-German party seriously, and cannot imagine the realization of its ideas at any distance of time. Dr. Ritter von Starzynski, leader of the Polish Conservative party, urges that what is required is the reconstruction of the state on its natural basis,—that is, provincial autonomy and equality of national rights, and the restriction of business transacted in the Reichsrath to the legislative labors common to all provinces.

"THE RESTORATION OF OXFORD."

The Rev. James H. F. Pelle has an elaborate article under this heading, in which he makes some suggestions which will probably be regarded as revolutionary in university quarters, and which strikingly resemble certain proposed reforms in American universities. He points out that the age at which boys go to college has risen steadily, with the result that the modern undergraduate is too old for the rules and restrictions of a school; while, on the other hand, duty and responsibility are not yet presented to him in the convincing form which they wear in actual life. He proposes that:

"1. Boys should go to the public schools at eleven or twelve at the latest, and proceed to the university at about sixteen. The age limit for open scholarships should be fixed at sixteen instead of nineteen.

"2. There should be a three years' course, with residence (honor and pass, as at present), for the Bachelor of Arts degree. The curriculum would have to be modified somewhat to suit the young students, but not, I think, as much as might be supposed. Able boys are quite fit at sixteen to read classics and history, and certainly science, on an intelligent and comprehensive sys-

tem; and any attempt to lower the pass standard would land the explorer at once on the bed-rock.

"3. There should be a further three years' course for the degree of Master of Arts and Bachelor of Divinity, Law, Medicine, Science, and Letters. This course would be confined to those who in the earlier course had shown themselves capable of serious study, not all those or only those who had been placed in the first class in any examination. The second degree would be given (not necessarily by examination) on work done by the student, and selected within wide limits by himself, especial importance being attached to original work in any branch."

The majority of men would pass out of the university into active life at nineteen, instead of at twenty-two or twenty-three.

MR. BULL AND MR. BALFOUR.

This month's stock of satirical verse is devoted to a dialogue entitled "The Stock Exchange," between John Bull and his prime minister. Mr. Bull protests against the indolent, gambling spirit of the age; and Mr. Balfour retorts that it is not the business of the legislator to guard public morals.

OTHER ARTICLES.

General Brabant replies to that part of De Wet's book which deals with the siege of Wepener. Mr. Andrew Lang reviews Mr. Myer's "Human Personality." Mr. Sidney Colvin writes an article on Keats' "Ode to a Nightingale," and reproduces in facsimile for the first time the manuscript of the famous poem, which, it appears, recently passed into the hands of the Earl of Crewe. The changes subsequently made by Keats in the original draft are few, but all are distinct improvements.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

BOTH the numbers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February are excellent. We have noticed elsewhere M. Thoulet's paper on submarine volcanoes; M. Dastre's on the question whether alcohol is a food or a poison; and M. Loti's visit to the Theosophists of Madras.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECT OF RELIGION.

M. Ferdinand Brunetière contributes to the second February number a remarkable paper on religion regarded as sociology. He quotes with warm approval a definition given by a M. Guyau to the effect that religion is a universal sociomorphism,—that is to say, that a mythical or mystic sociology, conceived as containing the secret of all things, is the foundation of all religions. Religion is not anthromorphism, but a universal and imaginative extension of all the relations, good or bad, which can exist between wills, of all the social relations of war or peace, of hatred or of friendship, of obedience or of revolt, of protection or of authority, of submission, of respect, of devotion, or of love. M. Brunetière has shown already in a previous paper that in the evolution of Comtism religion and sociology are identical. Comte's sociology is nothing but an effort to realize his kingdom of God on earth, and M. Brunetière devotes the present paper to showing how this conception of religion must be completed in order to be utilized. He endeavors to show that, just as there is a

certain natural link between pleasure and pain, so also truth and error are not always, nor even ordinarily, separated the one from the other; indeed, they are more often neighbors than is generally believed. Naturally enough, M. Brunetière lays great stress upon Comte's criticism of Protestantism,—that it consisted originally of nothing but a protest against the intellectual foundations of the old social order. The whole paper is intensely interesting, but too long for us to follow here the course of the argument. M. Brunetière intends to devote another paper to the thesis that social questions are moral questions, and that moral questions are religious questions.

VILLAGE INDUSTRIES IN RUSSIA.

Mme. Bentzon has an excellent article on village industries in Russia. The communistic organization of the *mir* naturally exercises a profound influence upon these industries. She shows the difficulties which beset the workers, and the way in which they are oppressed by the middleman who buys their products. It is the opinion of the economists that the intellectual faculties of the people must first be raised in order to enable them to realize the benefits of coöperation. She draws a terrible picture of the exaggerated scientific idealism of the Intellectuals in Russia, side by side with the deplorable obscurantism of the Conservatives; and over all a government which makes, for every step in ad-

vance, two steps in the rear. Happily, there exists an elect body of patient and strong Liberals, who work in the cause of elementary education and strive to organize rural credit on solid foundations, to encourage and stimulate the spirit of initiative, and to teach the peasants to count on themselves.

THE TRIPOLITAIN.

M. Pinon, in an article on the Tripolitain in the first February number, expresses the opinion that France, since the value of the Turkish provinces in Africa is small, could without injuring herself cease to be interested in them if the Tripolitain problem led to no complications as far as the Soudan, if it did not imply a change in the balance of power in the Mediterranean, and, finally, if it did not involve the risk of reopening the burning question of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire. He notes certain action on the part of the Sublime Porte, by way of encroachment upon French spheres, committed at the moment when France was occupied in the direction of Lake Chad with the Senoussi, as a revelation of common action between the Sultan and the most powerful Mussulman organizations of northern Africa. He sees in all this a remarkable proof of the solidarity of Islam in the face of a divided Europe.

REVUE DE PARIS.

THE *Revue de Paris* for February contains a great number of interesting articles. Mr. Morton Fullerton, the new Paris correspondent of the *Times*, contributes two very charming papers, the result of a tour made by him in Burgundy, and which should be read by all those who intend to make a bicycle or automobile tour in this picturesque corner of old-world France.

THE BUSINESS VALUE OF THE RHINE.

Yet another series of articles, which may be said to be more or less geographical in character, begins in these same numbers. This is entitled "The German Rhine," and has for its object that of showing to what excellent practical use modern Germany has known how to put her famous river. Twenty-three years ago, the Rhine was still regarded simply from the tourist's point of view, and she bore on her broad waters only about a million dollars' worth of merchandise; but in twenty years,—that is to say, by the commencement of the new century,—the business done had increased to six times as much, and at the present moment the Rhine is, from a productive and economic point of view, more valuable to Germany than are all the rivers and canals of France put together! This happy state of things has been of extraordinary value to commercial Germany, and has brought increased prosperity to every town and hamlet situated on the mighty stream.

THE ART OF WRITING.

Every student of literature and every journalist possessed of a knowledge of the French language may learn something from M. Albalat's most curious paper on the corrections made in proof by Chateaubriand. The famous writer really created French style as we now know it. When correcting his works, he was never ashamed to ask, and, what is far more remarkable, to take, advice, and the writer, in this curious account of how Chateaubriand worked, is able to give many parallel passages showing the many modifications which each underwent.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Other articles concern the rôle played by education in the French Revolution. For those who regard that period as having been wholly composed of disturbing and destructive elements are, of course, far from realizing that the French Assembly made a desperate effort to reform and create as well as to destroy, and M. Barthou certainly proves that free education in a modern sense was first thought of and put into practice by the leaders of the Convention. M. Bréal attacks the oft-discussed problem of who was Homer, and at what period of the world's history the *Iliad* was composed; and M. Chavanne attempts to analyze the philosophy of Confucius, whom he considers to have been the first of the great Socialists, though in no sense a revolutionary.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE *Nouvelle Revue* contains one very remarkable article, noticed elsewhere,—namely, a lengthy account of the life, the theories, and the political ideas of Cardinal Rampolla, who, it is widely believed on the Continent, will be the next Pope.

As usual, there are a considerable number of historical articles, of which the most interesting concerns the curious Gallic inscriptions which have been found all over France, and of which are given many reproductions. Those concerned in the fascinating study of the origin of languages will find it worth while to glance over this article. M. Toudouze continues his reminiscences of the Commune; and as these are based on a diary kept by him during those eventful days, they have a considerable historic value. To a different order of historical student will appeal a paper describing Madame de Staël's social successes during the Consulate.

Literature is represented by the beginning of what promises to be M. Cim's amusing reminiscences of the French Society of Men of Letters. To this society, literally every writer and journalist in France makes it a point to belong, for it has rendered immense services to authors and playwrights. Very charming is a slight but vivid account of the house of Mistral, the great Provençal poet, who has always remained in his native village, where his father was a farmer. The author of "Mirelle" is married to a very clever, intelligent woman, herself a writer of distinction; and at Millane, the little village where they live, they often receive distinguished fellow-poets of all nationalities. Mistral is a great worker; like most poets, he detests the mechanical sides of modern life; thus, he particularly dislikes the present reign of the automobile, and regrets the stage coaches, which he can still remember having seen as a child wending their leisurely way through the flowery lanes of Provence. In the evening of his days, Mistral is devoting much of his time and thought to a museum which he has founded at Arles, where he has tried to gather together everything connected with the past life of southern France.

Other articles consist of a long review of Mr. Henry Norman's "All the Russias," of a pitiful account of the island off the coast of Brittany, where the sardine fishermen are now slowly starving; of an analysis of St. Simon's political and social theories; and of a short paper on Satanism, a subject which seems to be attracting more and more attention every day.

LA REVUE.

THE numbers of *La Revue* for February are not quite as English or American as usual. The most important article in the number for February 1 is Dr. Kaethe Schirmacher's on "The Regulation of Female Labor and Feminism," in which the writer considers the question how far feminism in the various European countries is in favor of special restrictions upon female labor. In general, women workers themselves are in favor of state regulation; but the feminists are divided. In England, France, and Scandinavia, the majority of feminists oppose restriction; while in Germany and in Austria, feminists favor restriction. Feminist opposition is based chiefly upon the principle of individual liberty and of the equality of the sexes.

"RESURRECTION."

In the same number, Dr. R. Romme, writing under the title "Resurrection and Longevity," deals with M. Kuliako's claim to have reanimated the heart of a dead child twenty hours after death. Dr. Romme's paper is devoted to showing that there is nothing new in this at all. The repulsion of the heart of dead animals by various means has often been achieved, and it has been accomplished also in the case of human beings, the chief difference being that the revival, in the case of human beings, was generally for a much shorter time. The heart is by no means the delicate and fragile organ that is generally supposed, and with a current of arterial blood, or a solution of salt saturated with oxygen, it has always been possible to set it beating after death. Another means which has been adopted is massage, the exposed heart being taken in the right hand and rubbed rhythmically. Professor Prus, of Lemberg, has succeeded in fifty-five cases out of one hundred in reanimating the heart by this method. M. Batelli, of Geneva, by combining massage with electrization, has revived dead dogs and kept them alive for as much as twenty-four hours. This method has been adopted in the case of human beings, but it is found impossible to keep the revived person alive for any time.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

FRANCISCAN students will turn at once, in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (February 1), to Prof. G. Grabinski's important article on recent Franciscan studies. He agrees with Professor Mariano in deploring what he calls the "subjective rationalism of M. Sabatier," but differs considerably from Mariano in the latter's estimate of the Franciscan order and the extent to which it has been faithful to the Franciscan ideal. Another interesting article of an exceptionally good number describes the friendly understanding that exists between Governor Taft and Mgr. Guidi, the new apostolic delegate to the Philippines, pointing to a speedy solution of the vexed religious question. In its

mid-February issue, the *Rassegna*, although distinctly anti-clerical, denounces cremation with extreme vigor of language as "a barbarian institution, contrary to human nature, contrary to hygiene, contrary to the sentiment of all pious and refined souls, and contrary to progress and to civilization." There is an excellent sketch of the late Cardinal Parocchi, who was for many years among the *papabili*.

In its "Contemporary Artists" series, *Emporium* prints, with numerous illustrations of his works, a sketch of the young Polish sculptor, Boleslas Biegas, who has recently taken artistic Paris by storm. His art is full of weird power and the most fantastic inspiration, his subjects being chiefly symbolic. Among the pieces of sculpture illustrated in the article are the wind, the haunted house, and the book of life, to which he has given a wholly original interpretation. Biegas is only twenty-six years of age, and of humble peasant birth, and all his young years were spent herding flocks on the vast, mournful plains of his native country and modeling strange figures for his amusement in wet clay. Thanks to a discriminating patron, he was sent to the Academy of Fine Arts at Cracow, and to-day his position as a sculptor is already assured.

The *Civiltà Cattolica* (February 7) does its best to dislodge Italy from its unhappy preëminence as the mother of regicides. It has drawn up an exceedingly interesting table of all the assassinations of monarchs and presidents, both attempted and successful, for the last hundred years, beginning with the murder of the Emperor Paul and ending with Rubino's attempt against King Leopold. In all, seventy-three crimes are tabulated, and undoubtedly, taken over so wide a field, Italy is responsible for no more victims than other nations; but the fact remains true that the most notorious regicides of recent years whose crimes have been due to anarchistic doctrines—Caserio, Luccheni, and Bresci—are all of Italian birth. One remarkable fact emerges from the table. The crimes against heads of states in the second half of the nineteenth century were four times as numerous as in the first half. The mid-February number contains a laudatory analysis of the Jesuit Père Fontaine's much-discussed volume, "*Les Infiltrations Kantiennes et Protestantes et le Clergé Français*."

In the *Nuova Antologia* (February 1), Signora Roselli describes the recent revival throughout Italy of female home industries of an artistic nature,—lace-making, embroidery, weaving, etc.—thanks to the energetic enterprise of various Italian ladies. Already two exhibitions of artistic female handiwork have been held in Rome, and it is now intended to open a permanent depot for the sale of the goods. Gen. Luchino dai Verme reviews De Wet's "Three Years' War," paying a high tribute to De Wet's generalship and strategy, and protesting against the tendency in some quarters to decry him as a mere guerrilla leader.



THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORICAL WORKS.

Under the title of "American Diplomacy in the Orient" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), the Hon. John W. Foster has written a book which shows the part taken by the United States in respect to political, commercial, and race questions of the far East. Mr. Foster's own diplomatic career, taken together with his recent studies in diplomatic history, has well qualified him for the task of preparing such a work as this. He has reviewed the early American commercial intercourse with China; the policy observed toward that country by our government; the opening of Japan, in which our naval and diplomatic officials had so conspicuous a part; the



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political history and annexation of Hawaii, and the relation of the United States to the later history of China, Japan, Korea, Samoa, and the other countries of the Pacific. The volume closes with a summary of the results of the Spanish-American War in the far East. In all the abundance of literature on Asiatic subjects that has appeared in the past few years, there has never before been attempted a consecutive history of American relations with the Orient. Our national responsibilities accepted as part of the results of the Spanish War have made all the more pressing the need of a standard treatise covering the entire history of the subject. It was for the purpose of meeting this need that Mr. Foster set about the preparation of the present work. Many authorities are cited by the author as an aid to the student in continuing researches on special topics. Some of the most interesting chapters of the book are those treating of the opening of Japan, Chinese immigration and exclusion, and the Samoan com-

plication. The entire book is clearly and concisely written, and in this respect is a worthy successor of the author's earlier work, "A Century of American Diplomacy."

An eighteenth-century view of the American Indians that has become almost a classic is Gov. Cadwallader Colden's "The History of the Five Indian Nations of Canada." This work has just been reprinted in convenient form by the New Amsterdam Book Company, of New York. Governor Colden was regarded as the best-informed man in the New World on the affairs of the British-American colonies. He was impressed by the importance of the Five Nations, or Iroquois, to the Colony of New York as a barrier against the French, and it was probably for the purpose of influencing the British Government that his account of those tribes was written. The estimate in which Colden was held by the Indians themselves may be seen from the fact that he was adopted by the Mohawks. The first portion of this treatise was written as early as 1727, but the author lived down to the outbreak of the Revolution.

Some of the long-hidden lore of the Central American aborigines is represented in Mrs. Alice Dixon Le Plongeon's "Queen Mío's Talisman" (New York: Peter Eckler). This is a poem relating to the fall of the empire of the Mayas of Yucatan. In this poem, Mrs. Le Plongeon has represented as nearly as possible the religious idea of the Mayas, their belief in a supreme intelligence and in successive lives on earth, as well as their rites and ceremonies, as gathered from the traditions of the natives of Yucatan, the fresco paintings found at Chichen, and in the books of ancient Maya authors. An introduction sets forth the peculiar customs and ideas of the natives of Central America. The work as a whole is an interesting contribution to our knowledge of these peoples.

"The Discoveries of the Norsemen in America," by Prof. Joseph Fischer, of Austria (St. Louis: B. Herder, 17 S. Broadway), epitomizes a vast amount of scholarly research, especially in the maps of the fifteenth century. After a painstaking examination of all the authorities, this author comes to the conclusion that whatever voyages were made by the Norsemen prior to the fifteenth century, there was no permanent settlement made by them on the New England coast. The Norsemen did, however, possess thriving colonies in Greenland, where numerous Norse relics remain to this day. The present edition of Professor Fischer's work is a translation from the German by Basil H. Soulsby, superintendent of the Map Room of the British Museum. Several reproductions of rare and ancient maps accompany the text.

The twentieth volume of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press) is devoted to "Colonial and Economic History." The opening paper, by Dr. Bernard C. Steiner, on "Western Maryland in the Revolution," is an admirable account of the progress of the Revolutionary movement in a part of the country that has received little attention from historians.

Largely settled by Germans and Scotch-Irish from Pennsylvania, western Maryland was less closely allied with the South in economic, social, and political life than were the eastern counties of the State. Aside from a paper on "The Political Activities of Philip Freneau," by S. E. Forman, and one on "The Maryland Constitution of 1851," by J. W. Harry, the remainder of this volume of the studies is exclusively occupied by economic papers. Mr. G. E. Barnett writes on "State Banks Since the Passage of the National Bank Act;" Mr. W. E. Martin on "Early History of Internal Improvement in Alabama;" Mr. George Cator on "Trust Companies in the United States;" and Mr. G. M. Fisk on "Continental Opinion Regarding a Proposed Middle European Tariff-Union."

In the series of "Decennial Publications" of the University of Chicago, Mr. Ralph C. H. Catterall, of the department of history in the university, has written an elaborate account of "The Second Bank of the United States" (University of Chicago Press). This is said to be the first attempt to furnish a complete history of this bank, a notable institution, if for no other reason than for its famous struggle with President Jackson. It is also claimed for this bank that it is the first example of a bank with branches that this country has ever had. Mr. Catterall has had peculiar advantages in having placed at his disposal the papers of Nicholas Biddle, the president of the bank. This material has thrown new light on the political facts in connection with the attempt to secure a new charter from Jackson.

The latest publication of the American Economic Association is a monograph on "A History of Taxation in New Hampshire," by Maurice H. Robinson, Ph.D. (Macmillan).

The first three volumes of "The History of Woman Suffrage," prepared by Mrs. Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Miss Susan B. Anthony, appeared some years ago, and brought the record of the movement to the early eighties. The fourth volume, edited by Miss Anthony and Mrs. Ida Husted Harper (Rochester, N. Y.; Susan B. Anthony), carries on the story of the movement to the close of the nineteenth century. This work is primarily an account of the efforts made by women everywhere to obtain the franchise; but it includes, also, a full record of the various changes in law and administration that have been made in the interest of woman, whether accomplished directly through the influence of the suffragists or not. The first portion of the present volume is mainly taken up with proceedings of the various national suffrage conventions. There are also chapters on suffrage work and political and other conventions, the rights of women in the States, the movement in Great Britain, and an exceptionally full statement regarding national organizations of women. This volume, like its predecessors, will doubtlessly for years to come be the main reliance of all advocates of woman's enfranchisement.

The State Historical Society of Iowa (Iowa City, Iowa) has begun the publication of "The Messages and Proclamations of the Governors of Iowa." The work of compiling and editing has been intrusted to Prof. Benjamin F. Shambaugh, of the University of Iowa, and the first volume of the series has just appeared. The several governors are named in their chronological order, and the documents are arranged according to a uniform scheme of classification. It is a rather remarkable fact that in the case of so young a State as Iowa it has not been possible to find all of the proclamations of

the earlier governors, either in the public archives or in the newspapers of the day.

The sixth volume of the publications of the Mississippi Historical Society (Oxford, Miss.), under the editorship of Mr. Franklin L. Riley, contains several valuable articles on Mississippi history, particularly on the period of reconstruction and the constitutional convention of 1890. There are also interesting papers on "Some Historic Homes in Mississippi," "The Route of De Soto's Expedition," and other topics intimately associated with the history of the State.

Little is left in the far West to-day to remind us even of the existence of that once well-known figure in American pioneer life, the old-time trapper. The American fur trade obtained its greatest importance in the early years of the nineteenth century, soon after the Louisiana Purchase, and St. Louis was the center of the traffic. The whole story of the fur trade has been told by Captain Chittenden in volumes already noticed in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. "The Story of the Trapper," by A. C. Laut (Appleton), is a vivid picture of a life that has no counterpart in our day. Miss Laut's earlier books, "Heralds of Empire" and "Lords of the North," revealed her as a sympathetic student of this phase of pioneer life. She has delved in the records of the Hudson Bay and Northwest companies until the picturesque characters who made up the "living documents" of those records have become to her as real as the people of every-day life. The same keenness of perception and imagination that gave character to the stories already mentioned have powerfully aided in the vivid delineation of the trapper as an historical personage.

"Epoch-Making Papers in United States History" is a volume of pocket size, edited, with an introduction and notes, by Prof. Marshall Stewart Brown, with the excellent purpose of contributing to the movement for the betterment of the teaching and study of history in our schools by making accessible to students the great documents illustrating our national growth (Macmillan).

"Lectures on the History of the Nineteenth Century," delivered at the Cambridge University Extension Summer Meeting of August, 1902, have been brought together in a volume edited by F. A. Kirkpatrick which constitutes a readable summary of the topics under consideration. Most of these are naturally related to European politics, but there is a chapter on "England and the United States," by the Rev. Dr. T. J. Lawrence, and many of the other lectures contain material of special interest to American readers. The lectures on "The Reforming Work of the Czar Alexander II." and "The Meaning of Present Russian Development," by



MISS AGNES C. LAUT.

Dr. Paul Vinogradoff, and that on "The Problem of the Far East," by Ian C. Hannah, deal with some of the latest phases of modern internationalism (Macmillan).

President George Emory Fellows, of the University of Maine, has prepared a useful text-book for high schools and colleges on "Recent European History, 1789-1900" (Boston: Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co.). Heretofore, there have been few opportunities for students in secondary schools to study this period. President Fellows has attempted, in this little volume, to sketch the whole movement in the direction of constitutional government during the nineteenth century. He has presented the subject in an attractive way, and teachers will find the book well adapted for use in their classes.

Some of the new text-books of ancient history have distinctive qualities that differentiate them from most of their predecessors. The present generation of students is to be congratulated on the attractiveness and lucidity with which the history of Rome and Greece is now presented to them, as contrasted with the dry-as-dust methods of former days. We must remember, also, that archeology has been very busy in the last decade or two, and the latest investigations on the side of classical history have greatly modified the descriptions of Roman and Grecian life that once passed current among us. These latest results of investigations have been incorporated in the new text-books, and the result is an entire recasting of the subject-matter that is now taught in the higher grades of our secondary schools, not to speak of the instruction given in the colleges. A good example of the utilization of this form of learning in the modern text-book is Dr. William Fairley's translation of the "History of the Roman People," by Charles Seignobos, of the University of Paris (Holt). This work is distinguished for its vividness of style, and its treatment of old subjects is fresh and suggestive to a remarkable degree. The work includes a very full account of Christianity as an element in the history of the Roman Empire. Additions made to the original history bring it down to the era of Charlemagne.

"The Life of the Ancient Greeks," by Dr. Charles Burton Gulick, of Harvard University (Appleton), represents a teacher's attempt to present the essential facts of daily life among the Greeks to the students reading Greek authors or studying Greek history in preparation for college. The book answers the questions: "Who were the Greeks, after all, and how did they live?" "What did they wear, what did they eat, and what were their houses like?" The general reader, also, will find the book helpful, since no knowledge of the Greek language is required, and technical treatment has been consistently avoided. The volume is well illustrated.

For a more detailed sketch of the subject, readers cannot do better than to consult Mr. Howard Crosby Butler's "The Story of Athens" (Century Company). This work naturally gives more attention to the subject of Greek art. An outline of the mythological and traditional history of Athens is given in an introductory chapter. The aim of the book, as stated by the author, is to give, as far as possible, a view of the ancients themselves rather than to discuss the credibility of the old historians. In the scheme of illustrations adopted for the book, the monuments and architecture are represented by line drawings, while the sculptures are reproduced almost entirely by photographs. The illustra-

tions have been chosen with great care, and are valuable aids to the text.

In a single volume, Dr. George Willis Botsford, of Columbia University, has compiled "An Ancient History for Beginners" (Macmillan), in compliance with the recommendation of the American Historical Association that the schools give a year to ancient history, with special reference to Greek and Roman history, but including a short introductory study of the more ancient nations.

During the course of the Boer war, some sixteen editions of Dr. Conan Doyle's book appeared, and since the close of the war the author has prepared a final edition in which the early text has been carefully revised and much fresh valuable knowledge has been added (McClure, Phillips & Co.). The present edition is printed from new plates and contains a large amount of new material and new maps. It is a standard history of the Boer war from the English point of view.

The first portion of Prof. Philip Van Ness Myers' "Mediæval and Modern History," published some years ago, has been revised and issued under the title of "The Middle Ages" (Boston: Ginn & Co.), to be followed shortly by a companion volume entitled "The Modern Age," containing the revised and extended text of the second half of the original work. The fact that Professor Myers' book has been in constant use in schools and colleges during the fifteen years since its first publication speaks well for its standing among teachers and school principals.

The translation by Mary Sloan of Bémont and Monod's "Mediæval Europe from 895 to 1270" has recently been published (Holt). Prof. George Burton Adams, of Yale, has contributed notes and revisions. This work is by two of the most distinguished of the modern school of French historians, and is especially noteworthy for its great simplicity of statement and for the fullness with which it treats of topics not usually taken up in detail,—notably of the mediæval Church.

In "The Mediæval Town Series" (Macmillan), "The Story of Verona" is contributed by Alethea Wiel. All visitors to the ancient town, especially those interested in its paintings and architecture, will find much valuable material in this little volume. Many excellent illustrations have been contributed by Nelly Erichsen and Helen M. James.

Mr. Edmund G. Gardner, in "The Story of Siena and San Gimignano" (Macmillan), has endeavored to provide a popular history of the great republic of Siena in such form that it can also serve as a guide-book to that city and its neighborhood. Many of the illustrations of the book are from drawings by Miss Helen M. James, and there are also reproductions from works of painters and sculptors.

"London Before the Conquest," by W. R. Lethaby (Macmillan), is a book that deals chiefly with the ancient topography of the town. There are chapters on "Rivers and Ford," "Roads and the Bridge," "The Walls, Gates, and Quays," "The Wards and Parishes—The Palace," "Streets—Craft Guilds and Schools—Churches," and many other topics of interest to the antiquarian and historian.

The greatest modern historian of the city of London was the late Sir Walter Besant, and the most important part of his work in this field had been completed before his death. It is said by his widow that it was the work through which he himself most desired to be remembered by posterity. From this history of London

as a whole, which is an entirely different work from those portions of the "Survey of London" which have already been published both in magazine and book form, the portion relating to the eighteenth century has been chosen for present publication. In treating of this period, Sir Walter Besant devoted much space to London social life. This, in fact, is the chief feature of the elaborate and beautifully printed volume now before us. The book is prefaced by a series of concise historical notes which give a bird's-eye view of the century. These are followed by sections treating of London topographically, religiously, politically, and so forth (Macmillan).

BIOGRAPHY, LETTERS, AND MEMOIRS.

"William Morris: Poet, Craftsman, Socialist," is the title of a very satisfactory biographical study by Miss Elisabeth Luther Cary (Putnams). The details of the socialist poet's personal life are related with great fullness in MacKail's elaborate volumes; Miss Cary has made it her business to outline the public side of Morris' career, and her treatment of those phases of the subject that are most interesting to the wider public gains in force from the very absence of a mass of material such as has a place only in some authorized and intimate biography, like that of MacKail. The present work is especially well adapted to meet the demand on the part of American admirers of Morris for a clear, compact, and yet comprehensive statement of the principles that this many-sided leader really stood for—in art, in literature, and in politics. Those readers who may have been familiar with the specific contributions made by Morris to the crafts of decoration and of printing will find in Miss Cary's book excellent summaries of his work in these fields, with an abundance of appropriate illustrations.

"The Life of James Madison" by Gaillard Hunt (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is an attempt to present the successive events in Madison's career in their relation



MR. GAILLARD HUNT.

to our national history. Madison's intimate association with distinguished contemporaries—Jefferson, Hamilton, Monroe, and others—lends especial interest to the details of his biography. Madison's writings and state papers have been before the public for so many years that there is little excuse for ignorance of his political views or achievements; but there

is room for a reasonably brief popular biography which will sum up both the public and private sides of Madison's personality, and this is what Mr. Hunt has given us in the present volume. It is hinted that this constitutes the beginning of an important enterprise,—no less than the history of the United States told through the lives of its greatest men. The present volume at least suggests the possibilities of such an historical series.

In the volume entitled "A Few of Hamilton's Letters," Mrs. Gertrude Atherton, author of "The Conqueror," has brought together a portion of Alexander Hamilton's correspondence, much of which will now for the first time reach the general public. The idea of

making selections of this kind from the unpublished correspondence of our venerated great men is a new one in this country, and we imagine that in this case, at least, it will meet with a favorable response. Mrs. Atherton's purpose, as she says, has been to select such letters as throw the most light on the human side of Hamilton. Hamilton's argumentative and literary qualities are sufficiently brought out in the state papers and other writings of a political nature that have become almost classics in our literature. Mrs. Atherton has made no attempt to select letters that exemplify these qualities in any marked degree, but they are present in almost all of Hamilton's correspondence. A veritable literary "find"—or, rather, resurrection—was the discovery, only a few months ago, of Hamilton's description of the great West Indian hurricane of August, 1772, which was printed in a West Indian newspaper, and convinced Hamilton's relatives and friends that the fifteen-year-old boy deserved an education. Until this bit of newspaper work was discovered by Captain William Ramsing, of the Danish army, it is doubtful whether it had been read for a century and a quarter, although it was known that such a writing was in existence. It is published in an appendix of Mrs. Atherton's book, together with other interesting materials.

What is believed to be the first biography of Augustus Cæsar in English was completed only a few months ago by John B. Firth, and has just been published in the "Heroes of the Nations" series (Putnams). Such a work is necessarily a record of the great emperor's public career, with only the most meager account of his personality. Plutarch's life of Augustus has never come down to us, but fortunately a character sketch written by Suetonius has survived, and we are indebted to Mr. Firth for a capital summing up of the details embodied in that sketch. There can be no question as to the merits of Mr. Firth's book on the score of scholarship, and the manner in which the material is presented is well calculated to engage our interest.

We hardly know whether to class Mr. I. Woodbridge Riley's book, "The Founder of Mormonism" (Dodd, Mead, & Co.), among biographies or not. It is really a psychological study of Joseph Smith, Jr. Beginning with an elaborate account of Smith's ancestry and early environment, the book proceeds to a discussion of the Book of Mormon and its probable sources, and the relation of this curious literary product to Smith's own mentality, the later exploits of Smith as a prophet and faith healer, and his final activities as a religious, social leader. It is, indeed, the life-study of a man who would never have been chosen as the subject of serious biographical writing except for the remarkable growth of the religious system and community of which he was the acknowledged father. As a contribution to our knowledge of Mormonism, the book has a value that is wholly unique.

"A Royal Son and Mother" is the title given to an account of the unique work of Prince Demetrius Gallitzin, the father of the Roman Catholic community at Loretto, Pa., and known as the pioneer priest of the Alleghanies, by Baroness Pauline von Hügel (Notre Dame, Ind.: *The Ave Maria*). Demetrius Gallitzin was ordained a priest in 1795. In 1799, he headed a company of co-religionists who pushed their way into the wilderness of Pennsylvania and established the little colony of Loretto. All this time, the prince disguised his identity by adopting the name of Schmet; not even the members of his flock were aware of his royal lineage.

Quite out of the line of the ordinary printed autobiography is "The Story of a Strange Career," edited by Stanley Waterloo (Appleton). We are assured by Mr. Waterloo that the story contained in this volume is literally true. The man who told it died recently in a Western State prison, a man of the class known as habitual criminals. He was, at the time of his death, serving out a sentence for burglary. For thirty years, he had been under the weight of prison discipline, save for short periods of freedom between the end of one term and the beginning of another. This man began his career as a sailor, served in the American and English naval services, and ran away from both of them, becoming, finally, an ensign during the Rebellion. The story, of course, is not told merely for the sake of regarding the outward incidents in this man's life, which were in the main commonplace enough, but rather as a psychological revelation, to show, as far as possible, the man's own attitude of mind toward his fellow-men and the motives for his erratic and sinful conduct. After all, not much light is thrown on the secret of the story, beyond occasional admissions of his own foolishness and wastefulness of life. The author gives us no information of genuine repentance or of sorrow for his many misdeeds.

Mr. Austin Dobson's "Samuel Richardson," in the "English Men of Letters" series (Macmillan), is a book that will be read and admired more out of regard to the scholarship of its author than from any bond of sympathy with the subject. Richardson's distinctive service in giving form to the modern English novel is not to be overlooked, and in Mr. Dobson's little volume the full value of this service is well brought out.

The Dumas centenary, last year, was the occasion of at least two new lives of the great French writer in English. That by Arthur F. Davidson (Lippincott) is the more ambitious of the two, and abounds in detail. A volume by Mr. Harry A. Spurr, entitled "The Life and Writings of Alexandre Dumas" (Frederick A. Stokes Company), attempts to tell "the man in the public library" who Dumas was, what he did, which books he did write and which he did not write, and, finally, what his *confrères* and the great critics have said about him. Both books are well indexed, are provided with convenient bibliographical lists, and are in every respect well equipped as books of reference.

Miss Fanny Reed's "Reminiscences" (Boston: Knight & Millet) might be called a book of international memoirs. Miss Reed has won distinction as an amateur singer in Paris, where she has come in contact with famous personalities, not only musicians, but men and women in many other callings.

Mr. Nathan H. Dole has made a two-volume compendium of brief biographical sketches of twenty great composers (Crowell). Criticism is not the chief element in Mr. Dole's sketches, but the general reader will gain from them a fair estimate of the style and purpose of the various composers and the place to which their works are entitled. The main function of Mr. Dole's books is to describe the personalities of the composers in terse and graphic English. The work has been conscientiously done, and the characterizations seem to be free from prejudice.

In a two-volume edition, we have "The Diary and Letters of Frances Burney (Madame D'Arblay)," revised and edited by Sarah Chauncey Woolsey (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). Miss Burney, of whom Lord Macaulay said that her story "Evelina" was the first story written by a woman that lived or deserved to live, is neverthe-

less remembered to this day not so much for her literary work as for the reflections that she gave to the world of court life. These are all incorporated in "The Diary and Letters;" and to this day, no better descriptions of Miss Burney's contemporaries in high official station are to be had.

Mr. Sidney Lee, the biographer *par excellence* among modern Englishmen,—who, by the way, is now visiting the United States and has just concluded a series of lectures at Columbia University,—is the author of a new volume on "Queen Victoria" (Macmillan). This work, like the famous sketch of Shakespeare by Mr. Lee, is the outgrowth of an article contributed to "The Dictionary of National Biography." As in that encyclopedia article, so in this more elaborate work, Mr. Lee has sought to record clearly and with such conciseness as coherence would permit the main facts concerning Queen Victoria's personal history in the varied spheres of life in which she played her great part. He has, of course, touched upon the extended political history with which the Queen's long career was associated,



MR. SIDNEY LEE.

but has avoided treating such topics in any fuller detail than was needful to make her personal experiences and opinions intelligible. For purposes of general reference, this is without question the standard life of the late Queen.

Mrs. Mary McArthur Tuttle, the widow of the late Herbert Tuttle, the historian of Prussia, has written, under the title "The Mother of an Emperor," a sketch of Queen Louise of Prussia, the materials for which were derived from official sources (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye). Mrs. Tuttle has supplemented her biographical study with interesting papers on home life in Germany and kindred topics.

A volume entitled "Folk-Tales of Napoleon" (New York: The Outlook Company),—which is made up of translations by George Kennan from the Russian, and from the French of Honoré de Balzac,—stimulates, and in a measure satisfies, our curiosity as to the conceptions of the "Little Corsican" that were prevalent among the common people during and after his life. It is not that these stories tell us anything worth remem-

bering about Napoleon, or about the great events of his time, but they do indicate to us the point of view of the French and Russian peasant; and in so far as they do this, they are significant.

Mr. Lionel Strachey has translated "Memoirs of a Contemporary," being reminiscences by Ida Saint-Elme, adventuress, of her acquaintance with certain makers of French history, and of her opinions concerning them, from 1790 to 1815 (Doubleday, Page & Co.). It is well within bounds to say that Ida Saint-Elme's career was a checkered one, but with her various personal escapades and intrigues the general reader is less concerned than with the story that she has to tell of the campaigns of the French army in Italy, Austria, and Russia, which she followed throughout, often in a man's costume.

The story of the sister of Louis XVI. is fully told in "The Life and Letters of Madame Élisabeth de France," translated by Katharine Prescott Wormley (Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.). Full details are given in this work of the captivity of Louis XVI., and the events of those troublous times are narrated with great fullness.

Apropos of the bicentenary celebration of John Wesley's birthday, which is observed this year in every part of the world, "The Heart of John Wesley's Journal" has recently been published in a single volume (Revell). The journal in full, as heretofore published, has consisted of four bulky volumes. Although the editor of the present volume, Mr. Percy Livingstone Parker, has been obliged to curtail the original work by three-quarters, there is still left enough of the journal to convey a fair idea of its atmosphere and spirit. An appreciation by Augustine Birrell, and an introduction by the late Rev. Hugh Price Hughes, are other interesting features of the present edition.

Dr. William Adamson's "Life of Joseph Parker," pastor of the City Temple, London (Revell), is the authoritative estimate of a lifelong friend of the great preacher. It is the fruit of many years' preparation, and may confidently be accepted by the public as the most satisfactory biography of Dr. Parker that is likely to be written. Aside from its strictly personal interest, the book throws much light upon the progress of what is known as "dissent" in English religious history.

An excellent brief "Life of Ulrich Zwingli," the Swiss patriot and reformer, has been written by Samuel Simpson (New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.). This is the second biography of the great Swiss reformer to be published in the English language, with the exception of one or two translations, and it is interesting to note in this connection that the authors of both works are American students, and that their books have appeared within three months of each other. This work is based upon extensive study of the sources, and a valuable feature of the volume is the bibliography which occupies the concluding pages.

BOOKS ON SOCIOLOGICAL, ECONOMIC, AND INDUSTRIAL THEMES.

The latest contribution to sociological theory is a treatise by Prof. Lester F. Ward, of Washington, entitled "Pure Sociology" (Macmillan). Although a geologist by profession, Dr. Ward has for many years devoted much time to the study of sociology, has lectured on the subject at several universities, and is the author of more than one work in this field of research that has attracted world-wide attention. Professor Ward, it should be explained, uses the term "Pure Sociology" to include all discussion relating to the origin, nature, and genetic,

or spontaneous, development of society. All material relating to means and methods for the artificial improvement of social conditions on the part of man and society as conscious and intelligent agents Dr. Ward would classify under "applied sociology." Dr. Ward's systematic presentation of his subject, taken in connec-



PROFESSOR LESTER F. WARD.

tion with his illuminating comments on the writings of other authorities, makes his book an extremely valuable one to all students of sociology.

In a little book entitled "Hereditry and Social Progress" (Macmillan), Prof. Simon N. Patten, of the University of Pennsylvania, attempts an answer to the question, "How is the social surplus, the temporary product of annual effort, transformed into mental traits that abide and become the basis of subsequent progress?" This problem Dr. Patten regards as the same as the biological problem, How can acquired characters become natural?

The first volume of an elaborate and interesting work in the Dutch language on "Principles of Economics," by Dr. N. G. Pierson, has recently been translated by Mr. A. A. Wotzel and published in England and the United States (Macmillan). In the present volume, two different heads of the subject are dealt with—"Value in Exchange" and "Money." The second volume, now in course of translation, treats of "Production" and "The Revenue of the State."

Recognizing Professor Ward's distinction, and passing from the domain of pure sociology to that of applied sociology, we notice among the new books one that has attracted more than ordinary attention by the very novelty of its subject-matter. "The Woman Who Toils" is the title chosen for a volume of experiences of two ladies as factory girls, written by Mrs. John Van Vorst and Miss Marie Van Vorst (Doubleday, Page & Co.). An accidental prominence is given to this book by the publication of President Roosevelt's famous "Race Suicide" letter, which was written by the President after he had read the third chapter when it appeared in a magazine. The book is a notable one, however, for its own sake,

without reference to the particular topic in which the President expressed his interest. In the introductory chapter, one of the authors expresses her purpose in writing as follows: "My desire is to act as a mouth-piece for the woman laborer. I assumed her mode of existence with the hope that I might put into words her cry for help. It has been my purpose to find out what her capacity is for suffering and for joy as compared with ours; what tastes she has, what ambitions, what the equipment of woman is as compared to that of man; her equipment as determined—(1) by nature, (2) by family life, (3) by social laws; what her strength is and what her weaknesses are as compared with the woman of leisure; and, finally, to discern the tendencies of a new society as manifested by its working girls." The experiences so graphically described by these women are grouped under the following chapter-heads: "In a Pittsburg Factory;" "Perry, a New York Mill Town;" "Making Clothing in Chicago;" "A Maker of Shoes in Lynn;" "The Southern Cotton Mills," and "The Child in the Southern Mills." In a chapter entitled "The Meaning of It All," Mrs. John Van Vorst sums up her conclusions, and offers one or two practical suggestions to all well-to-do American women who are eager to help their less fortunate sisters to better their condition.

"The Negro Artisan" is the subject of the seventh number of the Atlanta University studies of the negro problem (Atlanta [Ga.] University Press). This book, which is edited by W. E. Burghardt Du Bois, contains a short history of the negroes as artisans; a treatise on industrial education, its rise and results; studies of the local condition and distribution of artisans in the various States; a study of the attitude of the trade-unions, and an inquiry into the experience of Southern employers of skilled negro labor. The testimony of Southern employers is decidedly favorable to skilled negro artisans.

Some time ago, a series of volumes to deal with the subject of money in its various aspects was projected by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, of the University of Chicago. It is a pleasure to announce here the publication, last month, of the first volume in this series (Scribners). This is a comprehensive treatment of the principles of money. The exposition of these principles by a systematic method is intended by the author as a preliminary step to the discussion of the various problems related to the use of gold and silver, paper money, etc. As fundamental to such a discussion, the theory of prices is developed with great fullness. Such a work was needed; it will, indeed, make itself indispensable to the student of economics.

Prof. William A. Scott, of the University of Wisconsin, has written an excellent handbook on "Money and Banking" (Holt). It will be found useful, not only as a text-book in schools and colleges, but for the purposes of the average citizen as well. At the end of each chapter, a list of specific references to literature is given, so that the book serves as a guide to the best of what has been written on this subject. Important fiscal tables are contained in appendixes.

Mr. Gardner F. Williams, general manager of the De Beers Consolidated Mines, is the author of a thick volume on "The Diamond Mines of South Africa: Some Account of Their Rise and Development" (Macmillan).

This work is fully illustrated, and gives the most complete picture thus far attainable of the remarkable industrial development which preceded the outbreak of the Boer war. Contrary to popular belief, Mr. Williams asserts that the market for diamonds is an extremely limited one. We now see more clearly the motives for the formation by Rhodes and Barney Barnato of the great diamond-mining trust, the chief function of which was to restrict the output of the precious gems. It appears from Mr. Williams' book that the output from the De Beers and Kimberley mines is now so restricted that should the company wish to do so it might double or treble the output of diamonds which it is putting on the markets of the world. An interesting feature of Mr. Williams' book is his survey of the geological conditions.

In "The Citizens' Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology" (Macmillan), Prof. Elwood Mead, a well-known expert on irrigation, has written a little volume entitled "Irrigation Institutions," a discussion of the economic and legal questions created by the growth of irrigated agriculture in the West. As an official in the engineering departments of two Western States, Professor Mead has devoted fifteen years of his life to the study of administration of irrigation laws, and in that service has been brought into personal and official relations with all classes of men to whom the problems of irrigation were of vital interest. All questions relating to the ownership and distribution of the water-supply are certainly of first importance in the arid belt of our country, and the observations and conclusions of so experienced a student as Professor Mead cannot fail to be of the greatest value.

Prof. James Albert Woodburn, of Indiana University, has written "The American Republic and Its Government" (Putnam). This volume has to do with the original principles of the republic as announced by the fathers in their struggle for independence, and with the principal institutions and organs of government created by the Constitution. Professor Woodburn has endeavored to provide an intermediate book for advanced courses in high schools or for elementary courses in colleges, which will have a field of its own, distinct from that of the elementary text-books in civics, and also distinct from special and extensive works like that of Mr. Bryce. In a word, the book aims at a larger study of American politics than has heretofore been deemed possible in institutions below university grade.

Prof. C. Edward Merriam's "A History of American Political Theories" (Macmillan) is a study of the political philosophy of our fathers as embodied in forms of government and in the debates and discussions of various periods. Dr. Merriam discusses these political theories in their relation to the peculiar conditions under which they were developed, keeping in mind the intimate connection between their philosophy and the facts that conditioned it.

A concise work on the theory and practice of the English Government has been written by Prof. Thomas F. Moran (Longmans). This work has been prepared with reference to the needs of American readers. Chapters on "The Composition of the Cabinet," "The Cabinet's Responsibility to Parliament," and "The Origin, Composition, and Functions of the House of Commons" are of special value.

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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.	Ed. Education, Boston.	NC. New-Church Review, Boston.
AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y.	EdR. Educational Review, N. Y.	NENG. New England Magazine, Boston.
AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.	Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y.	NineC. Nineteenth Century, London.
AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago.	Era. Philadelphia.	NAR. North American Review, N. Y.
ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis.	EM. España Moderna, Madrid.	Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.	Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y.	NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome.
AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.	Fort. Fortnightly Review, London.	OC. Open Court, Chicago.
ANat. American Naturalist, Boston.	Forum. Forum, N. Y.	O. Outing, N. Y.
AQ. American Quarterly, Boston.	FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.	Out. Outlook, N. Y.
AngA. Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.	Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London.	OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal.
Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.	GBag. Green Bag, Boston.	Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y.	Gunt. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.	PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Arena. Arena, N. Y.	Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y.	Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
AA. Art Amateur, N. Y.	Hart. Hartford Conn.	Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y.
AI. Art Interchange, N. Y.	Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y.	PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y.
AJ. Art Journal, London.	IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila.	PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
Atlant. Atlantic Monthly, Boston.	Int. International Quarterly, Burlington, Vt.	PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn.
Bad. Badminton, London.	IntS. International Studio, N. Y.	PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London.	JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.	PTR. Princeton Theological Review, Phila.
BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.	JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.	QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
Bib. Biblical World, Chicago.	Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.	QR. Quarterly Review, London.
BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.	KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.	RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.	LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.	RefS. Réforme Sociale, Paris.
Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.	Lamp. Lamp, N. Y.	RRL. Review of Reviews, London.
BL. Book-Lover, N. Y.	Leish. Leisure Hour, London.	RRM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
Bkman. Bookman, N. Y.	Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.	Revue. Revue, Paris.
BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago.	LQ. London Quarterly Review, London.	RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y.	Long. Longman's Magazine, London.	RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels.
Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto.	Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.	RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris.
Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London.	McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y.	RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
CasM. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.	Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London.	RSoc. Revue Socialistic, Paris.
Cath. Catholic World, N. Y.	MA. Magazine of Art, London.	Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y.	Meth. Methodist Quarterly, Nashville.	San. Sanitarian, N. Y.
Cham. Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh.	MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y.	School. School Review, Chicago.
Chaut. Chautauquan, Springfield, O.	Mind. Mind, N. Y.	Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
Contem. Contemporary Review, London.	MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston.	SR. Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Corn. Cornhill, London.	MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y.	SocS. Social Service, N. Y.
Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y.	Mon. Monist, Chicago.	Str. Strand Magazine, London.
CLA. Country Life in America, N. Y.	MonR. Monthly Review, London.	Temp. Temple Bar, London.
Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y.	MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y.	USM. United Service Magazine, London.
Crit. Critic, N. Y.	Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.	West. Westminster Review, London.
Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.	Mus. Music, Chicago.	WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Dial. Dial, Chicago.	NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.	WW. World's Work, N. Y.
Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin.	NatM. National Magazine, Boston.	Yale. Yale Review, New Haven.
Edin. Edinburgh Review, London.	NatR. National Review, London.	YM. Young Man, London.
		YW. Young Woman, London.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

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MR. GEORGE WYNDHAM, AUTHOR OF THE IRISH LAND BILL.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

A Notable Anniversary. The purchase of the Louisiana territory was consummated at Paris on April 30, 1803. So great an event has this purchase proved to be in its historical consequences that it seems well-nigh useless to try to lend impressiveness to it by comparing it with other historical events, or by making eulogistic phrases about it. Much has been written upon that first huge stride in the course of our national expansion. The very best condensed narrative and interpretation of it given us by any historical writer is to be found in the fourth volume of "The Winning of the West," by Theodore Roosevelt. It is, therefore, a pleasant coincidence that the author of that original and finely conceived historical work,—of the excellence of which one finds fresh proof upon every reference to it,—should now in his capacity as President of the United States take a leading part in the celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of the treaty with France for the cession of Louisiana. Roughly speaking, the Louisiana Purchase comprised that great central section of the United States lying between the Mississippi River on the east and the Rocky Mountains on the west, and extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the British possessions on the north. Its greatest width at the extreme north was about a thousand miles; its greatest length, from the mouth of the Mississippi to the extreme northwestern point, was about two thousand miles. The narrowest portion was what is now the State of Louisiana,—Texas then being a part of Mexico, and, with California and the country west of the Rockies, a possession of Spain.

The Mississippi Outlet. The circumstances of this great purchase were very remarkable. They will be found well recapitulated in an article contributed to this number of the REVIEW by a well-known authority on American history, Prof. Frederick J. Turner, of the University of Wisconsin. In those days, when there were no

railroads and most of the country remained a wilderness, commerce was wholly a matter of transportation by water. We already possessed the eastern bank of the Mississippi River to a point below Natchez. We were shut off from the Gulf of Mexico by the narrow strip of West Florida fifty or sixty miles wide which at that time extended all the way to the Mississippi River, and by the projecting delta of the river which belonged to the Louisiana province. Our frontier settlers on the Ohio and in the region accessible to the Mississippi were clamoring for unrestricted navigation rights to the sea. The Louisiana province had been ceded by France to the Spaniards, who also held the Floridas, in 1765. We had succeeded in making a temporary arrangement with the Spaniards which gave us certain rights of passage, and particularly of landing and storing goods at New Orleans. This arrangement was reported as withdrawn at the very time when it came to be known that by a secret treaty the Spanish Government had transferred Louisiana back to the French. The Americans had believed they could deal with the Spaniards, and eventually have their own way about the use of the mouths of the river. But they regarded France as incomparably more formidable, and so our settlers in the Southwest were very much disturbed.

A Napoleonic Real Estate Deal. Meanwhile, the French had not yet taken possession at New Orleans, for they were at that time painfully and disastrously engaged in the endeavor to put down the revolt in Haiti. Under these circumstances, President Jefferson instructed our minister at Paris, Mr. Livingston, to try to purchase the east bank of the Mississippi to its mouth, this purchase including the town of New Orleans. The total amount of land asked for was comparatively a mere speck on the map,—a bit of marsh and sand off the extreme end of West Florida, and the margin of delta land that lies



THE SHADED PART OF THE MAP SHOWS THE EXTENT OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE OF 1803.

east of the main channel of the Mississippi between Lake Pontchartrain and the river's mouth. Mr. Livingston's negotiations seemed to be wholly fruitless, and at length President Jefferson quietly sent James Monroe as a special envoy with authority to treat at Madrid as well as at Paris, and with instructions to buy New Orleans and the river outlet for \$2,000,000. Suddenly, to the great surprise of Messrs. Livingston and Monroe, Napoleon proposed through Marbois, his finance minister, to sell us not merely New Orleans, but almost a million square miles of country, nearly all of which had never been seen by a white man. Napoleon was now determined that the United States should take over the whole French territory, even as he had formerly been determined not to sell the marginal strip on the east bank of the river.

The Boldness of Monroe and Livingston. And having made up his mind to sell, he was not willing to lose any time about it. The American commissioners had no instructions to buy, and there was no Atlantic cable or swift steamship service by which they could communicate with the Government at Washington. When ninety-five years later the American peace commissioners at Paris concluded to buy the Philippine Islands from Spain, they acted under instructions received daily and almost hourly from President

McKinley at Washington. But Mr. Livingston of New York and Mr. Monroe of Virginia took their chances, fixed the pecuniary terms of the bargain, and signed offhand a treaty of territorial acquisition which doubled the domain of the United States. They signed this treaty on April 30, and nobody in the United States had any inkling of the matter for more than two months. The treaty was broad and comprehensive in its provisions. At the moment of its signing, there were also signed two other treaties, one of which agreed that the United States should pay France 60,000,000 francs, while the other provided that three or four million dollars' worth of outstanding American claims against France should be paid off by the United States Treasury. These two items taken together amounted to about fifteen million dollars, and were regarded as being in consideration of the cession of the Louisiana country. The first article of the treaty asserts the fact that there had been a retrocession of "the colony or province of Louisiana" from Spain to France by a treaty of October 1, 1800; then it declares that whereas "the French Republic has an incontestible title to the domain and to the possession of the said territory: The First Consul of the French Republic desiring to give to the United States a strong proof of his friendship, doth hereby cede to the United States, in



James Monroe.

Robert Livingston.

Barbé Marbois.

THE SIGNERS OF THE TREATY CEDING LOUISIANA TO THE UNITED STATES.

the name of the French Republic, forever and in full sovereignty, the said territory, with all its rights and appurtenances, as fully and in the same manner as they have been acquired by the French Republic, in virtue of the above-mentioned treaty concluded with His Catholic Majesty."

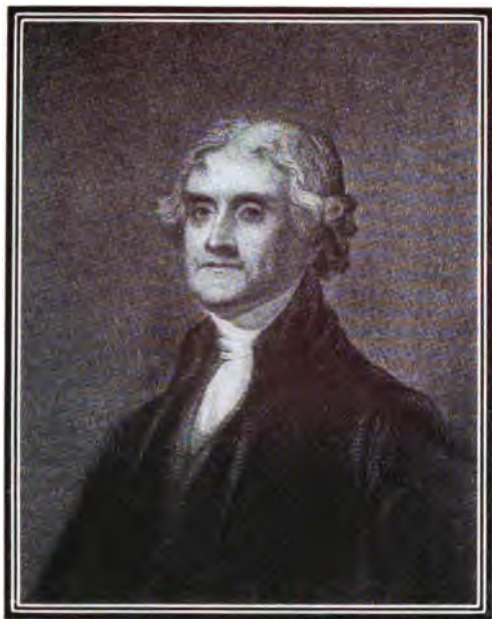
*The Real Hero
Was the Ameri-
can Pioneer.*

Mr. Roosevelt in his "Winning of the West" declares that the Louisiana Purchase was not the work chiefly of the statesmen and diplomatists of the Jefferson administration, nor yet of Napoleon and his advisers. In page after page of fact and argument, he finally proves incontestibly that the Louisiana Purchase was the result of the energy and spirit of the American pioneers of the Southwest. Napoleon had intended to maintain and develop the French colonial empire in America, but circumstances had rapidly and wholly convinced him that the thing was impossible. He had received reports which showed both the disposition and the capacity of the American frontiersmen. These pioneers were determined not to allow New Orleans to pass from the comparatively inert Spanish Government to the powerful control of France, and Napoleon was convinced that sooner or later the frontiersmen would open the Mississippi River and control New Orleans in spite of all that he could do. He was advised how strong an influence the new settlements of the Southwest had in the political party of which Jefferson was the leader and the exponent, and he had come to think it probable that if he should undertake

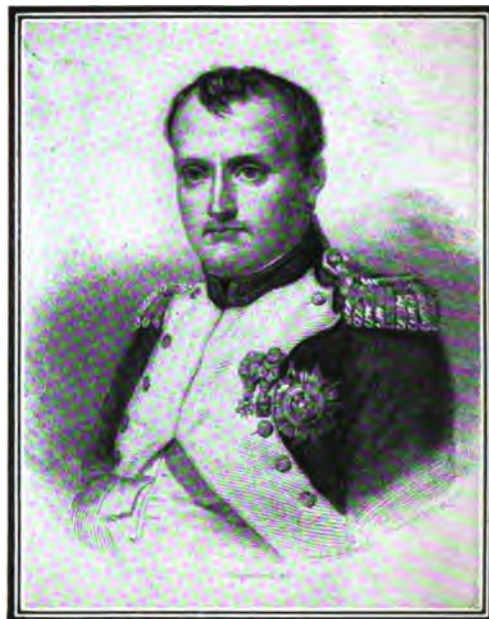
to hold the mouths of the Mississippi as against the clamor of the Americans he would inevitably drive the United States into an alliance with England, in which case he would certainly be deprived of Louisiana, not to mention dangers in other quarters. With Napoleon, to perceive was to act. The undeveloped regions of the upper part of the Louisiana Purchase were of no interest to him if France was to lose her preëminence in the Gulf of Mexico and her hold in the West Indies. Thus, it seemed best to him, not merely to sell New Orleans, but to sell the whole of the Louisiana country, to the United States. Mr. Roosevelt says that in any case our pioneers would inevitably have settled, developed, and acquired the trans-Mississippi country. But it was high statesmanship on Napoleon's part to perceive the inevitable, and it was splendid courage and broad vision that actuated Livingston and Monroe when they made the bargain and signed the treaty.

*Jefferson's
Interest in
the West.*

Fortunately, they could count upon President Jefferson's ardent backing at home. Jefferson for many years had been one of the very few Americans who had felt a scientific interest and curiosity in the idea of an exploration of the great Indian country of the Northwest, which, though belonging nominally to Spain, had never been traversed by a Spaniard. At the very time when, unknown to him, his representatives at Paris were purchasing that northwestern wilderness for the United States, Jefferson was arranging for a notable tour of exploration under the leadership



President Jefferson.



Napoleon Bonaparte.

THE CHIEF FIGURES IN THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

of his private secretary, Capt. Meriwether Lewis, of Virginia. A good many years earlier, Jefferson had been interested in the project of an American traveler who had proposed to go up the Missouri River as far as possible by row-boats and canoes, and then across the mountains to the headwaters of the Columbia, or of some other stream that emptied into the Pacific, and thus down to the western coast of the continent. There were already some American settlements in the Missouri valley above the French village of St. Louis, and certain trading treaties had been made with the Indians on behalf of American citizens. The time had come for a renewal of governmental action on this matter of Indian trading, and this gave occasion for the expedition which Jefferson was fitting out under the leadership of Captain Lewis, with his friend Captain Clark, also of Virginia, as his colleague. Mr. Jefferson had himself drawn up very complete instructions for this expedition, and Captain Lewis was about to leave Washington for Pittsburg, and thence to float down the Ohio River to St. Louis, to make his start across the unknown wilderness, when the startling news arrived of the Louisiana Purchase. Jefferson himself tells us that news of the Louisiana Purchase was received at Washington about July 1, and that Captain Lewis started on the 5th under new conditions that infinitely enhanced the importance of the project of exploration.

The Lewis and Clark Expedition.

The fact that Captain Lewis was to explore what had now become our own domain lent a vastly increased interest to his undertaking. Delays incident to what was then a long, tedious journey to St. Louis made it impracticable to get the expedition of twenty-five or thirty men fairly started on its work until the following spring. The winter of 1804-05 was spent with the Mandan Indians on the Missouri River, in what is now Dakota. The summer of 1805 found the expedition safely descending the Columbia River. The projected Lewis and Clark exposition to be held at Portland, Ore., in 1905, a year after the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis, will, therefore, come at the proper time for the celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of this remarkable exploration. To make it as sure as possible that the news of the journey should be received, Jefferson had provided that some members of the party should return by sea, the coasts of the Oregon country being frequented by merchant ships in the fur trade. Messrs. Lewis and Clark, and most of the party, however, returned across the wilderness, varying their route somewhat, and traversing regions that President Roosevelt visited last month. They reached St. Louis in September, 1806. The whole country rang with their fame, and few Americans ever more fully deserved the approval of their countrymen. They had shown

quite the same qualities of energy, capacity, and intelligence, together with entire modesty, that had belonged to Washington in his early career as surveyor and Western explorer. They had shown marvelous ability in managing the Indians, and they had been able to make friends with the most warlike tribes.

*A Brilliant
Page in Our
History.*

It is to be hoped that this centenary period will incite thousands of young Americans to read about the intrepid explorers of the Louisiana Purchase. Captain Lewis was promptly rewarded by being made governor of the great Louisiana territory, while Captain Clark was made a general of the Louisiana militia and the agent of the United States for Indian affairs throughout the Louisiana country,—these two offices being the most important ones relating to the Louisiana Purchase then in the gift of the Government. Unfortunately, Captain Lewis' death occurred two or three years afterward, at a time when he was about to prepare for publication his and Captain Clark's journals of their great expedition. The materials were placed in the hands of Mr. Paul Allen, of Philadelphia, who, with the aid of Captain Clark and other members of the party, brought out, in 1814, the classical work entitled "The History of the Expedition Under the Command of Captains Lewis and Clark to the Sources of the Missouri, Thence Across the Rocky Mountains and Down the River Columbia and to the Pacific Ocean, Performed During the Years 1804-05-06 by Order of the Government of the United States." This work was republished a few months ago in two volumes in excellent form by Messrs. A. C. McClurg & Co., of Chicago, with a brilliant introduction by Dr. James K. Hosmer.

An edition in three smaller volumes has also appeared lately from the press of the New Amsterdam Book Company. Dr. Elliott's elaborately annotated edition of ten years ago is out of print. Dr. Hosmer's little volumes on the "Louisiana Purchase" and the "Mississippi Valley" are to be commended to general readers interested in this subject, as is Professor Sparks' volume entitled "The Expansion of the American People." But best of all, in our opinion, is

Theodore Roosevelt's "The Winning of the West," and in particular, as relating to this period, the fourth volume. For an elaborate study of the diplomatic history of the Louisiana Purchase, the works of Mr. Henry Adams are to be consulted as the highest authority.

*What We
Have Done
with the Pur-
chase.*

To the Louisiana Purchase we owe three tiers of States. In the first tier are Louisiana, admitted to the Union in 1812; Missouri, in 1821; Arkansas, in 1836; Iowa, in 1846, and Minnesota, in



CAPT. MERIWETHER LEWIS.



CAPT. WILLIAM CLARK.

1858. In the second tier are Kansas, admitted in 1861; Nebraska, in 1867; North Dakota and South Dakota, in 1889, and Oklahoma, which, with its complement of the Indian Territory, will be admitted in the near future. In the third tier are Colorado (the eastern part of which belonged to the Louisiana Purchase), admitted in 1876; Montana, admitted in 1889, and Wyoming, admitted in 1890. These States now include the most important wheat and corn producing areas, not only in the United States, but in the whole world. The southern part of the region is famous for cotton as well as for other products, and millions of farmers as prosperous as any in the world live in the great States of Iowa, Minnesota, Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri. Scores of thousands of miles of railroad lines form the highways of commerce for the fifteen millions of people who now occupy the wilderness bought by Jefferson and his agents and traversed by Lewis and Clark. The

great railway systems involved in the Northern Securities case last month lie for the most part within the Louisiana Purchase territory. The village of St. Louis has become a splendid metropolis, which in the near future will have a million people. The little town of New Orleans has become a beautiful and famous city. From Minneapolis and St. Paul on the eastern edge of the Louisiana territory to Denver near the western edge, prosperous towns and cities have sprung into being. Progressive institutions of education are found everywhere, and a population of very high average character occupies these commonwealths and feels the same degree of local pride, and affection for home environment, as communities elsewhere that cherish a much longer history.

*Railroads
as Later
Pioneers.*

The greater part of this development of the Louisiana Purchase country has taken place since the ending of the Civil War. Whereas in the older parts of the country the railroads followed the work of settlement, it is peculiarly true of the greater part of the Louisiana Purchase country that railroads have been the pioneers, and that the settlers have followed to cultivate the land and build the towns along the lines of steel highway. It was this fact that enabled the trans-Mississippi country suddenly to take so enormous a part in the supply of the markets of the world with breadstuffs and meat. For six or seven years past, these States have enjoyed a period of agricultural prosperity that can probably not be matched in the history of any country at any time; and the present year promises to be as prosperous as its predecessors. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis proposes, indeed, to be a world's fair of the first magnitude; but it must above all else illustrate the marvelous development of the territory whose acquisition it is meant to celebrate.

*St. Louis and
its Celebra-
tions.*

We are publishing in this number an article from Mr. Crunden, the well-known librarian of St. Louis, on the plans and prospects of the exposition, together with an article on the city of St. Louis itself, from the pen of Mr. Saunders, of the Business Men's League of that city. The St. Louis Exposition comes eleven years after the World's Fair at Chicago. The great West has made its longest strides in this short period. Much of human interest has happened to the world even since the Paris Exposition of three years ago. An important exposition might be made which should include nothing but new inventions or improvements and changes that belong to the

period since the World's Fair at Chicago. The celebration on April 30 was designed at once to commemorate the Louisiana Purchase and to dedicate in a formal manner the grounds and palaces of the exposition, now rapidly advancing toward completion, though not to be opened until next spring. The principal speakers provided for April 30 were President Roosevelt and ex-President Cleveland. May 1 was to be celebrated as Diplomatic Day, with addresses by the French representative, M. Jusserand, and the Spanish minister, Don Emilio de Ojeda. May 2 was to be Governors' Day, Governor Dockery of Missouri welcoming the guests of many of the States East and West, for whom Governor Odell of New York was expected to respond. The invited guests for these three days included a great array of executive, legislative, judiciary, and diplomatic officials.

*Western Pros-
perity and Its
Diffusion.*

The prosperity of Western farmers is a vital factor in the making of good times for the country at large. It keeps the railroads prosperous, and it has lately been giving them an unprecedented volume of traffic both ways. This prosperity of the railroads, in turn, distributes itself very widely. It has enabled the organized railway employees to demand better wages and conditions with marked success. On almost every line of road in the country there have been recent advances of 10 or 15 per cent. in the pay of employees. Increased business and earnings have also justified the roads in the making of extensive betterments; that is to say, in improving grades, relaying tracks, converting single-track into double-track lines, and the like. Such work gives employment at good wages to many thousands of unskilled laborers. Furthermore, the immense volume of traffic is obliging all the roads to buy more engines and cars, and thus all the establishments for the manufacture of rolling stock and railroad supplies are working to the full extent of their capacity. It is easy to see how this prosperity of the farmers and of the people who directly or indirectly serve the railroad system must extend itself to the textile industries of the East and to general manufactures and trade;—for when American farmers, railroad men, and mechanics are prosperous, they live well because their standards are high, their wives are intelligent, and they are ambitious for their children.

*Good Times
and What
Makes Them.*

Thus, the widest possible diffusion of prosperity is the best possible safeguard for the continuance of prosperity. Hard times in the old days used to be attributed most commonly to so-called "over-

production" and the "glut of the market." But there is no particular danger of an overproduction of shoes, for example, if the people who want shoes are able to buy them. The shoemakers and cloth-makers of the factory towns want bread and meat as well as clothes and shoes. The farmers, on the other hand, want clothes and shoes as well as bread and meat. With all parts of the great producing and distributing system working harmoniously, why should there be any serious period of hard times except as the result of widespread crop failures or of such a national calamity as war or pestilence? Those who have most to say against the great corporations and "trusts" must in candor admit that the general industrial life of this country has never before been so well adjusted as it is at the present time. For a number of years, the current of prosperity has moved swiftly, but steadily and safely. The reaction that the pessimists have been predicting as just ahead does not arrive. There have of late been some evidences of an unwholesome speculative tendency, and there will be a great deal of loss in particular localities through credulous investment in wildcat stock-jobbing schemes on the part of people who hope to make money out of distant gold and copper mines, phantom coffee plantations, and other bogus enterprises. But these are mere eddies in the present great stream of economic life, and do not affect the main current.

*The
Present
Tendencies.*

The largest speculative tendency has shown itself in the advance in the prices of Western farm lands, which in some districts have doubled or quadrupled. This movement, however, has not gone very far beyond the bounds of safety and moderation. A good many millions of dollars of the surplus of our own farmers has gone rather too hastily into the purchase of Canadian wild lands, partly for actual settlement, but more largely for speculation. Much of this money could have been better invested at home. The railroads, with their union in large systems, are carrying on the country's transportation business in a far better way than under the conditions that prevailed twenty or even ten years ago. In many of the large industries, particularly in iron and steel, the methods of the great corporations and trusts bring about a steadiness of production and supply and an evenness of price that are highly beneficial to the country, and that largely diminish the danger of oscillation between good times and bad times. The improvement in the conditions of the money-supply and the banking business also renders us far less liable than we were

ten years ago to those sharp disturbances in what the business world knows as "credit," which have in the past been perhaps more responsible than anything else for the periods of industrial depression which have followed financial panics.

*Labor and
Capital on
Better Terms.*

Although from the newspaper headlines and the constant reports of threatened or impending strikes the casual reader might get the notion that we are living in a period of fearful strife between capital and labor, the facts are quite otherwise. Organized capital and organized labor are coming into a fairly good working understanding in this country. The settlement of a threatened strike on the great Wabash Railway system is a good example. In March, Judge Adams, of the United States Court at St. Louis, had granted a temporary injunction restraining the men from tying up the Wabash lines by a strike. Early last month, Judge Adams dissolved this injunction on the ground that the management had not made good its charges against the men; and he advised the parties in controversy to arbitrate, and thus exhibit to an expectant public "another instance of rational and intelligent adjustment of a business difficulty." The matter ended in a wondrous exhibition of sweet reasonableness on the part of the high officials of the Wabash system and the representatives of the employees. Statements made after the settlement on both sides were remarkable for their expressions of respect and good-will. The men gained liberal advances in wages and improved conditions in other respects. A strike of great proportions seemed inevitable on the New York, New Haven & Hartford system. At the root of the trouble was the refusal of the management of the road to deal with joint committees of the employees. The directors of the road finally overruled the management, and the result was that a representative committee of the employees met the men representing the ownership and operation of the road, and differences were soon adjusted, the men receiving substantial gains in wages and other conditions, as in the Wabash case.

*The Anthracite
Situation.*

These are good illustrations of a general tendency between capital and labor to maintain complete organization on both sides, and to settle differences by direct conference on a frank and straightforward basis. The very slightest disposition to act in this way on the part of the anthracite roads would have averted the great coal strike of last year. With the arrival of mild weather, the temporary reasons for the large increase in the price of anthracite coal had wholly disappeared.

There was an ample supply available, and no change in the conditions of production could have justified a permanent increase of more than a few cents a ton. But the anthracite monopoly, which absolutely fixes prices and controls the output, and holds the market firmly in its grasp, has ordained that the price shall for the present year remain at a scale fully a dollar a ton higher than a year ago. The monopoly had already advanced prices to a scale which would amply have justified the payment of better wages to the miners without increasing the cost of fuel to the public. This anthracite combination violates more laws in more different ways, probably, than any other trust or combination in the country. It is one of the few great organizations that makes its money, not by the introduction of economies in production and distribution, but solely by extortion from the public through the fact that it has secured a monopoly control of an article of necessary use. If the Northern Securities Company, with its control of the railway lines of a great part of the wheat-producing area of the country, had taken advantage of its position to oppress the farmer, on the one hand, and to increase the cost of the public's bread-supply on the other hand, we should have had a condition somewhat analogous to that which has resulted from the relations of the coal-carrying roads to the production and supply of fuel in the eastern part of the country. The mischief has arisen principally from the entrance of railroads, which should have been confined to the business of carriers, upon that of coal miners and dealers.

Northern Securities Decision. The law passed in February to expedite the trial of suits against combinations under the Sherman anti-trust law had the result of bringing about an unexpectedly early decision in the great case of the United States Government against the Northern Securities Company. The case had been originally begun at St. Paul in the United States District Court for Minnesota; but under the new law it was taken at once to the Court of Appeals, four United States judges of the Eighth Circuit taking part in the trial. The arguments were heard at St. Louis, but the decision was handed down at St. Paul. The four judges on the bench were Caldwell, Sanborn, Thayer, and Van Devanter. The decision was an elaborate one, written by Judge Thayer, all his colleagues concurring at every point. Attorney-General Knox was sustained, and the Northern Securities Company was declared to be a combination "in restraint of trade" in the meaning of the Sherman Act of 1890, and therefore illegal and disqualified from performing the functions which

would otherwise naturally devolve upon it as owner of most of the stock of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Railroad systems. Although the financial world had long been well aware that the Northern Securities case might have just this result, the decision brought, nevertheless, a rather serious shock, because of the vast interests directly or indirectly affected by it, and particularly because of the widespread impression that the principles set forth by Judge Thayer might apply with even greater force to a considerable number of other railroad mergers and consolidations. There might have been a panic, but there was not. Prices fell a little in Wall Street, where they had been too high. The soundness of the business situation was revealed by conditions which might otherwise have brought on a colossal smash-up.

Bearings of the Case. The bearings of the Northern Securities case were somewhat fully discussed in these pages at the time when the suit was brought (see our number for April, 1902); but it may be well to recapitulate a few of the more salient points. By dint of marvelous enterprise and of ability rising to the measure of genius, Mr. James J. Hill had created the Great Northern Railway system, with its principal eastern terminals at St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Duluth, and had pushed a new transcontinental line across North Dakota and Washington to deep-water ports on Puget Sound. In due course of time, the bankrupt Northern Pacific came under the virtual control of the Great Northern, and Mr. Hill's masterful mind was felt in the unifying and harmonizing of transportation interests throughout the Northwest from the Great Lakes to the Pacific. Two years ago, these two systems the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific, went into partnership to purchase the stock of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy system, which they finally succeeded in accomplishing. The Burlington stock, of which there was about \$100,000,000 par value outstanding, was paid for at the rate of \$200 a share by the issue of about \$200,000,000 of 4 per cent. Burlington bonds, which were guaranteed jointly by the two purchasing railway systems. Thus, what came to be commonly known as the Hill group of railways comprised the main lines and various subsidiary systems of the Northern Pacific, the Great Northern, and the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy. Meanwhile, Mr. Hill and his associates were building great ships to add to their fleets on the Pacific Ocean (see page 565) and on the Great Lakes, and were projecting various railway feeders and connecting links to heighten the efficiency of their immense network of railroads.



Judge Willis Van Devanter.

Judge Henry Clay Caldwell.

Judge Walter H. Sanborn.

Judge Amos J. Thayer.

THE FOUR CIRCUIT JUDGES WHO TRIED THE NORTHERN SECURITIES CASE.

What is the N. S. Company? In order to bring about these huge material developments with the greatest possible assurance of stability of financial control, a new company was formed called the Northern Securities Company, not to operate railroads, but to hold a controlling interest in the stocks of the two transcontinental lines which had gone into partnership in the purchase of the Burlington, and which were proposing to conquer Oriental trade for America. The Northern Securities Company was to secure, by purchase or exchange, as much as possible of the stock of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific companies. It actually secured and now owns about 98 per cent. of the Northern Pacific stock and about 76 per cent. of the Great Northern stock. Mr. Hill is president of the Northern Securities Company, and Mr. J. P. Morgan and other leading financiers are associated with him as directors of the enterprise. The railroads themselves have maintained their distinct boards of directors, and have been operated quite as separately as they were before the majority interest in their stocks had come into the hands of a single owner. But, of course, the Northern Securities Company was in position to dictate the election of directors and officers.

Compete, or Liquidate? The Circuit Court has now decided that the existence of this power in the hands of one owner is of itself an evidence of the intention to stifle competition and restrain interstate trade and commerce. Hence their decision, which forbids this owner of the stock to vote at stockholders' meetings, and which also forbids the Northern Pacific and Great Northern railroads to pay dividends to this present owner of the property. These are certainly momentous practical results. There is no question as to the actual ownership of the

railroads. The shares of stock have been honestly bought and paid for by a purchaser who had a valid right to buy railroad stocks. The offense of the Northern Securities Company—according to the recent decision—lies in a motive which the court gets at by an inference. This motive, in the opinion of the four learned judges, is the suppression of competition between the Northern Pacific and the Great Northern lines, and the restraint of interstate trade and commerce. The court infers that there had previously existed “a natural law of competition,” the working of which disappears when a single owner comes into control of two more or less parallel lines of railroad. In legal theory, this may be true. In economics and in practical business, it long ago ceased to be a fact. The Great Northern and Northern Pacific had not for twenty years been competing lines in the sense in which the court discusses the subject.

An Obsolete Theory.

The law of competition is not the controlling principle in running railroads, because experience has fully demonstrated, in the sphere of certain supply services like transportation, that it is impossible to make the law of competition work to economic advantage. What transportation companies want is the steady chance to earn as much money as possible for their stockholders. They found out a good while ago that they could do better by agreeing with one another than by rate-cutting and fighting. In the old sense of the term, competition in such services is obsolete in theory as well as in practice. There is a new sense, however, in which competition is more healthily keen and active under modern conditions of common ownership than under the old conditions. Thus, undoubtedly, it would have been more and more the policy under the influence of

the Northern Securities Company to develop a spirit of keen emulation, or rivalry, between the active managements of the two transcontinental lines, in order to promote the highest possible efficiency and the largest earning capacity. It is this sort of competition that the United States Steel Corporation has introduced with striking results, its object being to bring its less successful mills up to the standard of its most efficient ones. The idea that the public can in any way be profited by railroad rate wars and the old-time clashing competition, is a complete fallacy.

Appealed to the Supreme Court. The Circuit judges deemed it their duty to interpret the law of 1890 as they found it, being guided by certain previous decisions of the Supreme Court in the interpretation of that act. The Supreme Court had already decided that an agreement among competing railroads as to freight rates was just as illegal when beneficial to the public as when harmful. Thus, to illustrate the principle, an understanding among the railroads to reduce wheat rates for the benefit of the farmers and the consuming public would be, according to the courts, an act in restraint of trade. Now, in the case of the Northern Securities Company, it is held, not that any acts in restraint of trade have occurred, but that the power exists to commit such acts. It is not likely that Congress, in passing the Act of 1890, supposed that it could be construed in just this fashion. These judges of the Circuit Court are men whose legal and judicial ability is universally recognized. It is not regarded as probable, therefore, that the Supreme Court, to which the case goes on appeal, will reverse their opinion. It is desirable that the Supreme Court should pass upon the matter at the earliest possible date. Owing to the nearness of the long summer vacation, however, it is not likely that a conclusion can be reached until some time in the course of the autumn term of the court.

How to Get Out of a False Position. There are two ways out of the present false position in which the business

of the country has been placed by the federal attempt to regulate it. One way is for the Supreme Court to retrace its steps and admit a fundamental mistake in the decision of the Trans-Missouri Freight Association case. The other way—and probably the wiser and better one—is for Congress to amend the laws and relieve them of the ambiguity that has enabled the courts to put upon them the present destructive interpretations. The whole matter turns upon the meaning of the phrase “in restraint of trade.” It was the common understanding of the country that this phrase as used in the Sherman Act meant an unreasonable or a harmful exercise of power; and this view was taken by almost half of the members of the Supreme Court, whose powerful dissenting opinion in the Trans-Missouri case, prepared by Justice White, represented four judges as against five who gave the interpretation that the Circuit Court has now followed. In principle, this decision attempts to bring the whole power of the Government of the United States to block the modern tendency of business. It would be an almost unspeakable calamity to have our transportation methods thrown back to that chaos that existed in the old era of competition which the tone and sentiment of this latest

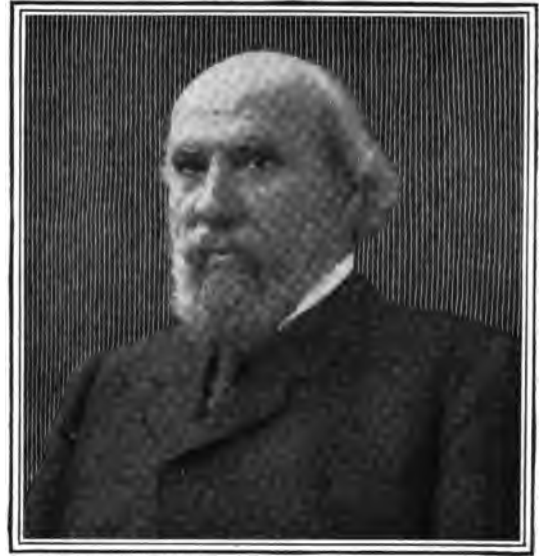


IS UNCLE SAM A WRECKER?

From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).

court decision seem to extol. It would be a reversion to that period of ignorance of economic principles in which it was supposed that the way to get cheap gas was to encourage rival gas companies to lay their mains in the same streets, and that the way to get good street-railway service was to have competing lines on alternate parallel streets; or else, as in the case of a large number of instances in the United States, actually to allow rival companies to lay their tracks on the very same public thoroughfares.

*Smashing
versus
Regulating
Combinations.* Now that our business life is coming more and more under the cognizance of statutes and the judiciary, and that the courts are exercising an ever-widening authority in their interpretations, it is highly important that judges who desire to protect the public in the economic sphere should themselves comprehend economic laws and principles. If this recent decision had been content to base itself simply upon the fact that inferior courts were practically bound by the previous interpretations of the Supreme Court, there could have been no ground of criticism. But, unfortunately, there breathes throughout this decision a certain air of having accomplished a good day's work in breaking up a railroad combination; and between the lines there seems to be a strong invitation for others to go and do likewise, and smash the combines generally. There is hardly a railroad system or combination in the country that could stand the test under this Northern Securities decision; and there are probably hundreds of industrial enterprises and combinations that are open to condemnation on the same ground,—namely, that they are powerful enough to influence prices or affect the course of trade in their particular directions if they should choose to do so. Stripped to its logical essence, this decision says that it is unlawful to attain any position of influence or power in interstate commerce, because that position might at some time be harmfully exercised. As Justice White put it in dissenting from the decision in the Trans-Missouri case, it meant in the ultimate analysis "that there must be no trade." It is plain enough that the courts, in construing the law, have brought themselves and the business of the country into a sort of cul-de-sac. The modern business principle is not that large industrial combinations should be broken up, but that they should be so regulated as to prevent them from doing any act of harm or oppression. As for railroads, the remedy lies in the direction of legalizing pooling arrangements, agreements, and combinations, accompanied by marked increase, on the other hand, of



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MR. JAMES J. HILL.

the direct authority of the Interstate Commerce Commission, or some other public body, to enforce fair and equitable rates.

*The
Immediate
Situation.* As to the immediate practical effect of the Northern Securities decision, in case of its being affirmed by the Supreme Court, nothing whatever will have been accomplished that can in any way benefit the people who live in the States traversed by the Great Northern and Northern Pacific systems. As Mr. Hill puts it, the railroad properties will stay where they are, their earning capacity will not be affected one iota, and their ownership will remain in the hands of the same people who now control them. It would seem practically impossible that they should henceforth drift apart into the hands of mutually antagonistic cliques of directors. We have entered upon a period of harmonious railway management. It may indeed turn out that the amalgamated systems of the United States may come under one great controlling federation as a preliminary step toward passing over to government ownership of railways. But it is not conceivable that the reverse process should take place, and that great systems and lines should break up into a multitude of petty competing units. Demagogues will try hard so to arouse public prejudice as to prevent Congress from dealing with these questions on their merits; but when the prosperity of the country is at stake, public opinion always in due time heeds wise instruction. Thus, the sound-money cause prevailed, and the free-

silver movement sunk below the horizon of practical politics. In like manner, the country will learn that it must not be swayed by mere prejudice against trusts and corporations, but must study such questions carefully, and deal with them upon their merits.

While the great citizen and states-
Some Names to man, Robert R. Livingston, who
Be Recalled
This Year. helped to buy Louisiana from Napoleon, was minister at Paris, a brilliant young American engineer and inventor,—namely, Robert Fulton,—was also living there; and in the very same year of the Louisiana Purchase, 1803, Fulton made his first successful steamboat experiment on the Seine, under Livingston's eye and patronage. It was this same Robert Livingston whose name will always be honorably associated with that of Fulton in the subsequent development of steam navigation on the Hudson River, and throughout America and the world. It is always interesting to recall the relationships existing between the great men and the great events of a given period. Thus, it is to be noted that the mayor of New York in 1803 was Edward Livingston, the younger brother of our minister to France. Edward was a brilliant and learned lawyer, who, though still young, had served with distinction in Congress, and already possessed influence and reputation. Just at this time, however, he was the victim of a great misfortune. A lot of public money for which he was responsible was stolen by a subordinate. He threw his entire fortune into the breach, and turned his back on New York with no impairment of honor or self-respect. Like the still more famous Aaron Burr, he had fallen under the fascination of the idea of fortune to be gained in the great new empire just bought from France. But he sought Louisiana in a totally different spirit from that of Burr.

He went directly to New Orleans,
Livingston in where in 1804 he began the practice
Louisiana. of law. He took with him an unusual knowledge of Roman law and the principles of civil jurisprudence, and quickly became an authority upon the somewhat inconsistent tangle of Spanish, French, and other legal systems that existed in the Louisiana colony. It was he who effectively opposed the substitution of the English common law in Louisiana, and it was he who created the great Louisiana Civil Code, a world-famed monument of legal learning and practical statesmanship. In later years, he served as United States Senator from Louisiana, and as Secretary of State under President Jackson, who also sent him to France as United States min-



HON. EDWARD LIVINGSTON, OF LOUISIANA AND NEW YORK.

ister, where his position in the world of society and learning was as great as his diplomatic undertakings were successful. He died in 1836, at Rhinebeck-on-the-Hudson, and ought to be remembered as one of the greatest Americans in all the nation's annals, and a notable historical link between the Empire State and the great Louisiana country.

Livingston died in a period when
Clinton and steamboat navigation was making the
the Erie Canal. two rivers that he knew so well, the Hudson and the Mississippi, the greatest highways of commerce in the country. He died, also, familiar with the vision of many canal boats on the Hudson River, the Erie Canal having been opened in the year 1825 to connect the Great Lake system with the Atlantic by means of a waterway from Buffalo, on Lake Erie, to the Hudson at Albany. Another young New York statesman, De Witt Clinton, was a United States Senator at the time, in 1803, when Edward Livingston was mayor of New York and Robert Livingston was in Paris buying Louisiana and backing Fulton in his steamboat experiments. De Witt Clinton was also ardently interested in the Louisiana Purchase, and was one of Jefferson's foremost supporters in the Senate when many of the Eastern members were opposed to the ratification of the great treaties of April 30, 1803. After Mayor Edward Livingston went to Louisiana, De Witt Clinton resigned from the Senate to take the place of mayor of New York City. He became

the foremost advocate of steam navigation, as he was also first in a number of projects for the public welfare ; and he made the construction of the Erie Canal the crowning achievement with which his name will always be identified.



HON. DE WITT CLINTON.
(Father of the Erie Canal.)

The New Erie Canal as Now Projected. Governor Clinton's name comes freshly to the lips at this time, because the New York Legislature, which completed its annual session late last month, has adopted a measure which provides for a total modern reconstruction of the Erie Canal at an estimated cost of more than one hundred million dollars. We spoke of this bill in these pages last month as pending ; we may now mention it as duly passed by the Legislature and signed by the governor. There remains, however, the important formality of submitting to the people of the State, in November next, the question whether or not they will authorize the necessary bond issue for entering upon this colossal public improvement. Again, this act of 1903 associates itself with the Louisiana Purchase, because the canal enlargement is due wholly to the vast development of agriculture and industry in the northern part of the region acquired from France a hundred years ago. The wheat and flour, the lumber, the iron ore, and the other products that are shipped from Lake Superior ports, and that pass through the St. Mary's Canal out of Lake Superior to places farther east and south, now constitute by far the largest volume of water traffic passing any given point in the whole world. There will be business enough to justify all projected canal and railroad improvements.

Waterways and Cities.

The city of Buffalo was created by the Erie Canal. The preëminence of New York in the nineteenth century over other Atlantic seaports was also due to the Erie Canal as the determining consideration. The rise of New Orleans in commercial importance in the nineteenth century was due to the creation of steam navigation on the Mississippi. The future commercial preëminence of New York City seems now destined to rest very largely upon the courageous project of spending a hundred million dollars to make the Erie Canal wide enough and deep enough to admit 1,000-ton barges, and thus meet modern traffic conditions. The future commercial greatness of New Orleans, in turn, seems destined to accrue in large part from the forthcoming creation of the Panama Canal,—also an enterprise determined upon by the United States Government in this centennial anniversary year 1903. The future commercial greatness of Chicago and St. Louis seems to be assured by all the conditions which promise to make the country itself great and prosperous. St. Louis, at the very heart of the country, will thrive with the further development of the resources of the Louisiana Purchase, and with the development of Texas and the other great districts subsequently acquired.

The Mississippi River.

It may yet be the case that without impairment of the prosperity of our vast network of railroads there may be marked recovery of navigation on the Mississippi River by two processes,—first, that of a further carrying out of plans for deepening and maintaining the navigable channel ; and, second, that of improvement in the types of steamboat and barge, and especially in engines, possibly also in the substitution of electricity for steam. It will be a boon to a rich and fertile portion of the Louisiana Purchase when methods shall have been perfected for more secure protection against floods. At large cost, there has been built up along the lower Mississippi extensive dikes or embankments, locally known as levees. In the springtime, when the Ohio, Missouri, and other tributaries of the Mississippi are unduly swollen by the spring freshets and the melting of snows in the mountains, the volume of water in the lower Mississippi is so great that it rises above the level of much of the country along its banks. It is hard to prevent the occasional breaking of the levees. The construction of reservoirs near the headwaters of some of the great tributaries, to impound the surplus of each freshet season, and to release it in the midsummer season of low water for the benefit of navigation, will perhaps furnish a partial remedy at

some future time. The problem as a whole is intricate, and its solution on an adequate scale may have to be postponed until the second centennial anniversary period of the Louisiana Purchase; but some solution will be found. The Father of Waters will submit to engineering control.

*Inundation,—
Mississippi
and Nile.*

The floods of the present spring have been exceptionally distressing along the lower Mississippi, and the losses to inundated farms and plantations have been fearfully large in the aggregate. It is surprising, however, to note how quickly those flooded regions recover when the water subsides. Their condition is not quite analogous to that of the Nile country, where inundation is wholly essential for moistening and enriching the soil of a rainless country. Nevertheless, the amazing richness of the Mississippi bottom lands is due in large part to the fertilizing sediment deposited in the times of overflow. Speaking of the Nile, the world at large has hardly realized how greatly the area of productivity along that river has been increased by the great public works due to the efficiency of the present English administration. The chief of these works is the great dam completed some months ago at Assouan. This holds back the waters of the fruitful stream to such good economic effect as to have doubled the cultivable area of Egyptian soil. Further projects at higher points on the Nile are to follow in due course of time.

*Governmental
Economic
Projects.*

These modern projects of economic improvement at governmental cost are expressed in financial terms that seem rather formidable; but where such undertakings are well thought out, the public credit may safely be invoked. Thus, the business conditions doubtless justify the enlargement of the Erie Canal, and the State of New York may wisely lend its credit to the project. The United States Government can finance the Panama Canal without adding the burden of a feather's weight to any citizen's load of taxation, for the simple reason that the canal tolls will easily pay the interest, and in due time pay off the principal of the cost of construction. Enhanced Egyptian prosperity will repay the cost of the Assouan dam several times over.

*Our Irrigation
Schemes.*

It is now announced that the irrigation projects of the United States Government in the far West are going to cost two or three times as much per acre of land redeemed as was estimated when the law was passed; but the Government will have no trouble at all in selling its irrigated lands for all

that it may cost to render them productive. The five irrigation projects first determined upon all involve striking and brilliant feats in engineering. In Montana, it is proposed to divert the St. Mary's River, which now flows through Canada to Hudson's Bay, by building a dam and digging a canal which will throw the water into the channel of the Milk River, and irrigate about a quarter of a million acres along that stream, which traverses a great extent of country in northern Montana. Projects in Colorado, Wyoming, Nevada, and Arizona are equally bold and striking in their character. There ought to be careful maps and models of these undertakings in the United States Government Building at the St. Louis Exposition. It will, indeed, be especially fitting that such subjects as irrigation, government forestry, river and harbor improvement, the work of the Western experimental stations of the Department of Agriculture, and various other kindred matters having to do with the development under public auspices of the resources of the great West, should be given a far greater prominence by the United States Government at St. Louis than at any previous exposition.

*The Irish
Land-Purchase
Bill.*

While in the United States we are this year undertaking to bring government aid to industry, trade, and agriculture by digging the Panama Canal, enlarging the waterways of New York State, investing millions in the irrigation of Western lands, and financing the transfer of the friars' lands to the peasantry of Luzon, the British Government is entering upon a scheme of land purchase greater in its financial magnitude than all these American projects put together. In short, the greatest event of the month under review in these pages has been the introduction of the Tory government's Irish land-purchase bill by the Secretary for Ireland, George Wyndham, and the enthusiastic acceptance of that measure by a great representative gathering of Irish people at Dublin. Mr. Wyndham's personality and career are described in an article from the pen of Mr. W. T. Stead which we publish elsewhere in this number. At a single stroke, this disciple of Mr. Balfour has risen from a secondary position to a place in the forefront of the world's statesmen. It is not that Mr. Wyndham has invented the chief features of the land bill or created the conjunction of circumstances which has rendered its successful introduction politically possible. But where another man might have failed to seize the opportunity, he has risen to the occasion with infinite tact, and has beyond a doubt won his great battle in advance.

*Outlines of
the Measure.*

Our readers were early apprised of the fact that such a measure was forthcoming, in Mr. Walter Wellman's remarkable article published in our number for February, after his return from a study of the Irish situation on the ground. What Mr. Wellman outlined and predicted with an optimism that caused the wiseacres to shake their heads, is exactly what has come to pass. Mr. Wyndham's bill provides for the raising of money to buy out the Irish landlords through the gradual issue and sale of a new series of government stocks (bonds, as we should say), bearing $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. interest, and aggregating in the end about five hundred million dollars. It is proposed that the tenant farmers who are to become landowners shall, in lieu of paying rent, simply pay the government $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. per annum, as a fixed charge against the land, for a period of about sixty-eight years, when all obligations of principal and interest will have been discharged and the land will belong to the farmers free of all incumbrance. Meanwhile, the $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. will amount to decidedly less than the tenants are now paying to the landlords as rent. In order to make the landlords the more willing to sell, Mr. Wyndham's bill proposes an additional cash bonus ranging from 5 to 15 per cent. to be paid to the landlords in addition to the price of the land. This bonus will also be met by the sale of bonds, the interest of which will be paid out of the British Treasury; but Mr. Wyndham was able to show in his speech that it would be possible at once to cut down the present cost of the Land Courts and the Constabulary of Ireland enough to more than offset to the treasury the expense of this bonus to the landlords. In our opinion, the British Government will in the end find the land scheme advantageous rather than burdensome, even in the strict pecuniary sense.

*Its Success
Assured.*

In indirect ways it is obvious that to tranquilize Ireland by forever settling the land question would be of almost incalculable benefit to Great Britain. Mr. Wyndham's speech on the first reading of his land bill (March 25) was one of the greatest occasions in recent parliamentary history. The convention of the delegates of the Irish Nationalists and landowners at Dublin on April 16 was deemed by its participants as the most solemn and momentous occasion in the recent history of Ireland. It was agreed by an overwhelming majority to accept the Wyndham bill in principle, while asking for certain amendments for the better promotion of the interest of the tenants as against the landlords. The action of this



THE HON. GEORGE WYNDHAM.

Dublin convention made it practically certain that upon the second reading in Parliament, on April 22, the bill would proceed to its final passage after the necessary process of elaborate debate, article by article, with the adoption of various amendments in matters of detail. Mr. Gladstone's home rule bill, which passed the Liberal House of Commons, failed in the Tory House of Lords. Fortunately for the cause of Ireland, the present bill is a Tory measure, and its passage by the Commons will make certain its easy and prompt acceptance by the Lords.

*Will
Home Rule
Follow?*

Doubtless, many difficulties of a practical sort will arise in the carrying out of this vast project. Greatest of all, perhaps, will be the difficulty due to the proposed gradual operation of the purchase scheme. The position of those tenant farmers whose situation is dealt with in the first years will be so

much more favorable than that of their neighbors who continue to pay rent that there is sure to result a clamor for a very much more rapid transformation than Mr. Wyndham's bill now proposes. Most thoughtful men are of opinion that there will soon follow an important measure of home rule for Ireland, supported by Tories who until this year would never have thought it possible that they could change their minds so completely on that subject. At present, it is costing the English Government a pretty large sum of money to govern Ireland very badly. It will soon appear that the Irish may well be allowed to govern themselves at their own expense, on a plan which need not in the least interfere with the essential unity of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

*A New Century
of Hope for
Ireland.*

Since, apropos of the Louisiana Purchase, we have made frequent reference to the events of the year 1803, it is worth while to remind our readers that this Irish land-purchase bill, which the other day led William O'Brien for the first time in his life to say "God save the King," and which led the harsh Tory landlord, the Marquis of Clanricarde, for the first time in his life to say "God save

Ireland," promises to begin a new century of good feeling after exactly a hundred years of bitterness and hate following the execution of Robert Emmet in 1803. The economic and political future of Ireland may well be a happy one. Those projects of intelligent coöperation led by Mr. Plunkett and his associates, and described by him in our April number under the heading "Hope for the Irish Farmer," may well grow apace under the better conditions of peasant proprietorship. Two eminent Irishmen, Lord Iveagh, of Dublin, and Mr. Pirrie, of the great Belfast shipbuilding firm of Harlan & Wolff, in avowed recognition of the new era of Irish good feeling and bright outlook, have offered to furnish the capital for an extensive network either of light railways or motor trucks for the marketing of the produce of Irish farmers. It is often the extremes of dire necessity that prompt the efforts which lead to the most striking triumphs. Thus, fifteen or twenty years hence, we may be going to Ireland to learn some of the secrets of rural prosperity and content.

*Progress in Our
Own South.*

On just this principle, one may expect to go to the South, a few years hence, to learn a good many things about the best type of country school, and the best systems of manual and industrial training. Already the schools for negroes at Hampton and Tuskegee are teaching the world some new and valuable lessons in the way to develop intelligence and character through instruction in the doing of practical things. The problem of rebuilding country schoolhouses throughout the South and supplying well-trained teachers for them is so large and so serious as almost to be appalling. The one thing that makes another otherwise dark picture bright with hope is the splendid determination of the educational leaders of the South, and the evidence of the practical headway they are making in their work. That this forward trend was about to be made more apparent than ever before, was evident in the plans and programmes of the Conference for Education in the South to be held at Richmond this year from the 22d to the 24th of April. Mr. Cloyd's article in our April number on "The Old and the New in Southern Education" gave some striking concrete illustrations of the progress that is being made, this article being based on typical instances in the State of Georgia.



HIS CHEF-D'OEUVRE.

(For the Westminster Royal Academy.)

MR. GEORGE WYNDHAM: "'The contented Irishman'! It's a good subject—best thing I've done. If this isn't accepted, well, I don't know what they do want!"

From *Punch* (London).

*North Carolina's
Attitude
as Typical.*

As showing what stand another progressive State is taking, we cannot do better than to quote from a private letter received from a trusted correspondent in North Carolina:

You will be interested to know that every educational step taken by our Legislature, recently adjourned, was in the right direction. Appropriations for public schools and for the higher institutions of learning, for the establishment of libraries, and for the building of better schoolhouses are more liberal than they were two years ago or than they ever were. An historical commission to collect interesting material relating to North Carolina was established, with a small annual appropriation. A permanent loan fund of \$200,000 was established to aid school districts to borrow money at 4 per cent., to be returned in ten equal annual installments. This makes it certain that every year for all time the State board of education will have at least \$28,000 to lend to some districts that could not otherwise secure comfortable school buildings. This, you see, would erect annually, after the first expenditure, fifty-six five-hundred-dollar schoolhouses, or twenty-eight one-thousand-dollar schoolhouses.

We secured the passage of a bill increasing the State superintendent's salary 33½ per cent. and giving him as an extra clerk one of the best school men in the State, Mr. E. C. Brooks, who was secretary of our educational campaign committee last summer, and also increasing the salary of his stenographer.

The Legislature increased the appropriation to the State Normal and Industrial College from \$25,000 regular and \$15,000 special (for this year and next year) to \$43,000 regular annual, and the school has received, in addition, \$7,000 special appropriation for some dormitory repairs and a cold-storage plant.

It is a very significant fact that while the total State appropriations for the next two years are \$200,000 less than the appropriations were two years ago, yet all educational appropriations were increased.

Another significant fact is that while four bills were introduced in the House and Senate looking to the division of the public-school funds between the races according to the proportion paid in taxes by either race, not one of the bills was discussed on the floor of either house. One of them came up in the Senate, and some Senator moved to table it, which was done. Upon suggestion, however, that that ought not to be done, the bill was taken from the table, and when the "aye and no" vote was called, not a quorum voted, and only one man voted "aye." In the House, the experience was a little different, but the effect was the same. The author of one of the bills complained that every time he asked to bring up this bill something else was in the way, and he asked that the bill be made a special order for some future time. Immediately a bright young fellow moved to make it a special order for Saturday, March 14. This motion was seconded and carried amid the laughter of the House, because every one knew that the Legislature would adjourn, as it did, about March 9.

I give you these instances with some detail to show you how thoroughly right the general spirit of education is in North Carolina. Five or ten years ago, we would have wasted a good deal of time in discussing the negro question in connection with these educational matters. Our suffrage amendment has done more than anything else to give us a fair field for an educational fight.

It may be best not to discuss these matters publicly; but I am anxious that those who are most interested in our educational condition should know the facts. The friends of education have won so complete a victory that it would be cruel to crow over it, and unwise.

Moreover, the battle we have won is only a small part of the great work that must be done.

This terse letter is worth a dozen pages of mere comment upon conditions in the South. It breathes the healthy optimism of men who are working out their own problems. It anticipated the hopeful reports of progress that were to be brought up to the Richmond conference from all parts of the South.

Illiteracy and Child Labor. Closely akin to the problem of providing for the education of the children is the problem of child labor.

To meet effectively the evil of illiteracy in this country, we must deal with it in the period between the ages of ten and fifteen years. Not very much can be done for adult illiteracy; the flood must be checked nearer its source. A study of the facts makes it clear that illiteracy is considerably promoted by the employment of children in factories and otherwise. The past winter has seen much wholesome agitation of that question. We have twenty States in which 99 per cent. or more of the children between the ages of ten and fourteen are able to read and write. In such States, obviously, adult illiteracy will soon disappear except as it is recruited from foreign countries. But at the last census there were almost six hundred thousand illiterate children (between ten and fourteen) in the United States, five-sixths of whom were in a dozen States of the South. Happily, this Southern condition is greatly improved since 1890. Thus, North Carolina's illiterate children, who were more than 30 per cent. of the whole in 1890, were less than 22 per cent. of the whole in 1900. Louisiana's childhood illiteracy had decreased from 43 per cent. to 33 per cent.; South Carolina's from 39 to about 29 per cent.; Georgia's from 33 to 23 per cent.; and so in every Southern State there has been a marked gain in the intelligence of the children of both races. But this gain only serves to lend greater zeal to the efforts of those who are working in the movement. The growth of cotton mills and factories in the South has led to the employment of great numbers of children of an age much too young for such work.

The New Laws to Protect Children. In Alabama, which has the largest number of illiterate children of any State in the Union, an employment bill has now been passed which leaves much to be desired but is better than nothing. It keeps children under ten out of the factories, and those under twelve, except in cases where a widowed mother or disabled father needs the child's support. It keeps children under thirteen out of night work in factories, and forbids

the working of children under twelve for more than eleven hours a day. This Alabama bill was a rather sorry compromise that does not do credit to the capitalists who own the cotton mills of that State. South Carolina has a new law which keeps children under ten out of the factories this year, raises the age to eleven for next year, and to twelve for the year following. It seems about on a par with the Alabama law, and falls a long way short of those enforced in the Northern States and in England. The bills in the New York Legislature have related to particular classes of child labor, such as newsboys, bootblacks, and others in the large towns, and to better enforcement of older acts. The Pennsylvania movement seems to have resulted from the evidence touching child labor brought out in the hearings before the Coal Strike Commission, and also from certain serious evils in manufacturing establishments of the Pittsburg district. Oregon has a new law that forbids the employment of children under fourteen in stores, mills, and mines, and under sixteen unless they can read and write. Virginia and Arkansas are among the Southern States that have this year enacted new laws on the subject of child labor, and the New Jersey Legislature has something to its credit in the same line.

*New Juvenile
Courts in Sev-
eral States.*

Another excellent movement on behalf of a wiser and better dealing with childhood is that for the establishment of juvenile courts for young offenders. The Indiana Legislature of this year has enacted a good law of this kind for Indianapolis and other parts of the State. Chicago's juvenile court is already far-famed for the effective way in which it deals with the thousands of cases that come before it, and the juvenile court in New

York City, established a year ago, seems to have fully justified expectations. The case of Missouri must not be overlooked, for it has adopted a new law of this kind which is highly praised by the newspapers of St. Louis and Kansas City. The laws providing for these juvenile courts give the judges great discretionary authority, and the object of them is partly to protect society, but especially to secure the reformation of young misdemeanants. The adoption of laws of this kind in the neighboring States of Indiana and Missouri is in large part a personal tribute to the effectiveness of the Illinois law as carried out by Judge Tuthill, of Chicago. The desire of Judge Tuthill to be able to commit offending boys to the wholesome influences of a farm school, with shops and industrial features, is to be realized on a large and important scale, funds having been secured and a location fixed for the development of such an institution.

*Municipal
Tendencies.*

The municipal elections of last month demonstrated in a general way the steadily diminishing influence of political parties in local affairs. Our great towns have problems of their own which to their citizens are far more vital and important than any issues that divide the Republican and Democratic parties. In the Ohio cities, the most striking result was the election for a fourth term of Mayor Jones, of Toledo, who was without the support of either party or of any newspaper. A lesson may be learned from the ease with which Mayor Jones defeated the Republican and Democratic candidates and triumphed over newspaper detraction. The lesson is that in local matters, where the people can judge for themselves, newspapers are only influential when they are fair-minded, sincere, and print the news as it



Mayor Jones, Toledo.

Mayor Johnson, Cleveland.

Mayor Fleischmann, Cincinnati.

THREE OHIO MAYORS REELECTED LAST MONTH.

is. The Hon. Tom L. Johnson, mayor of Cleveland, was accorded another term, not merely because he is an interesting political personality, but because the working people of Cleveland were disposed to favor his programme for immediate three-cent street-railroad fares and ultimate municipal ownership. Mr. Johnson's hand has been strengthened by the election of a Democratic Council that will support him. In Chicago, while the Republican candidate's platform on the street-railroad question was as popular as that upon which Mayor Harrison stood, it was asserted that the street-railroad interests themselves were supporting the Republican candidate; and this may have helped to give Carter Harrison his decisive victory. The most notable reform tendency in Chicago has been in the direction of improving the quality of the Board of Aldermen through the work of the Municipal Voters' League. Most of the new aldermen elected last month were men who had received the league's indorsement. The Cincinnati election resulted in the victory of Mayor Fleischmann, the Republican candidate, as against Mr. M. E. Ingalls, the distinguished candidate of the Democrats and Independents. Cincinnati lags behind our other large towns in its appreciation of the value of independence in local affairs.

Fighting the "Grabbers" and "Boodlers." In St. Louis, also, the so-called machine elements were victorious as against the candidates of the men responsible for the recent exposure of corruption; but the election was not for a mayor or a full ticket. Philadelphia, last month, was confronted with a scheme on the part of certain private interests to get possession of the municipal waterworks, in imitation of the successful grab of the city's municipal lighting plant a few years ago. The new mayor of Philadelphia, John Weaver, seems disposed to stand firmly against boodling and corruption in what has for some time been regarded as the worst-governed of our large municipalities. The Citizens' Union of New York, in a fine convention last month, passed resolutions which embody a magnificent tribute to the effectiveness and value of the work of Mayor Low's administration. There has of late been a steady increase in the prestige of the New York city government as at present administered, and the chances seem to be good for Mayor Low's renomination. There has been a strong impression that the Legislature at Albany, which finished its work and adjourned last month, has this year been more than usually susceptible to malign influences as exercised principally by street-railroad corporations and similar agencies. The fight of the municipal



From stereoscopic photo by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

THE PRESIDENT MAKING A WESTERN SPEECH.

authorities of New York City against the so-called "grab" bills at Albany was well supported by the newspapers, and by the commercial and reform organizations of the city; and their vigilance was successful.

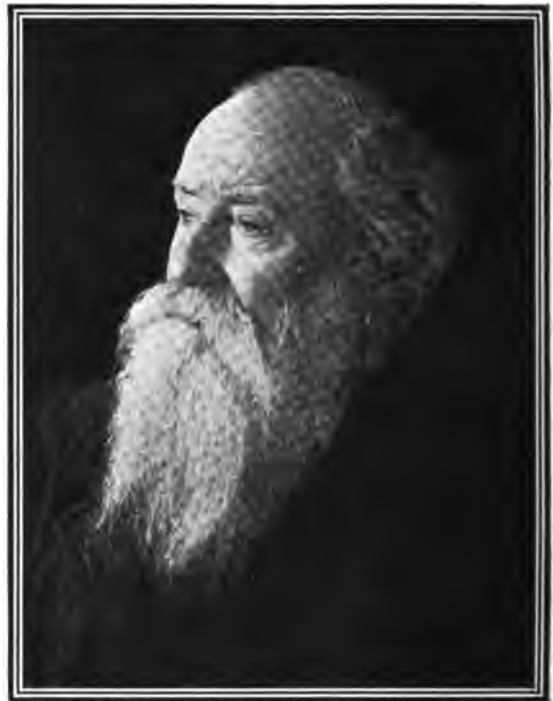
The Presidential Tour. President Roosevelt's Western trip had been carried out according to programme, when these pages were closed for the press. He had left Washington on the first day of April *en route* for the Yellowstone Park, and it was his plan to leave the park on April 24, in order to proceed to St. Louis, to arrive on April 29, and to be present on April 30 at the dedicatory ceremonies of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. Such was the rounded programme for the month of April. The programme for the present month of May consists simply of a visit to California, Oregon, and Washington, with many stops on the way out there, and some stops on the return journey to Washington, which is to end on June 6. So much for the general itinerary. On his way to the Yellowstone Park, Mr. Roosevelt's first important stop was at Chicago, where he received the degree of LL.D. at the University of Chicago, laid the corner-stone of the new law-school building, and made an important evening address at the Auditorium on the Monroe Doctrine. This was on April 2. The journey was broken at Milwaukee on April 3, where the President gave a well-prepared address on trusts, chiefly in review of the situation as it now stands. On April 4, the President visited St. Paul and Minneapolis, and at the latter city, on the evening of that day, he spoke on the tariff question,

defending the protective principle, and expounding the view that tariff reform is not to be regarded as a prime remedy for the evils of trusts and monopolies. Sunday was spent at Sioux Falls, S. D., and Monday, the 8th, found the President at Gardiner, Mont., at the entrance of the Yellowstone Park. He had invited the distinguished naturalist and author, John Burroughs, to join him as his companion on his sixteen days' sojourn in that reservation of forests, mountains, and natural wonders; and it was carefully arranged that this vacation should be free from public intrusion. It was not a hunting trip, but an outing for rest and recreation,—the most complete and satisfactory one, probably, that the President has had in a long time. The route from the Yellowstone Park to St. Louis was across Nebraska to Omaha, thence across Iowa to the Mississippi River at Keokuk, and southward to the exposition city. Great enthusiasm for the President was manifest everywhere throughout a journey which seemed to be entirely free from all unpleasant incidents. Democrats and Populists vied with Republicans to greet the visitor,—because he was President of the United States, but also because he was Theodore Roosevelt. This month's touring includes stops at Kansas City, Topeka, Sharon Springs (for Sunday, May 3), Denver and other Colorado towns for the following day, New Mexican towns for May 5, the Grand Cañon of the Colorado for May 6,



From stereoscopic photo by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

THE PRESIDENT LEAVING TRAIN TO ENTER YELLOWSTONE PARK, ON APRIL 8.



JOHN BURROUGHS.

(Who accompanied the President in the Yellowstone Park.)

Southern California towns from May 7 to 11, the Leland Stanford University on the morning of May 12, San Francisco and vicinity for the next three days, to be followed by a three days' visit to the Yosemite Valley and the big-tree region. Then comes the journey northward to Oregon, with May 21 devoted to Portland, and the next four or five days to the towns and cities of Washington and the Puget Sound region. The return journey is by way of Montana and Idaho to Salt Lake City May 29, and Wyoming towns May 30, with Sunday, May 31, at Cheyenne, and the next Sunday at the White House.

King Edward has been absent from *King Edward's Travels.* England on a sailing and visiting tour throughout the month of April, and he is prolonging his visit into the month of May. He went first to Portugal, with which country England has long professed to maintain relations of intimacy akin to alliance. His trip included some touring in the Mediterranean and a visit to English outposts, such as Gibraltar and Malta. A warm welcome was awaiting him in Rome, where he was to visit late in April, while the French were interested in his plans for visiting Paris in May. King Edward has always been personally very popular with the

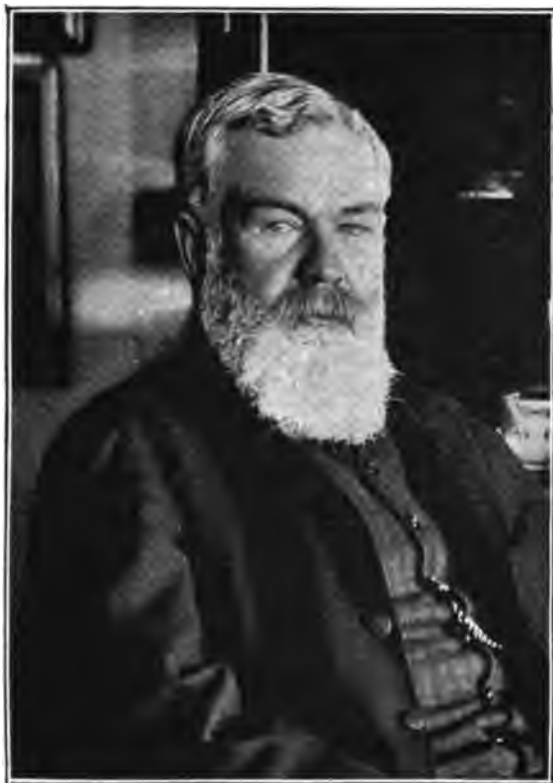


Photo by Russell & Sons.

THE LATE MR. W. S. CAINE, M.P.

French. The Queen has been visiting in Denmark, and she is to accompany the King on an Irish trip early in the summer. The Irish Nationalists have made it known that the King may count upon a cordial reception.

*British
Politics.*

The growing dissatisfaction with the Balfour administration, which was expressing itself in marked Liberal gains in by-elections, seems less evident since the Irish land-purchase bill has been so successfully brought forward, and since Mr. Chamberlain's triumphant return has so much enhanced his prestige and reassured the country about imperial affairs in South Africa. The drift of party reorganization seems to be in the direction of a union between the Labor

party, with its radical and socialistic tendencies, and the Liberals. The most notable victory of this combination was the recent election of Mr. William Crooks as a member of Parliament for Woolwich, where he converted a large Tory majority into a still larger one for the coalition that has now come to be dubbed "Lib-Lab." For old-fashioned Whiggish Liberalism in England, there is no future. The radical wing of the Liberal party has come into close touch with the more conservative wing of the Labor party, and in this combination lies the only clear prospect of an organization that may hope to defeat the Tories. One of the staunchest leaders of advanced Liberalism, well known and greatly esteemed also in the United States, was the Hon. W. S. Caine, the news of whose death was received in this country with great regret a few weeks ago. His vacant seat in Parliament has already been filled, and the constituency has gone Liberal by a strong majority.

*London
Measures.*

When the education bill, of which so much was said a few months ago, was enacted, the metropolis of London was omitted from its operations. The effect of that bill was to weaken the public-school boards and to throw the control of elementary education more strongly into the hands of ecclesiastical bodies. The secular system of free public schools has been much more strongly entrenched in London than in the country at large. The government has now brought in an education bill for London, however, that meets with much



LORD MONKSWELL, NEW CHAIRMAN OF LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL.

criticism, the Liberals especially opposing it strenuously. It abolishes the present school board, and makes the London County Council the supreme authority in both elementary and secondary education. The Tory predominance at Westminster is not particularly favorable to the progressive development of the great city of London. The government is, however, pushing the measure to improve the port and the shipping facilities, although the movement for a proper public water-supply seems to lag rather hopelessly. New York seems to be gaining on London.

A New Naval Station.

The government is excusing the growth of naval expenditures on the ground of Germany's energetic programmes, and it is avowedly due to the increasing strength of Germany that a new naval base of importance is about to be developed in the Orkney Islands, guarding the upper end of the British Isles, and commanding the northern entrance to the North Sea, as the Channel fleet commands the southern entrance. Another obvious reason for the new base is that the English navy is getting so large that new provision of some kind has to be made for necessary dockage and port facilities.

French Affairs.

The head of the French Republic, as well as President Roosevelt and King Edward, has been off on an interesting tour. In the middle of April, he went to visit Algeria, this being a trip that no other president of the Third Republic has undertaken. The French interest in North Africa is steadily increasing. The ministry has had remarkably strong support from the legislative chambers in its drastic enforcement of the law against religious orders. The most notable instance occurred toward the end of March, when the application of the Carthusian monks, the wealthiest of all the orders in France, was refused by the Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 338 to 231. The monks and nuns are leaving France in great numbers and going to neighboring countries. Only four or five out of fifty-four religious orders of men have had their applications granted by the parliamentary committee.

Germany, Denmark, Holland.

The German Emperor's foreign visit, —for he, too, has been away from home,—was a quiet but by no means insignificant trip to Denmark early in April. His purpose was said to be to secure Denmark's adherence to the Triple Alliance. It is believed that Germany hopes to bring Denmark into

close relations with the empire, perhaps to the extent of securing a commercial union. King Christian, by the way, was eighty-five years old on April 8. Very much was said also last month about Germany's desire for close relations with Holland. This talk was stimulated by the fact that the formidable railway strikes in Holland threatened for a time to obstruct German trade very inconveniently. It was on the morning of April 6 that a general strike was ordered of all labor throughout Holland engaged in transportation. This was organized labor's answer to Premier Kuyper's pending bills to regulate labor and penalize strikes on the government-owned railroads. One of the bills provided for a railroad military brigade to be used in case of necessity, and another provided for punishment, by imprisonment and fine, of any acts of the kind customary in labor contests. The widespread strike did not prevent the parliamentary chambers from passing the bills almost unanimously. And the strike completely collapsed after a few days.

In Southeastern Europe.

In the southeast of Europe, the situation remains critical. There have been very serious outbreaks in Macedonia, and many outrages and much loss of life. In connection with a local conflict in the heart of Macedonia, an Albanian soldier killed the Russian consul, M. Stcherbina. This was at the end of March. The Turkish soldiery has been ruthless in its dealings with local insurrections, although the Sultan has professed to prefer lenient methods and is apparently acting in good faith in trying to carry out the reforms that Russia and Austria joined in prescribing. There was much comment in the European press on the fact that the Czar, while agreeing not to intervene on behalf of the Macedonians, had made King Alexander of Servia a present of 10,000,000 cartridges. Alexander, by the way, has distinguished himself by suspending the constitution of the country for a matter of five minutes or so, in which brief period he acted as an absolute ruler and performed a huge amount of business. He repealed liberal laws relating to the suffrage, and reenacted a former code which will tend to keep the radicals out of the legislative chamber. There was wholesale retirement of ministers, senators, and councilors. With men and measures rearranged to his satisfaction, King Alexander touched the parliamentary pendulum and set the wheels of constitutional government in motion again. European rivalry continues to occupy itself anxiously with Persian questions.



THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT BUILDING AT THE ST. LOUIS EXPOSITION.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From March 31 to April 19, 1903.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

March 25.—The Texas Court of Appeals decides that the Galveston Municipal Commission is unconstitutional; this decision leaves the city without a constituted government.

March 26.—President Roosevelt issues an order extending to such large cities as may be agreed upon the registration system for laborers....The United States Treasury Department resumes refunding operations.... The New York Legislature passes the bill for the \$100,000,000 canal improvement.

March 28.—Attorney-General James S. Harlan, of Porto Rico, resigns office.

March 31.—The New York Legislature passes the bill for increasing liquor licenses 50 per cent.

April 1.—The Indiana Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the law providing a minimum wage in public work.

April 6.—Mayors Tom L. Johnson (Dem.), of Cleveland, Julius Fleischmann (Rep.), of Cincinnati, and Samuel M. Jones (Ind.), of Toledo, are reelected by large majorities....Republicans carry Michigan for State officers by 35,000.

April 7.—Mayor Carter H. Harrison (Dem.), of Chicago, is reelected by a decreased plurality....The town elections in Kansas show an overwhelming majority in favor of prohibition; the Republicans make gains throughout the State.

April 8.—The Indiana Supreme Court declares the weekly-payment law unconstitutional.

April 9.—The United States Circuit Court of Appeals, at St. Paul, decides that the Northern Securities Company is an illegal combination in restraint of trade, and

enjoins it from exercising any control over the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Railroad companies.

April 13.—Postmaster-General Payne states that he will make a thorough investigation of alleged scandals in the Post Office Department.

April 15.—A revision of the civil-service rules, by which the classified service is considerably extended, goes into effect.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

March 21.—President Castro, of Venezuela, resigns office....In the French Senate, the government announces the intention of maintaining the Concordat if the clergy keep out of politics....The prime minister of Colombia and two other members of the cabinet resign....Peace is declared in Uruguay.

March 23.—Revolutions break out in San Domingo and in Managua, the capital of Nicaragua; a mob attacks the government buildings at Port of Spain, Trinidad, and is fired on by the police.

March 24.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 304 to 246, refuses to authorize religious preaching orders.

March 25.—Mr. Wyndham, Chief Secretary for Ireland, introduces the Irish land bill in the British House of Commons; the measure involves a loan of not more than \$500,000,000 at 3½ per cent. interest, and a bonus of \$60,000,000....President Castro, of Venezuela, withdraws his resignation....Five thousand Republicans meet in Madrid, Spain, and choose Professor Salmeron leader of their party.

March 26.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 338 to 231, refuses to permit the Carthusian monks to remain in France.



From a stereoscopic photo by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT STARTING ON HIS RIDE INTO
YELLOWSTONE PARK.

March 27.—The Bulgarian cabinet resigns.

March 30.—The Greek minister of war resigns.

April 1.—Mr. Wyndham announces in the British House of Commons a new bill appropriating \$975,000 annually to Ireland.... A select committee of the British House of Commons is appointed to inquire into "municipal trading" in Great Britain.

April 6.—The Cuban Congress reassembles.

April 7.—King Alexander of Serbia suspends the constitution to make changes in the laws of the country.

April 9.—The Netherlands Parliament passes an anti-strike bill by a large majority.

April 16.—The Irish Nationalist convention at Dublin approves the land bill in principle.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

March 21.—The *modus vivendi* proposed by Brazil to Bolivia in connection with the question as to the ownership of the Acre territory is signed by representatives of the two governments.

March 23.—The upper house of the Newfoundland Legislature passes the bill renewing the Treaty Shore *modus vivendi* for another year.

March 25.—The Navy Department decides to abandon its plan for a cruise of the battleship squadron to Europe this summer, and the United States therefore declines the invitation of Emperor William to have the squadron visit Kiel.

March 28.—The Cuban Senate adopts the reciprocity treaty as amended by the United States Senate.

March 29.—It is announced that the first meeting of the Alaskan Boundary Commission has been deferred until next fall.... Admiral Dewey makes an explanation regarding his criticisms of the German Emperor and navy that has aroused hostile comment in Germany.

March 31.—Ratifications of the reciprocity treaty between the United States and Cuba are exchanged at Washington.



M. Constans (France). Sir Nicholas O'Connor (England).
Commander Pansa (Italy). Baron Calice (Austria). Baron von Bieberstein (Germany). M. Zinoviev (Russia).

AMBASSADORS OF THE EUROPEAN POWERS AT CONSTANTINOPLE.



King Christian IX.
(born in 1818).

Prince Christian (born in 1870)
and his son, Prince Frederic
(born in 1899).

Prince Frederic,
the heir apparent
(born in 1843).

FOUR GENERATIONS OF THE ROYAL HOUSE OF DENMARK.

(The King's eighty-fifth birthday was celebrated on April 8.)

April 8.—The Venezuelan negotiations are resumed at Washington; a proposal that Venezuela pay the cost of the blockade is rejected.

April 6.—It is announced that Judge Jacob M. Dickinson, of Chicago, David T. Watson, of Pittsburg, and Hannis Taylor, ex-United States minister to Spain, have been selected as counsel for the United States before the Alaskan Boundary Commission.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

March 21.—Director Stübke, of the German Colonial Office, informs the Reichstag that household slavery has been abolished in German West Africa.... A diversion of the water by an ice-jamb at Niagara leaves the American channel nearly dry.

March 22.—The Ladrones capture the town of Surigao, province of Mindanao, P. I., killing a constabulary inspector and others.

March 24.—Earthquake shocks are felt in midland counties of England.... The town of Surigao, province of Mindanao, P. I., is relieved by constabulary.... The Canadian government and the Allan Steamship Line sign an agreement for a new fast line of steamers between Canada and Glasgow and Liverpool.... The incorporation of the National Packing Company, with a capital stock of \$15,000,000, is announced in Chicago.... Pennsylvania stockholders approve the increase of the

capital stock of the company to \$400,000,000.... Judge Kohlsaat, in the United States District Court at Chicago, issues an injunction against the coal trust operating in that city.

March 27.—In an attack by Macabebe scouts on a force of Filipino insurgents, in Rizal Province, P. I., forty-five of the latter are killed.

March 28.—The statue of William E. Gladstone is placed in Westminster Abbey.... Cambridge defeats Oxford in the annual track athletic games.... Twenty thousand operatives of the cotton mills at Lowell, Mass., are thrown out of work by a strike for higher wages.... Great damage is reported from the Mississippi floods.

March 31.—Sir Thomas Lipton's new challenger for the America's cup, *Shamrock III.*, has a trial on the Clyde, and easily defeats *Shamrock I.*

April 1.—President Roosevelt leaves Washington on his Western trip.... The award of the Coal Strike Commission goes into effect in the anthracite region of Pennsylvania.... Cambridge defeats Oxford by six lengths and 19 minutes, 32¼ seconds in the annual university boat race on the Thames.

April 2.—President Roosevelt speaks in Chicago on the Monroe Doctrine and receives the degree of LL.D. from the University of Chicago.

April 3.—President Roosevelt speaks on the trust question at Milwaukee, and addresses the Wisconsin Legislature, in session at Madison.

April 4.—President Roosevelt speaks at Minneapolis



THE NEW HOME OF THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE.

on the tariff question, and addresses the Minnesota Legislature in session at St. Paul.

April 6.—A general strike is ordered on the transportation system of Holland, both land and water, because of certain proposed labor legislation.

April 8.—It is announced that Andrew Carnegie has offered the city of Cleveland \$250,000 for the establishment of seven branch libraries, provided the city gives the sites and an annual appropriation of \$25,000 a year.The transportation strike in Holland is broken, most of the railway men returning to work....President Roosevelt enters the Yellowstone Park....King Christian of Denmark celebrates his eighty-fifth birthday (see page 597).

April 9.—An explosion on the battleship *Iowa* while at target practice in the Gulf of Mexico results in the death of three men and much damage to the vessel.

April 10.—Captain Pershing's force on the island of Mindanao, P. I., captures the fort at Bacalod, killing 100 Moros and wounding many others.

April 11.—The *Reliance*, the new defender of the America's cup, is launched at the Herreshoff yards, Bristol, R. I.

April 12.—The *Retna Christina*, Admiral Montojo's flagship, in Manila Bay, is raised and beached; the skeletons of eighty of the crew are found in the hull.

April 14.—Ex-President Grover Cleveland addresses a large meeting in New York City in the interest of industrial education in the South.

April 15.—The salon of the National Society of Fine Arts is opened in Paris....President Loubet of France arrives in Algiers.

April 17.—Cold weather of unusual severity prevails in England and France.

OBITUARY.

March 22.—Dean Farrar, of Canterbury, 72....Rt. Rev. James Rogers, D.D., Roman Catholic Bishop of Chatham, N. B., 77.

March 23.—Rev. George H. Ide, D.D., of Milwaukee, a well-known Congregational clergyman, 64.

March 25.—John Henry Weissenbruch, the Dutch landscape painter, 80.

March 26.—Samuel D. Hastings, of Wisconsin, prominent in reform movements for half a century, 86.

March 27.—Nathaniel K. Fairbank, a wealthy manufacturer of Chicago, 74.

March 28.—Baron Whettnall, Belgian minister to Great Britain, 63....Edward Rudolph Johnes, counsel for Venezuela in her boundary dispute with Great Britain, 51.

March 29.—Gustavus Franklin Swift, president of the Chicago packing company known by his name, 63.... William V. McKean, for nearly thirty years editor-in-chief of the *Philadelphia Public Ledger*, 83.

March 30.—Gen. William H. Jackson, of the famous "Belle Meade" Farm, near Nashville, Tenn., 68.... Frederick Boscovitz, the Hungarian pianist, 67.... Dr. Goronwey Owen, of Mobile, Ala., an authority on obstetrics, 69.

March 31.—Ex-Senator H. W. Corbett, of Oregon, 76.... Ebenezer Butterick, originator of the tissue-paper dress pattern, 73.

April 4.—John D. Washburn, of Massachusetts, minister to Switzerland under President Harrison, 70.



THE LATE DEAN FARRAR.

April 5.—Mrs. J. A. Sadlier, the well-known Irish Catholic author, 83.

April 6.—Prof. Henry Barker Hill, of Harvard University.

April 7.—Rear-Admiral George E. Belknap, U.S.N., retired, 71....J. B. Atherton, an influential business man in the Hawaiian Islands, 66.

April 8.—Henry Van Brunt, a well-known architect, designer of the Electricity Building at the Chicago World's Fair of 1893, 70.

April 9.—Hillary Bell, dramatic and music critic, of New York, 46.

April 10.—Rev. William Henry Milburn, the blind chaplain of the United States Senate, 80.... Yung-Lu, comptroller of finances of China.

April 11.—Apostle Brigham Young, of Salt Lake City....Ex-Congressman John S. Jones, of Ohio.

April 12.—Col. John F. MacGowan, editor of the *Chattanooga (Tenn.) Times*, 72.

April 13.—Ex-Congressman Abner Taylor, of Chicago, 74....Prof. Moritz Lazarus, of Berlin University, Germany, 79....Rev. John Fenwick Kitto, a well-known biblical scholar, 66....A. H. Gilmor, a member of the Canadian Senate, 80.

April 14.—Thomas Waterman Wood, the American artist, 80....Hallett Kilbourn, a well-known citizen of Washington, D. C., 72.

April 15.—Rabbi Gustav Gottheil, of New York City, 76.



UNCLE SAM: "Keep on the course. No squalls in sight."—From the *Herald* (Boston).

VARIOUS CARTOON COMMENTS.

AS effective a cartoon as any we have seen in a long time is one by Mr. Rehse, of the *St. Paul Pioneer Press*, reproduced on this page. If business conditions had been inherently weak, the uncertainty created by the Northern Securities decision, last month, would have had serious results. But the one thing demonstrated was the solidity of the foundations upon which our present edifice of prosperity has been reared. Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan's phrase about "undigested securities" has described the Wall Street condition that ob-

viously exists; yet a dull stock market is compatible with a healthy condition of industry and trade.

The two cartoons on the next page very truthfully show (1) that the adverse Northern Securities decision, and such incidents as the fining of the meat-packing companies in Missouri, are checking the formation of new trusts and combines, and (2) that recent experience has taught the "trust magnates" and "captains of industry" to apply the principles of conciliation and arbitration to labor disputes.



A GOOD UMBRELLA
KEEPS OFF THE
WATER.

From the
Pioneer Press
(St. Paul).

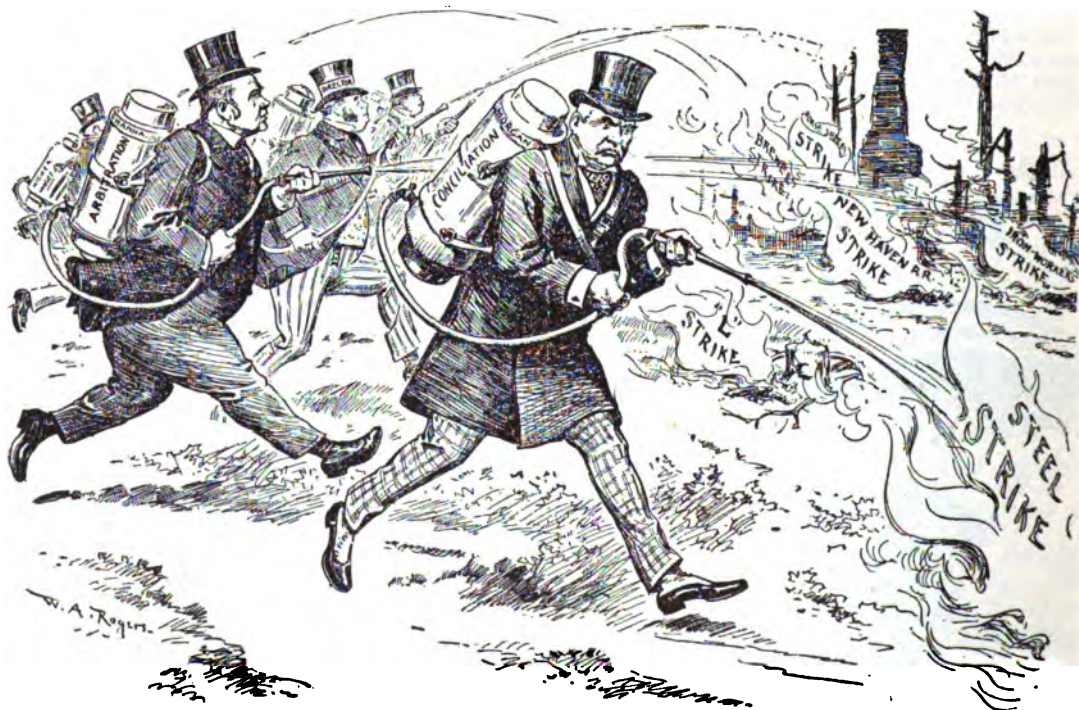


"OPEN YOUR MOUTH AND SHUT YOUR EYES."

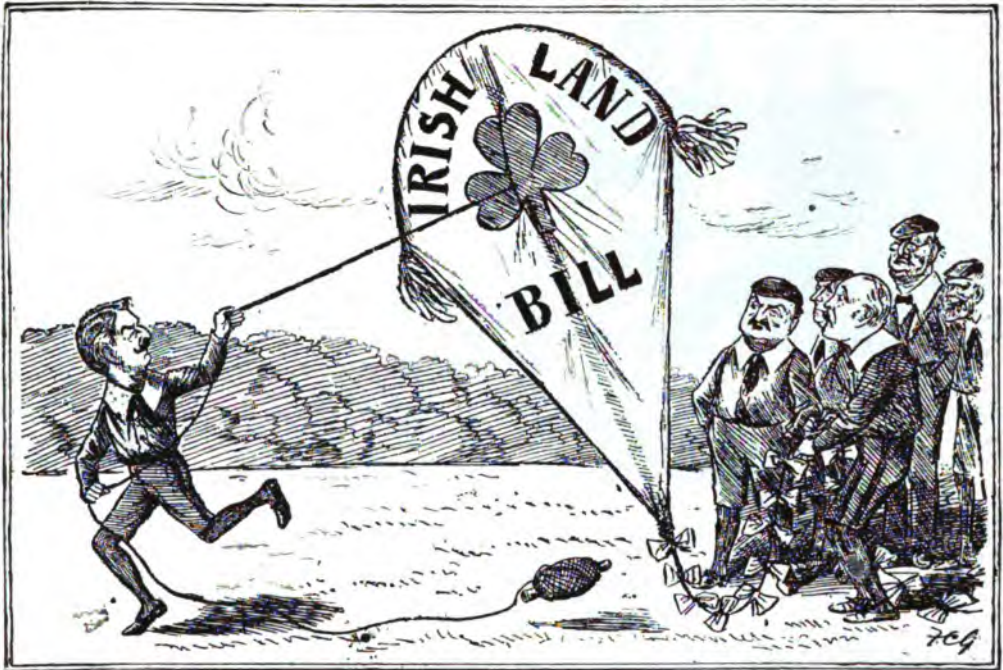
From the *World* (New York).



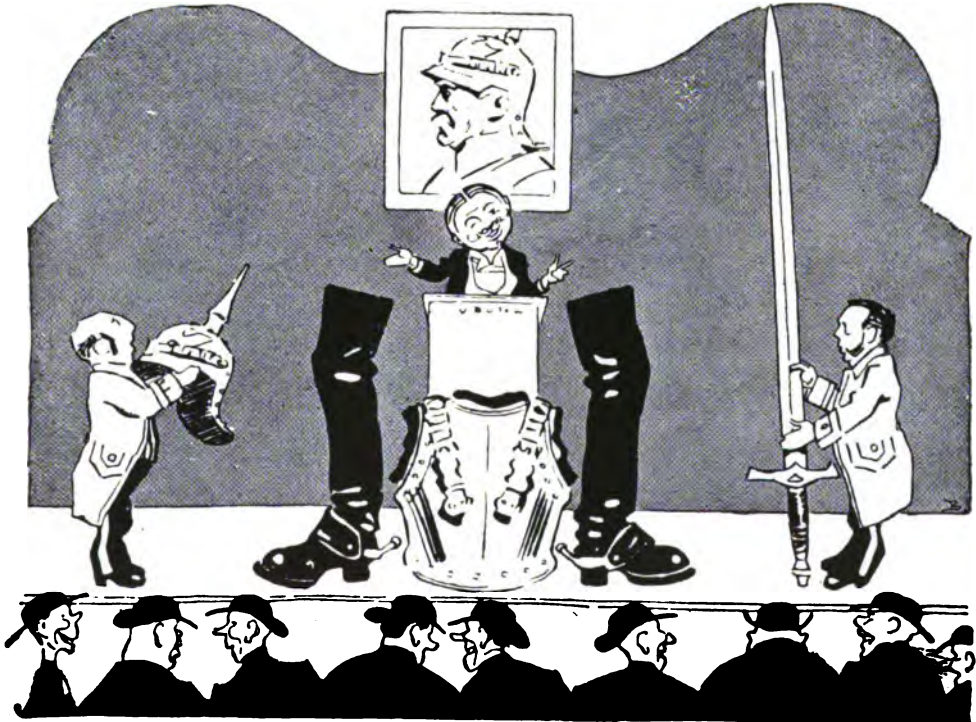
"SHOO, FLY, DON'T BOTHER ME!"—From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



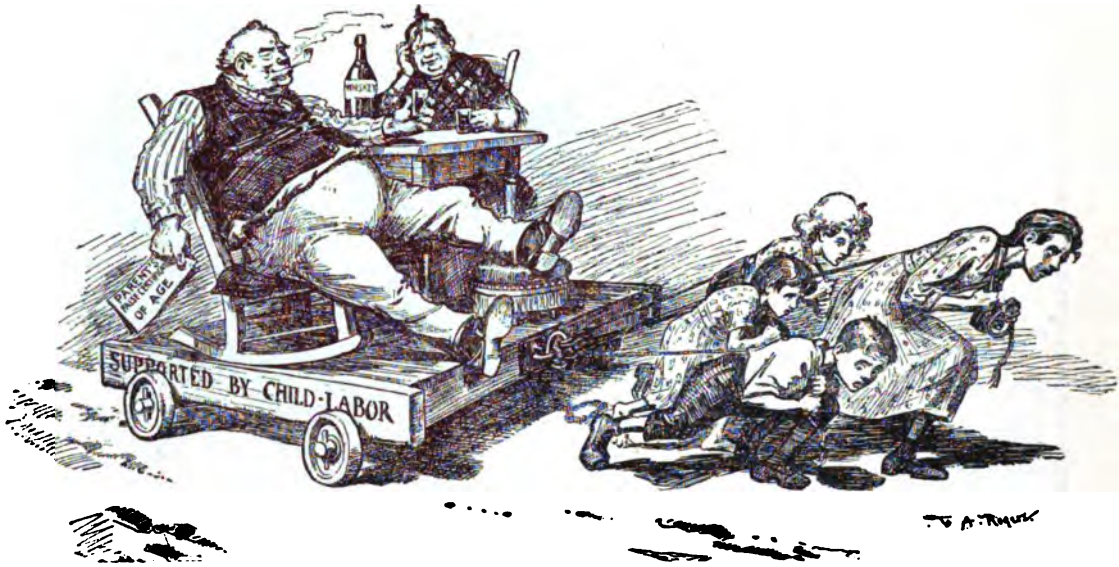
THE BURNT CAPITALIST DREADS THE FIRE.—From the *Herald* (New York).



STARTING THE BILL.—ARTHUR: "It's all right, George; I think it'll go."—From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).



VON BÜLOW (to the Clericals): "Do not enrage me. I would be loath to have to put on Bismarck's old armor." From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



ONE REASON FOR THE CHILD-LABOR PROBLEM.—From the *Herald* (New York).

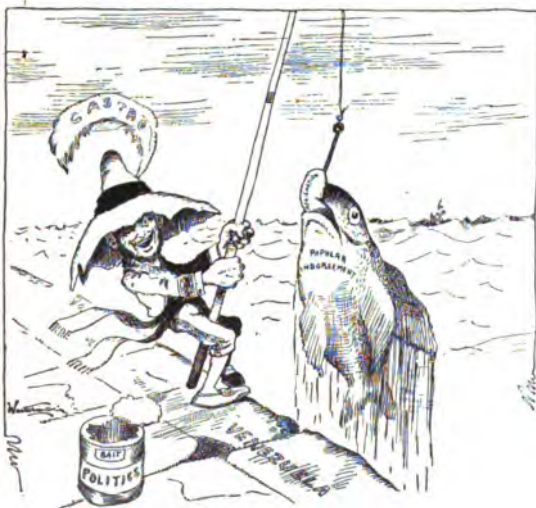
On page 531 of this number we have commented upon the recent passage, in various States, of new laws for the better protection of children from the evils of employment at a tender age in factories and mills, and in other laborious occupations. The cartoon at the top of this page is a painful one, but the facts in hundreds of instances justify it. There is ample evidence that many small children are wearing their lives out at hard work to support lazy and dissipated parents.

Several weeks ago, President Castro, of Venezuela, resigned in a dramatic fashion, only to reconsider, upon a vote of confidence. Hence the amusing cartoon below.

President Roosevelt would enjoy Bush's allusion,—also on this page. The President, in the Yellowstone Park, calls Mr. John Burroughs' attention to a sign

which tells the visitor that the geyser spouts every minute, and confesses himself beaten.

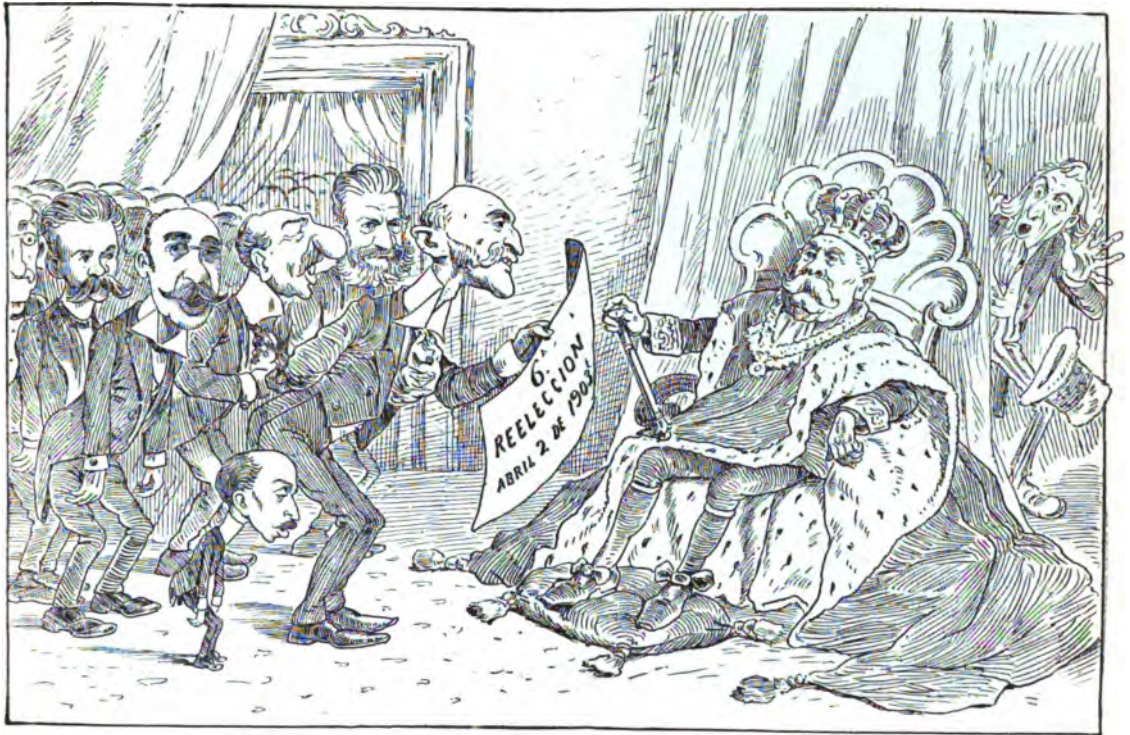
The one subject of agitation in Mexico is the question whether or not President Diaz is to run for a sixth term. This is the Mexican presidential year, the election occurring next November. The cartoon at the top of the opposite page shows representatives of a new Liberal Union party who waited on Diaz early last month to inform him of their purpose to keep him in office. The next picture represents Diaz conquering the convention of the radical party, which declares for his reelection. The third represents the neighboring republic of Guatemala, which has a boundary dispute with Mexico, and is said to have been pleading in vain for arbitration of the question.



HE GOT WHAT HE WAS FISHING FOR.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



"THAT BEATS ME!"—From the *World* (New York).



See preceding page for explanation of these cartoons, all from *El Hijo del Ahutzote* (Mexico).



THE DAILY PRAYER.

AUSTRALIA: "Give us this day our daily bread."

GUNNER BARTON: "Not if we know it. Foreign flour must not be allowed in these ports! Ha! that shot went home. We'll sink her yet!"

[The price of wheat in Australia is 6s. 3d. per bushel; the price in San Francisco is 3s. 10d. per bushel. San Francisco wheat could be landed in Melbourne at a cost of 4s. 6d. per bushel if there were no duty.]—From *Punch* (Melbourne).

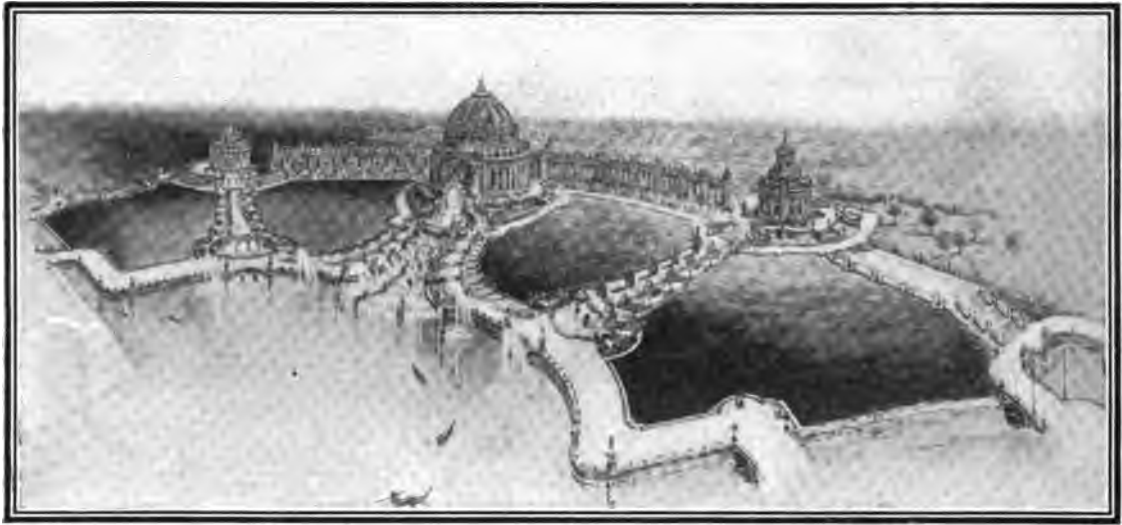


GERMANY AND ENGLAND.

(The British Lion lay idly stretched out digesting his bloody feast of South Africa, when high in the air he saw the German Eagle, who in a jolly spirit of carnival was flying in zigzag lines hither and thither. The Lion, filled with jealousy to see the Eagle so gay, spat at him angrily. The shot fell back and hit the Lion in the eye. "It is unheard of the way in which this common bird pelts me with dirt," said the Lion then.)—From *Simplicissimus* (Berlin).



AUSTRIAN AGRICULTURE.—From *Wahre Jacob* (Berlin).



THE COLONNADE, CRESCENT, AND CASCADES,—THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION, ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION.

BY FREDERICK M. CRUNDEN.

"THE Louisiana Purchase was the greatest real estate speculation the world has ever seen." How speculative the transaction appeared at that time is shown by the dismal forebodings and dire prophecies of those opposed to it. It would depopulate the East; it would disrupt the Union; the incorporation of the region in the federated States would "be the greatest curse that could befall us;" and "even supposing that this extent of territory was a desirable acquisition, fifteen millions of dollars was a most enormous sum to give."

"To me," said Josiah Quincy, "it appears that this measure would justify a revolution; . . . if this bill passes, the bonds of this Union are virtually dissolved," etc., etc.

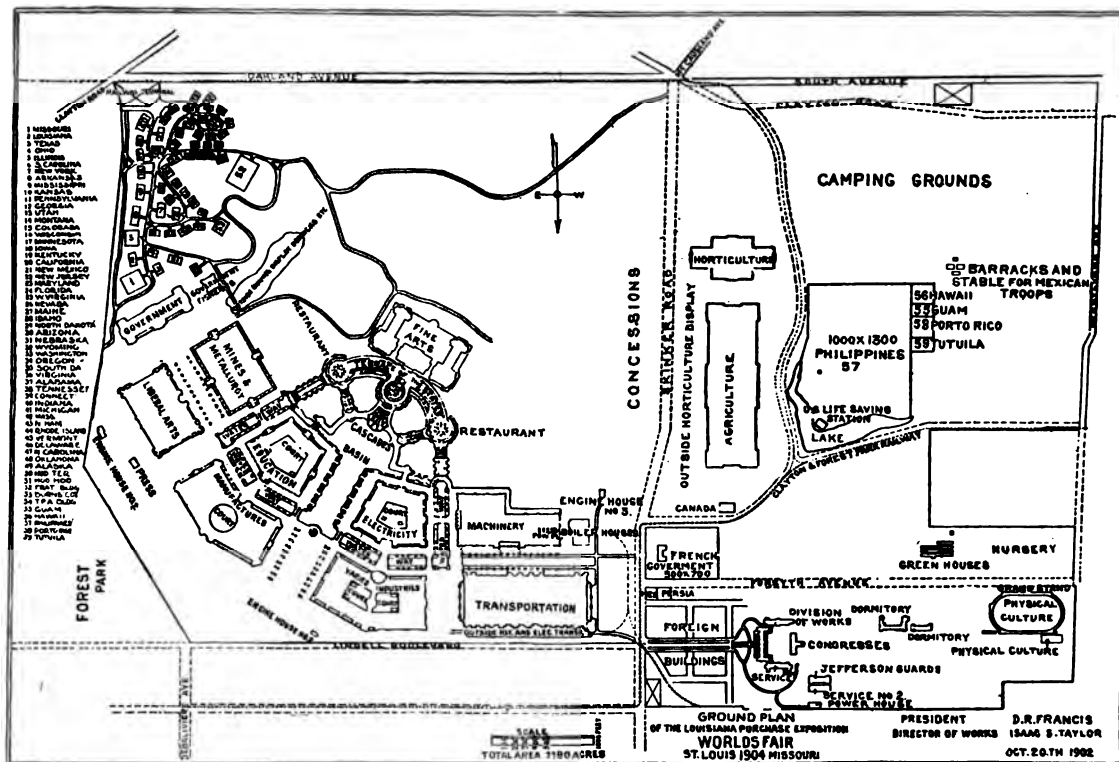
The question of the extent of the Louisiana Purchase has been fully discussed; and while there was at the time of the sale a confessed indefiniteness as to its boundaries, it appears to be settled that it did not include any of the area east of the Mississippi or the region west of the Rocky Mountains. Our title to those lands rests upon other bases. As thus properly restricted, the Louisiana Purchase has added to the United States the whole or the greater part of fourteen States and Territories,—Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, Minnesota, Kansas, Colorado, Montana, Wyoming, Louisiana, the Indian Territory, and Oklahoma

Territory. It covers 875,025 square miles, or 560,016,000 acres. A more vivid conception of what these figures mean may be derived from Mr. Binger Hermann's comparisons: "Its area is more than seven times that of Great Britain and Ireland; more than four times that of the German Empire, or of the Austrian Empire, or of France; more than three times that of Spain and Portugal; more than seven times the size of Italy. . . . It is also larger than Great Britain, Germany, France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy combined."

The region now has a population of 15,000,000, with an assessment, in 1900, of \$6,616,642,829, which, of course, is far below the real value of the property. A very satisfactory return for the original investment! It must be remembered that the interest has not been compounded; it has been drawn year by year to support the growing millions of population.

It was a great purchase, unparalleled in the history of real estate deals; but in its political significance it is even more noteworthy. It is impossible to conjecture what fierce and prolonged conflicts were thus averted, what waste of life, what destruction of property, what retardation of progress, what harassing political complications.

Next to the Declaration of Independence, which made us a nation, the Louisiana Purchase

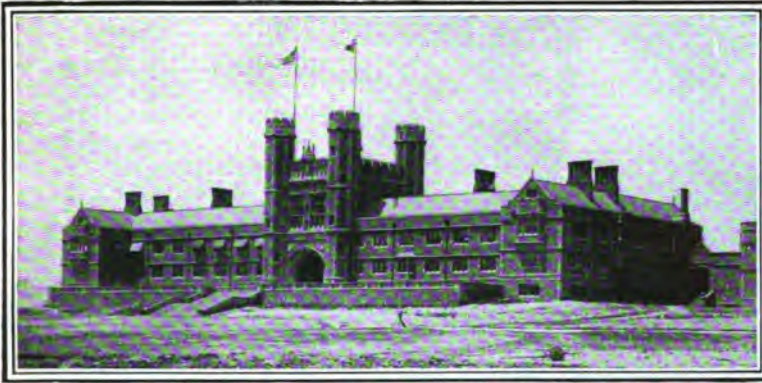


is the greatest event in American history; and there is no other that can compare with it except the close of the Civil War, which made us again one nation, with one flag, one motto, and one Constitution,—and that forever freed from the blot of slavery. So for more than sixty years to come, there can be no centennial anniversary that can equal in its significance and import this approaching celebration of the Louisiana Purchase. According to the magnitude of the event should be the manner of its commemoration and the majesty of its memorial. As the place for holding this festival of rejoicing, both sense and sentiment point to St. Louis, the portal and the metropolis of the vast region; and wisdom and propriety unite in declaring for a magnificent exposition, where all the nations of the earth will gather to show their best achievements, to teach and to learn from one another, to note the advances made even in the decade since the Columbian Exposition or the shorter period since the Paris Exposition, and to see with their own eyes this most optimistic object-lesson,—how a single century of free institutions and unfettered enterprise can transform a wilderness into populous, rich, and progressive commonwealths. Great was the historical event; and great will be the pageant, the panorama, the

world-epitome that is to mark its hundredth anniversary.

A complete comparative table of the world's fairs from 1851 on, together with the four sectional American fairs, would be interesting and instructive, but space forbids. A few comparisons must suffice. At the first world's fair, in London, in 1851, there were 21 acres under cover; the Philadelphia Centennial had a covered area of 56 acres; Paris, in 1900, had 125 acres; Chicago, in 1893, 200 acres; St. Louis will have 250 acres, while the whole area included within the exposition fence will be 1,180 acres, of which 600 acres lie in Forest Park, and the rest on leased ground, west of the park. This is twice as much as was included in the site of the Chicago Exposition. There still remain 771 acres of Forest Park outside the fair grounds, furnishing a beautiful background and surroundings.

The St. Louis fair has a broader financial foundation than any of its predecessors, starting with \$17,000,000 in hand, or available as soon as needed. Of this, \$5,000,000 comes from the individual subscriptions of St. Louis citizens, \$5,000,000 from bonds voted by the municipality, \$1,000,000 voted by the State of Missouri, and over \$6,000,000 from the United States Government. Thus far, forty-two States have voted



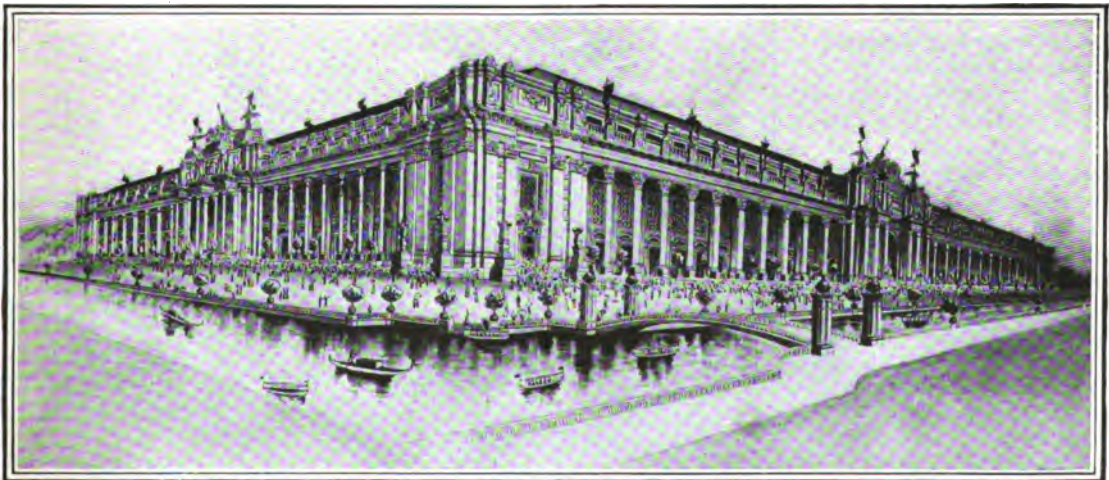
THE ADMINISTRATION BUILDING.

appropriations aggregating over \$5,000,000, much of it merely for preliminary work. The principal foreign nations have signified their intention to be well represented. And to all this must be added large sums to be expended by the concessionnaires, bringing the whole outlay to a probable total of fifty million dollars.

Mere cost and bigness do not constitute excellence, but magnitude is impressive, and money does things. The St. Louis World's Fair, however, has other things to recommend it than size and expenditure. In the first place, the topography of the site favors effects that could not be achieved on the flat of Jackson Park. The view from "The Apotheosis of St. Louis" across the Grand Court along the broad avenue between the Education and the Electricity buildings, thence across the Basin and up the Cascades to Festival Hall and the Terrace of the States, will doubtless surpass any spectacle heretofore

seen at a world's fair. This is the central physical feature of the exposition. A crescent-shaped hill crowned by the Colonnade of the States, with the imposing Festival Hall in the center of the crescent; on each extreme of the crescent, 1,900 feet apart, an ornamental restaurant pavilion; a central cascade 290 feet long, with a total fall of 80 feet in twelve leaps ranging from 4 to 14 feet, and side cascades 300 feet long, with a total fall of 65 feet. The

water will be discharged into a basin 600 feet wide. The two miles of lagoons have their beginning and end in this basin. The abundant supply of water will be drawn from the city mains, but will be filtered to a crystal clearness. Between the cascades will be gardens. Each of the cascades will be framed in sculpture, consisting of sportive groups of nymphs and naiads and other mythological fancies. The center cascade will be crowned by a group composition showing Liberty lifting the veil of Ignorance and protecting Truth and Justice. The east cascade will represent the Atlantic Ocean, and the west cascade the Pacific, the symbolism being that the Purchase has extended liberty from ocean to ocean. Assurance is given that the three cascades will completely eclipse the cascade of the Trocadero at the Paris Exposition, the cascade at St. Cloud, and the Chateau d'Eau at Marseilles.



THE EDUCATION BUILDING.



THE OLD LOG CABIN, NEAR ST. LOUIS, IN WHICH GENERAL GRANT LIVED WHEN HE WAS MAKING HIS LIVING CHOPPING WOOD, BEFORE THE CIVIL WAR.

Festival Hall is a circular building with a diameter of 192 feet; its dome will have a diameter equal to that of St. Peter's; and, standing upon a terrace 60 feet high, it will tower 250 feet above the level of the Grand Court. The seating capacity of the building will be 3,500, besides some hundreds on the stage. The restaurant pavilions are 120 feet in diameter and 150 feet high. They will be plastered and frescoed, and will cost \$169,480. Place for diners will be supplied on four levels.

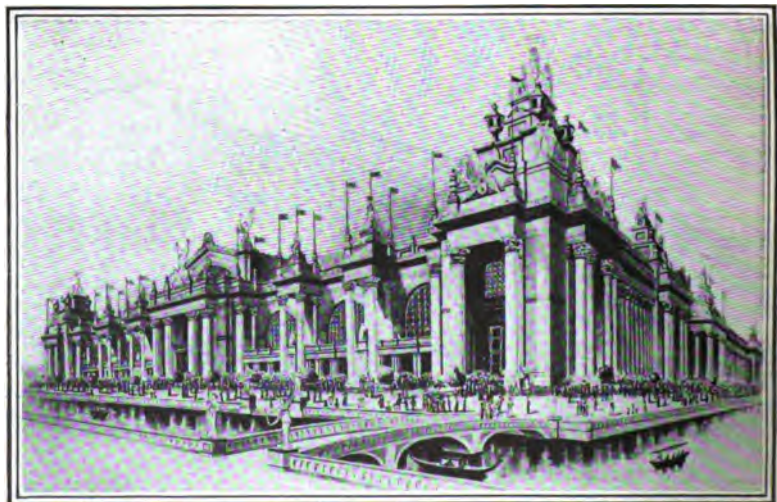
Back of the Colonnade of the States is the rising Art Palace, a brick structure, the main portion of which is to be a permanent addition to the attractions of Forest Park and to the educational resources of St. Louis.

The Colonnade of States will be 1,000 feet long, consisting of two rows of Ionic columns 65 feet high, supporting a massive entablature. These columns form arcs, in each of which is a pedestal supporting a statue of a seated draped female figure, symbolic of one of the States or Territories formed from the Louisiana Purchase.

The statues are twenty feet high; and, designed by different sculptors, they fulfill Poe's definition of

the essential character of a poem, "variety in uniformity." The approaches to the cascades will contain portrait statues of aborigines, discoverers, pioneers, and statesmen, such as De Soto and Marquette, Lewis and Clark, Livingston, Monroe, and Franklin, Daniel Boone and Sitting Bull. The heroic statues of Jefferson and Napoleon, the former by Daniel C. French, the latter by J. Q. A. Ward, will stand at the edge of the big basin.

Sculpture will be an interesting and striking feature of the exposition. The appropriation for this department is five hundred thousand dollars, of which about one hundred thousand dollars is for permanent work. The general scheme is designed to symbolize the history of the Louisiana Territory, representing the four successive occupants of its soil: First, the wild animals; second, the Indians; third, the discoverers and pioneers, the hunters, trappers, and explorers; and fourth, the advanced races, French, Spanish, and American, that have built up its present status of civilization. The sculpture will symbolize activities rather than actors; hence, portraiture will be but moderately used. The figures throughout will be of heroic cast, in



THE ELECTRICITY BUILDING.



THE PALACE OF FINE ARTS.

harmony with the size of the buildings, grounds, courts, and open spaces.

I have given considerable space to the Grand Court, the Cascades, and their surroundings because they constitute the central and most impressive objective feature of the exposition. Festival Hall is in the exact center of the picture made by the Cascades; and from it, as also from the Art Palace, a little above and south of it, the whole glorious cyclorama of the exposition spreads out like a completely opened fan.

Space will not permit of any attempt at a detailed description of the principal buildings, or even an enumeration of all the buildings and special exhibits. Speaking again in quantitative terms, there will be twelve splendid exhibit palaces, almost every one of which will be larger

than any one of the eight main structures of the Columbian Exposition, except that devoted to manufactures and liberal arts; and any one of the large buildings at St. Louis will cover virtually as much space as was occupied by all the exhibit buildings of the Pan-American Exposition.

In extent, magnitude, and expenditure, then, the Louisiana Purchase Exposition stands pre-eminent over all its predecessors. It seems unlikely, unreasonable, to suppose that the architects, designers, sculptors, and landscape and other artists have learned nothing from the recent successes at Chicago, Buffalo, and Paris, that with these experiences, and with the topographical advantages referred to, the picture will be in any degree inferior to that of Chicago,



THE MISSOURI STATE BUILDING.



THE MACHINERY BUILDING.

which the Rev. F. H. Stead (brother of W. T. Stead) said gave him a realization of the vision of the Apocalypse. If, in its *ensemble*, it comes up to the Columbian standard, visitors will be repaid for world's-end journeys to see it. But there is good promise that the brightness and the splendor of the City by the Lake will be surpassed by the beauty, the charm, and the magnificence of the City in the Forest.

The St. Louis fair not only has the advantage of coming latest in a series of international expositions, with the lessons of its predecessors recorded for its benefit; but, above and beyond that, the details of its organization and direction are in the hands of men who have become experts in such work through their connection with previous expositions. Mr. Skiff, director of exhibits, and Mr. Rogers, director of the Department of Education and director of congresses, bring to their offices the experience gained by similar service at the Chicago and the Paris expositions. They are, emphatically, exposition experts: and one of the results of their former experience is that the exhibits of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition will have a more scientific and comprehensive and detailed classification than any of its predecessors. Dr. Selim H. Peabody was chief of the Department of Liberal Arts at the Columbian Exposition. He was editor and

statistician to the United States commissioner-general at the Paris Exposition of 1900. He was chief of the Department of Liberal Arts at the Pan-American, and superintendent of awards at Charleston. Professor Ives' whole life had been a preparation for the directorship of the Department of Fine Arts at Chicago; and that notable experience fitted him for still better service to his own city. A number of the subordinates bring to this fair the knowledge and training they acquired in

previous expositions. The secretary, Mr. Walter B. Stevens, is a man of wide and varied knowledge and experience. He knows men and their mainsprings of action. He is cool, affable, and even-tempered, and gives, always, the impression of reserve power. In my boyhood, there was current in this region a saying—I have scarcely heard it of late years—"He knows how to run a hotel." This was used as a condensed summary of all the qualities that go to make up a thoroughly sagacious and efficient man. If revived now, this condensed encomium would be more forceful if put: "He knows how to run a newspaper." Mr. Stevens "knows how to run a newspaper," and no more need be said. The treasurer, Mr. William H. Thompson, president of the Bank of Commerce, has been from the



THE VARIED INDUSTRIES BUILDING.



MR. WALTER B. STEVENS.
(Secretary.)

MR. ISAAC S. TAYLOR.
(Director of Works.)

MR. FREDERICK J. V. SKIFF.
(Director of Exhibits.)

beginning the financial corner-stone of the enterprise and its persistent promoter. The results in Mr. Taylor's department are at present the most conspicuous of all, and speak for themselves in tones of Stentor shouting through a megaphone.

But with due credit to all the other men who have helped and are helping to make the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis would have had no world's fair but for David Rowland Francis, ex-mayor, ex-governor, and ex-Secretary of the Interior. There is no other man in the State of Missouri who has the rare combination of qualities and characteristics, physical, mental, and temperamental, that has enabled Mr. Francis to work up public sentiment in St. Louis and bring to his support a large body of able citizens, to secure from Congress a grant of \$5,000,000, to persuade legislatures and convince commercial bodies, to organize the exposition and keep in touch with every part of the administration, and finally to storm the palaces of Europe and capture their royal occupants. Mr. Francis has good reason for believing in his "star." He is a "lucky man;" but his career illustrates the truth of Lowell's lines:

"What men call luck
Is the prerogative of valiant souls,
The fealty life pays its rightful kings."



MR. HALSEY C. IVES.
(Director of Fine Arts.)

SPECIAL FEATURES.

There will be, of course, at this fair all the stock exhibits of agriculture, transportation, machinery and mechanical devices, manufactures of all kinds, electricity, etc., only on a larger scale than ever before, and brought up to the latest discoveries, inventions, and appliances, and the latest designs and fashions. But aside from the progress shown in the lines of previous exhibits, there will be novel features which will serve to distinguish this fair from all others.

AÉRONAUTIC COMPETITION.

The great scientific achievement of the past year has been wireless telegraphy, which every one will have a chance to witness at the St. Louis Exposition; and it may be that this exposition

will be signalized by the realization of man's long-cherished dream of aerial navigation. There is probably no one feature that will attract so much attention as this. The importance given to it by the management is shown by the appropriation of two hundred thousand dollars for aeronautic competition. The grand prize in this contest will be one hundred thou-



MR. HOWARD J. ROGERS.
(Director of Education, Director of Social Economics, and also Director of Congresses.)



HON. D. R. FRANCIS.
(President of the St. Louis Exposition.)

sand dollars. Fifty thousand dollars is to be given for minor and subsidiary prizes for competition between air ships, balloons, air-ship motors, kites, etc. The remaining fifty thousand dollars is reserved for the expenses incident to the competition. A code of rules has already been announced.

The course, in the shape of the letter L, will not be less than ten nor more than fifteen miles long; and its completion will include the circumnavigation of the two captive balloons that mark the ends of the course. This will probably be the most sensational feature of the fair, because of its novelty, and because of the exciting possibilities it places before the imagination.

FUEL AND REFRIGERATION.

Considering what an essential factor fuel is in domestic comfort and industrial progress, few exhibits should be of greater interest than those which deal with the problem of producing an economical and smokeless fuel. Our experience during the past winter emphasizes the importance of this subject. Long-continued scarcity in Europe has stimulated men's wits to find other sources of heat than the primitive supply of wood and coal. The fair will exhibit briquette-making machinery from England, France, and Germany, and show the processes of making briquette fuel, which is said to be practically

smokeless, besides being convenient in form and very low in price. There will also be an extensive exhibition of smoke-consuming (or preventing) devices, which, their inventors claim, will effectually demonstrate that virtually all of the smoke issuing from the poorest fuel through the shortest stacks may be consumed. Briquettes and smoke-consuming devices do not stir the blood and fire the fancy as do air ships; but cheap and smokeless fuel would do more for the comfort and advancement of mankind in a decade than aerial navigation would be likely to do in a century.

While fuel is absolutely essential to manufactures and commerce, and in most civilized countries to comfort and even life itself, refrigeration has come to be, if not a necessity, at least the prime luxury of civilized life. Artificial refrigeration is not a novelty; but it will be exhibited on a more extensive scale and applied to a greater variety of purposes than ever before. The building will be 320 x 210 feet, and 50 feet high. In this, besides considerable cold-storage room, will be all kinds of refrigerating-machines, large and small. Ice enough to supply the whole fair will be made here; and refrigeration will be furnished through pipe-lines to subscribers in all parts of the grounds. Besides the ordinary uses of cold storage,—cooling water, freezing ice-cream, etc.,—the enormous refrigerating power of this plant will probably be utilized to cool one or more of the large restaurants or theaters, and will supply an artificial-ice skating-rink, where opportunity will be offered to watch fancy skating and to skate for pleasure. There will be cooled rooms for resting; but in the rink, at least, no one need suffer from heat, and wraps



OLD CABILDO, AS BUILT BY ALMONASTER, 1704, AND CORNER OF THE PLAZA.

(Where the transfer of the Province of Louisiana, from France to the United States, was made. To be reproduced as a State Building by the Commonwealth of Louisiana, at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.)



THE MINES AND METALLURGY BUILDING.

will be provided for protection against cold. The possibilities of refrigeration and artificially moderated temperature will be shown as they have never been shown before.

Contributions to the solution of the important problems of locomotion and transportation will be made through a comprehensive display of automobiles, including specimens from the factories of all countries, and also through an extensive exhibit of improved devices for the operation of street railroads.

The dominating spirit, the distinguishing characteristic, of the exhibits throughout will be activity,—life, color, motion. The central motive is not products, but processes,—machinery in operation, the process of manufacture of an article shown in full, the transformation of material from the raw state to the finished, marketable commodity.

This applies to agricultural and horticultural exhibits as well as to manufactures. It will, indeed, apply also to mining, for a representation of a mine with the actual processes carried on in it will be shown in the hillside adjoining the Palace of Mines and Metallurgy.

That never-failing attraction of all expositions, an aquarium, will be supplied on a very large scale by the United States Government; and something not so common and still more beautiful will be an aviary in the form of a colossal bird-cage, 235 feet long, 92 feet wide, and 50 feet high. This will be so placed as to include trees, shrubs, and pools of water, giving the surroundings the aspect of a forest with its feathered denizens choring in fancied freedom. A special attraction throughout the grounds will



THE PALACE OF LIBERAL ARTS.

be the lawns, trees, flowers, and shrubbery, and the old forest in the background. The interior courts will have a semi-tropical appearance, and will furnish cool, shady resting-places after the fatigue of sightseeing.

"The proper study of mankind is man."

There is no element of foreign travel of greater interest than the observation of the peoples,—their appearance, dress, customs, habits, and occupations. The privilege of extensive

There will also be a four-manual organ with one hundred and forty-four stops, operated by electricity,—the largest ever constructed.

In a short magazine article, it is hardly possible merely to enumerate the many attractive features of the coming exposition. I can do no more than mention the Olympic Games, the great athletic contest of ancient Greece, which, under the leadership of Baron de Coubertin, was revived at Athens in 1896 and repeated at Paris in 1900. This great contest was to have been



THE TRANSPORTATION BUILDING.

travel comes to few—very few. But the modern world's fair brings to us the peoples of all countries and of every stage of civilization. The visitor to St. Louis in 1904 will be able to see races from all parts of the world, representing every phase of development, in their habit as they live. In one sense, the whole fair is an ethnological exhibit; but the exhibit in the Department of Ethnology proper will be extensive, and will form one of the most interesting and instructive features of the exposition. In this department, interest is likely to center in the Philippine exhibit, which will cover forty acres and cost over half a million dollars.

FINE ARTS AND MUSIC.

Of architecture, sculpture, and landscape design, which make up the visual *ensemble* of the exposition, I have said as much as space permitted; and to the sister arts, painting and music, I can give but few words. As to the former, I refer again to the palace on Art Hill, and repeat Professor Ives' assurance that the collection there will surpass all exhibits heretofore seen in this country.

Music will be represented on a colossal scale. Nearly half a million dollars will be devoted to this department. Bands from all nations will be there, which, upon occasion, will be assembled into one great band of two thousand pieces.

next year at Chicago, and would have drawn tens of thousands to that city; but Chicago graciously waived her claim in our favor.

I can hardly close without reference to that part of the exposition which, it seems, will always go by the accidental name given to it at Chicago, "The Midway." Many novel features are promised, and assurance is given that this section of the fair will not only not contain anything unclean, but that fakes and impostures, however harmless, will not be tolerated.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES.

The exposition will be one vast educational object-lesson, from which even the casual observer may gather more information than from ten times the money and time spent in travel. But all its utilities and beauties and glories are but the concrete embodiment of ideas that existed in the minds of men all over the world; they are "the outward vesture of a thought." Therefore, the culminating educative feature of the fair will be the congresses, national and international, which will meet there. The building assigned for the meetings of the congresses is what will be, after the fair, the library of Washington University. The whole group of the new buildings of the university will be utilized by the fair, as University Hall is now used for the Administration Building.

ST. LOUIS—A STRONG WESTERN CITY.

BY WILLIAM FLEWELLYN SAUNDERS.

WITH a majestic curve, the Mississippi River, half a mile wide, flows by St. Louis and forms its eastern boundary, like a huge bow, inclosing the fourth city of the United States, with its six hundred and fifty thousand people, between horns nineteen miles apart. The western boundary, twenty-one miles long, makes a very obtuse angle about the city, like a string extending from horn to horn of the bow, and an arrow drawn to its head on this bow and string would be six and one-half miles long. Just above the city on the north is the mouth of the turbid Missouri River, and just below the city on the south is Jefferson Barracks, one of the most important military posts in the West. Outside of the western boundary as far as twenty miles from the river are beautiful suburban villages, linked to the city by trolley and steam roads. On the other side of the river are East St. Louis, Granite City, Venice, and Madison, manufacturing and railway suburbs which keep one hundred thousand people busy, and two huge steel railway and vehicle bridges and many railway and passenger ferries connect this mass of industry with the city. High grain-elevators pierce the sky line

along the levee on both sides of the river. For twenty miles north and south of the city, up and down the great river, are scattered, in smaller towns or well-to-do isolation, the homes of people of the city, some in beautiful situation on high bluffs, some in picturesque woods on the shore. Steamboats carrying freight and passengers, and powerful tugs towing deeply laden barges, pass going toward New Orleans and St. Paul. Boxing the compass in their approach so that they look like the spokes of a wheel, twenty-seven railways enter the city and carry its products to the thirty-two million people who have their homes within a radius of five hundred miles.

THE APPEARANCE OF ST. LOUIS.

St. Louis covers sixty-two and one-half square miles, and rises from its river front on a series of undulating terraces that become gentle hills beyond the western boundary, seven miles from the river.

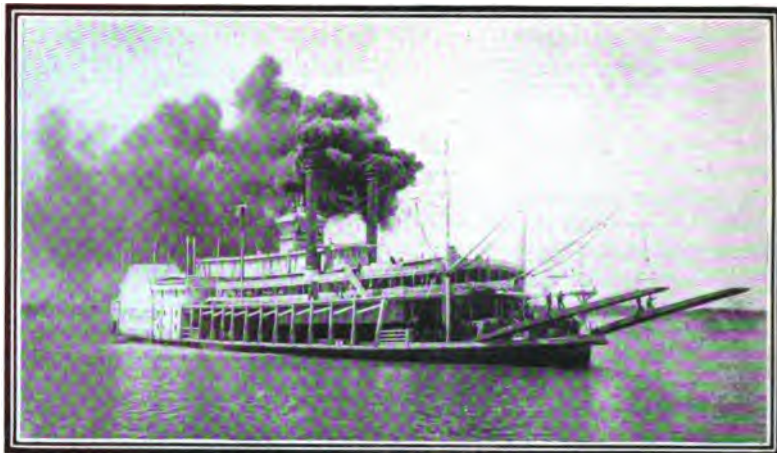
Nearly five hundred miles of the nine hundred miles of streets of the city are well paved, those in the business district—which is a rectangle of one mile along the river and two miles back from it—with granite, and those in the dwelling parts of the city with asphalt, brick, and telford. Many of the down-town granite streets are now being surfaced with asphalt to do away with the noise. The streets run straight north and south, or east and west, except the very long ones like Broadway, which runs with the curve of the river the whole nineteen miles of the city's length, Grand Avenue, which follows the western boundary, half-way between it and the river, joining Broadway at its northern and southern ends, and the King's Highway, which hugs the western boundary more closely than Grand Avenue. This street, a thoroughfare of pioneer



THE MERCHANTS' RAILWAY BRIDGE BETWEEN ST. LOUIS AND GRANITE CITY, A MANUFACTURING SUBURB.

days, passes by the two most beautiful parks, Forest Park and Tower Grove Park, and is being made a charming boulevard. The streets and houses are numbered from the river west, running one hundred numbers to the block in perfect regularity. For example, one will find No. 4517 Olive Street about the middle of the block between Forty-fifth and Forty-sixth streets. With like system, the houses on the streets running north and south are numbered in each direction from Market Street, a long street which runs east and west from the river to the limits. The stranger, set on the right street, may know by the number of the house to which he is going exactly how far it is, and he is delighted to see on each corner signs bearing the street names.

Broadway, which, being Fifth Street, is five blocks from the river, and Olive Street, which runs from the river, as the crow flies, to the western limits, touching the World's Fair grounds, are the busy retail streets, and Washington Avenue, which parallels Olive Street three blocks north, is the wholesale street. On Olive street and



A ST. LOUIS RIVER PACKET.

Broadway are most of the tall buildings of the city, and the ground here is most valuable. This year, twenty thousand dollars a foot was asked of a firm that wanted to put up a big building. Of course, to most buyers, nothing but high office buildings will pay the interest on an investment like that. Yet several wealthy concerns,—the Mercantile Trust Company, the Mississippi Valley Trust Company, the St. Louis Union Trust Company, the *Republic* newspaper, and the American Exchange Bank,—in a spirit of protest against the sky-scrapers, have lately built two and three story homes for their businesses down

town, on ground worth from twenty-five hundred dollars to eight thousand dollars a foot. The architecture of these low buildings is most beautiful, and the contrast with the surrounding buildings is very striking.

The big hotels of the city are all in the downtown business district, and the largest new ones are being built there also. There are many hotels and great apartment-houses in the western part of the city, patronized principally by people with families who do not wish to undertake the responsibilities of housekeeping. A canvass of the city lately made shows one hundred and five hotels in all, with five more being built.

Transportation is altogether by trolley lines, of



A CONTRAST BETWEEN TALL BUILDINGS IN ST. LOUIS.

(The Missouri Trust Building, the Chemical Building, the Holland Building, and the low Republic Building, on Olive and Seventh streets.)

which there are 321 miles in the city, and 100 miles more connecting suburban towns. These cars run fast, and the clerk, mechanic, or laborer can afford to live ten miles from his business, on the edge of the city, where land is cheap, or even outside. This is why there is little of the squalor in St. Louis that is found in other very large cities. There are tenement-houses for the very poor, but no slums. The richer a St. Louis man gets, the farther from the river he moves; and when he feels able to spend two hundred thousand dollars on a house, keep a carriage, become a guarantor for the Symphony Orchestra, and live three months of the year in Europe, he builds a beautiful home in one of the many charming "places" in the western part of the town, where he has privacy, plenty of room, and neighbors as wealthy as he. Yet, even this most expensive land, so uncrowded still is St. Louis, is not worth as much as the best dwelling property in other large cities. A home in Westmoreland Place, St. Louis, can be bought for \$250 a foot. The best dwelling property on Fifth Avenue, in New York, costs \$11,000 a foot; on the Lake Shore Drive of Chicago, \$1,300 a foot; in Rittenhouse Square, Philadelphia, \$5,000 a foot; on Commonwealth Avenue, in Boston, \$1,200 a foot; in Washington Place, Baltimore, \$1,000 a foot; and on Euclid Avenue, in Cleveland, \$350 a foot. Outside of these aristocratic "places," beautiful homes are built on land that sells at from twenty dollars to one hundred and fifty dollars a foot. Home-building has been extensive in the last ten years. During the two years just past, twenty-six million dollars went into houses, and this year twenty million dollars will be spent. Half of this will build hotels, theaters, and apartment-houses, under the World's Fair stimulus, but most of the other ten millions will come from people of small income who are building modest homes. Philadelphia, by the way, is the only city that ranks St. Louis as to the home-owning of its people.

THE GROWTH OF ST. LOUIS COMMERCE.

Since St. Louis was founded as a fur-trading post, in 1763, by Pierre Laclede Liguest and



ST. LOUIS, MO., BROADWAY AND LOCUST STREET.

the Chouteau youths, it has grown to be the supply point for the South and Southwest, and a great part of the Northwest, the West, and Mexico. The commerce of the city to-day covers nearly a million square miles, and the business done by its merchants has nearly doubled in the last ten years on account of railway extensions. Last year, all the railways in the United States built 5,549 miles of new lines, and nearly half of this, 2,600 miles, was laid in Missouri, Oklahoma, Indian Territory, Texas, Arkansas, Louisiana, and New Mexico, joining and nourishing towns already built, causing others to spring up, and stimulating the settlement of a vast and productive agricultural and stock country, all of it looking directly to St. Louis as its market. These railways and the steamboat lines carried in and out of St. Louis, last year, thirty million tons of merchandise.

St. Louis is the fourth city of the United States in manufactures as well as in population. It has seven thousand manufactories, whose product for 1902 was sold for three hundred and ninety million dollars. It is first in the manufacture and sale of tobacco, beer, woodenware, and steam and street railway cars, and in the distribution of dry goods, footwear, hardware, and furs of the cheaper sort. It is next to Boston as a wool market. The city sold more dry goods last year than anything else, the volume of business in that line being



THE MERCANTILE TRUST BUILDING.

(At Eighth and Locust streets, standing on ground worth \$4,000 a foot.)

one hundred and twenty million dollars, one house selling nine million dollars' worth. Eighteen million dollars' worth of beer was sold, twenty-six million dollars' worth of tobacco, forty million dollars' worth of footwear,—of which seven million dollars' worth was sold by one firm,—thirty-five million dollars' worth of hardware, ten million dollars' worth of woodenware, and fifteen million dollars' worth of railway cars of all kinds.

Next to these prodigies of success come several lines of trade in which St. Louis leads the West but not the whole country, such as drugs, paints and oils, hats and caps and gloves, agricultural implements and vehicles, millinery, silk, clay products,—especially the finer kinds,—paper, trunks, groceries, glassware, furniture, hides, railway and electrical supplies, candies, stoves, lumber, flour, and chemicals.

The most concentrated expression of the business of a city is its post-office. The St. Louis postal business increases about 20 per cent. yearly. After all its expenses were paid, it turned, last year, \$1,500,000 into the United States Treasury. The office employs fifteen hundred clerks and carriers. Its postmaster, Mr. F. W. Baumhoff, has carried the plan of branch postal stations beyond the system of any other city, and one hundred and fifty of them are scattered about St. Louis. The main office is the only

one in the United States which is kept open day and night. Pneumatic mail tubes will be laid, this year, from the main office to the Union Station, and from the main office across the river, to get mails an hour earlier from Eastern trains. Congress has appropriated nearly a million dollars for a second post-office building near the Union Station. This will be built this year, too, and will save the down-town office from handling half of the present enormous mass of mail. By running postal cars on suburban trolley roads, carrier delivery has been extended from the city to the suburban towns.

It will surprise most people to learn that St. Louis publishes more books, magazines, periodicals, and newspapers than Boston or Chicago. Postal figures show that only New York and Philadelphia circulate more reading matter than St. Louis does.

The Business Men's League and the Merchants' Exchange are the two organizations of St. Louis which represent the commercial interests in matters that require action. They work unitedly, are both rich, and their membership includes all the influential and progressive men of the city. Cyrus P. Walbridge, president of the Business Men's League, is at the head of a prosperous wholesale drug business. He has been mayor of St. Louis, is a public speaker of celebrity, and being in his vigorous prime, has a distinguished future before him. Theodore R. Ballard, president of the Merchants' Exchange, is a successful business man who is just coming into active public life.

A COMPREHENSIVE TERMINAL SYSTEM.

In all the great commercial cities, the problem of maintaining adequate railway terminals has



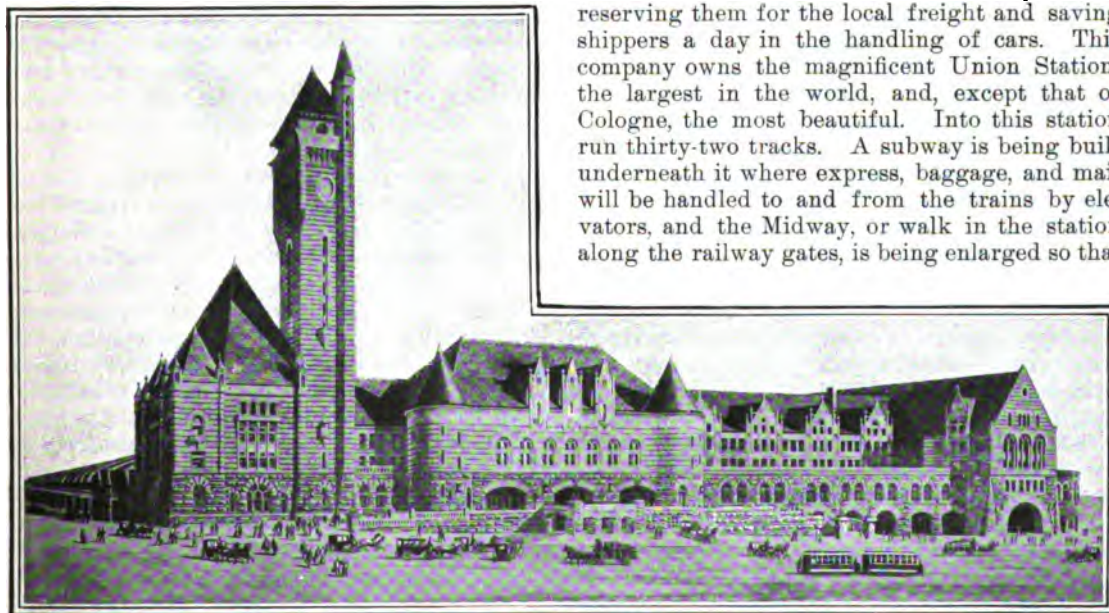
PORTLAND PLACE, DWELLINGS OF THE WEALTHY IN ST. LOUIS.



GATEWAY TO KINGSBURY PLACE, SHOWING DWELLINGS OF THE WEALTHY.

become, in the last few years, an intricate one, and solutions are costing millions. Disorder in a city's terminals means infinite distress to business, through delay of freight and loss of trade. In St. Louis, the foresight and energy of William S. McChesney, president of the company owning the terminals, has got this problem well in hand, and his work is reinforced most effectively by William K. Kavanaugh, a man who by

brain and tireless work built up a competitive terminal system of his own into such importance that the big company had to recognize it and assimilate it. This terminal company, which is controlled by all the trunk lines entering St. Louis, is now putting a belt around St. Louis and East St. Louis, the town across the river. This crosses the river north and south by railway ferries, and will keep all through freight between the east and west off the city tracks, reserving them for the local freight and saving shippers a day in the handling of cars. This company owns the magnificent Union Station, the largest in the world, and, except that of Cologne, the most beautiful. Into this station run thirty-two tracks. A subway is being built underneath it where express, baggage, and mail will be handled to and from the trains by elevators, and the Midway, or walk in the station along the railway gates, is being enlarged so that



THE ST. LOUIS UNION RAILWAY STATION.
(Thirty-two tracks run into this train shed.)

thirty thousand people may move about it in various directions at once. The tunnel under the city, famous for its discomfort, is no longer to be used by passenger trains. These, hereafter, will reach the Eads Bridge direct from surface tracks.

THE MONEY STRENGTH OF ST. LOUIS.

It was in 1893, when banks were going down everywhere in the country except in St. Louis, that this city made its reputation among the money men of the world. St. Louis now is regarded as next to New York in financial strength, and the South and the Southwest lean confidently on its banks and trust companies, whose financing is an active aid in developing the new country. Clearings, last year, were \$1,688,849,494, almost a billion dollars more than they were fifteen years ago. Deposits in the same time have increased seventy-six millions, amounting, last year, to \$120,947,932. The twenty banks and nine trust companies have a capital of \$42,315,800, a surplus of \$44,951,373, and resources amounting to \$306,812,526. They paid \$3,608,000 in dividends, last year.

THE CLIMATE OF ST. LOUIS.

As to climate, the people of St. Louis are pampered. Used to a comfortable temperature, one day of extreme heat or cold will make them groan, and two will cause the sound of their lamentation to fill the land. The heavy furs and top-coats of the rigorous north are seldom worn, and the occasional white linen suit in summer is stared at. The shirt-waist and seersucker of Southern cities are tabooed by the nice. The well-dressed man wears through the summer, in St. Louis, the clothes that he wears when he goes to Bar Harbor or Hyannisport, or to any other Northern resort.

The weather records of the signal service in St. Louis for thirty-two years back show an average of one hundred and thirty-five clear days in the year. The average temperature of the four hottest months of the year, during this time, was seventy-five degrees for June, seventy-nine degrees for July, seventy-eight degrees for August, and seventy degrees for September. For the winter months, the average temperature was, during these thirty-two years—for December, thirty-six degrees; January, thirty-two degrees; February, thirty-five degrees; and March, forty-four degrees.

In summer, when the days are hottest, the nights are cooled by a constant southern breeze, and the mildness of the winters is such that golf is played on the links of the eight golf clubs here all the year around.

THE ST. LOUIS PEOPLE.

Before the War, St. Louis was a Southern city, its affairs controlled altogether by men born in the South, but the immigration from the North and East has changed all that. Southern influences are still a great factor in St. Louis trade, of course, but the men directing the banking houses, the wholesale firms, and the big manufactories represent every State in the Union. A consensus of opinion upon any business, social, or political matter obtained in any club of the city would never show sectionalism.

The St. Louis type of man is the one common to all large American cities. He is well dressed, quick in movement, talking to the point, delighting in doing things. If he can afford it, he belongs to the Mercantile or the Noonday Club, where he dines, and to the St. Louis Club, where he lounges in tuxedo in the evening. He is a member of the Business Men's League and the Merchants' Exchange, so that he may touch elbows with the successful men of the city and be a part of the affairs that are going on. If he be college bred, he goes into the University Club. If he has indisputably achieved business or professional standing, he is asked into the Commercial Club or the Round Table.

The descendants of the first families of St. Louis are not distinguished in business nor on the surface socially. They are well-to-do by inheritance, and live exclusively and unostentatiously. It is not an extravagance to say that one who meets these Laclede and Chouteaus feels that their sweet and gentle manners could not have survived the jostling of modern conditions without a most persistent strain of aristocracy.

The negro population of the city is 6 2-10 per cent., which is only 1 4-10 per cent. more than Philadelphia has. New Orleans and Atlanta, two representative Southern cities, have—the first, 27 1-10 per cent. negro population, and the second, 39 8-10 per cent. St. Louis has also a very small foreign-born population, only 19 4-10 per cent. New York has 33 64-100 per cent.; Boston, 35 1-10 per cent.; Philadelphia, 22 8-10 per cent., and Chicago, 34 6-10 per cent. As a genuinely American city, therefore, St. Louis may rank itself first.

EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

Washington University is famous for the comprehensive system of schools it directs. There is a college proper, a law school, a medical school, an engineering school, a dental school, an art school, and three preparatory schools, one of which is for boys, one for girls, and the third a

manual-training school. Calvin M. Woodward, who directs this school still, originated the idea of training boys in the mechanical trades while they were taking the ordinary school course, and this school was the first of its kind in the world. Many similar schools have been established since elsewhere, and a number of the public schools of St. Louis have now manual-training departments. The university has, during the past few years, grown fast in influence and in wealth, and through large gifts, has been enabled to erect excellent buildings of modern equipment on a beautiful site just outside of the city. The university now has an endowment of seven million dollars, its possessions, through the gifts of Robert S. Brookings and Samuel Cupples of four million dollars, having increased fivefold in the last five years. Chancellor W. S. Chaplin came from Harvard to St. Louis originally, and he has succeeded, through many discouragements, in placing the university at the head of the educational system in this part of the country.

St. Louis University, which is directed by the Rev. W. Banks Rogers, is not rich, but is deeply rooted. It is a Catholic institution, founded by priests as an Indian school, in 1824. With the Seminary of St. Stanislaus, the university is now the most important training-school in the United States for the Jesuit priesthood. It is about to add a law and a medical school to its departments.

The public-school system of St. Louis, in the shaping of which William T. Harris had much to do, is modern, and is now getting money to carry out the excellent plans of the non-partisan board which controls its affairs, a board which is in fact not political, though elected. The schools provide for eighty thousand pupils, who are taught by seventeen hundred and forty-eight teachers. The income of the board is about two and a half million dollars a year, and three-quarters of a million dollars will be spent, this year, on new schools. The superintendent, F. Louis Soldan, is a man of ideas, broad culture, and is effective in carrying out his plans.

St. Louis is well equipped with libraries. The free public library, directed by Frederick M. Crunden, who has been the genius of its success, is the model for many cities, and so many of its pupils have been chosen, from time to time, to manage libraries elsewhere, often in the East, that the influence of its methods is widespread. Mr. Carnegie has been so impressed with this library's work that he has given one million dollars to it. Half of this will erect a building on a site covering half a

block down town given by the city, and the other half will add branch library stations to those already established. Mr. Crunden believes in bringing the library to the people through branches, and has put the utmost enthusiasm and hard work into this plan.

The Mercantile Library is a very old one, and has specialized itself as the popularity of the free library grew. It may now be characterized as a successful book club of large membership and peculiar St. Louis atmosphere, the librarian being Horace Kephart, a man admirably fitted by temperament and training for the duties. A membership in the Mercantile Library is a cachet of something more than mere respectability,—there is a flavor of social standing and of culture about it. Venerated people do not subscribe to the Mercantile Library.

St. Louis has a symphony orchestra, encouraged by a guarantee fund subscribed, from year to year, by the people. The musical director is Alfred Ernst, and the man who carries the financial responsibility upon his shoulders is John Schroers, one of the younger men of the city, who is making himself felt in a solid way, successful in his own business, and generous of his energy in public matters like this. So many male and female choruses are there in the city, including the German singing societies, that a mixed chorus of three thousand voices, already trained in their respective societies, is now being drilled for a World's Fair event.

ST. LOUIS AS A MUNICIPALITY.

St. Louis governs itself, and is not attached to St. Louis County. In national elections, it is Republican; in local elections, doubtful. The force of its independent vote is enormous, and it is felt in every election; but, unlike other large cities, an organized independent movement is never successful. In 1884, every office in the city was held by Democrats, and in 1897, every office was held by Republicans; now the Democrats have nearly every office again. The independent vote did this, resenting bad government. The present mayor of St. Louis is Rolla Wells, a rich manufacturer, whose chief ambition is to govern the city well, taking no thought of his political morrow. He was nominated by the Democrats and elected by the people, who were tired of a dishonest Republican administration. Mayor Wells is not a reformer, but he is aggressive in requiring efficient and honest work in the city departments. So far, he has been able to do little for the city, because he has not had the money. Next June, at a special election, the people of the city will vote upon a proposed bond issue of seven million dollars, to be

spent upon city improvements. If the people vote the bonds,—and it is likely they will,—Mayor Wells will be able to do the large things for the city which he has planned, and it is pretty certain that the money will be spent, under his



HON. ROLLA WELLS.
(Mayor of St. Louis.)

direction, so that the city will get its worth. With these bonds, the net debt of St. Louis will be thirty million dollars, which is not immoderate. The credit of the city in the Eastern and London markets is excellent. Its last bonds, an issue of five million dollars for the World's Fair, bearing 3.25 per cent. interest, sold readily. The average interest of the city bonds issued since 1885 has been 4.11 per cent. On a 70 per cent. basis, the assessed value of property is \$406,000,000, and the tax rate on the \$100 is \$1.95. The income of the city, this year, most of which will go for ordinary expenses, will be six and a half million dollars, and property-owners will spend several million dollars more for streets and boulevards, the city paying nothing for this purpose.

The city owns its water-works, for whose maintenance and improvement the entire water tax, about one and three-quarter millions a year, is spent, and the pumping and pipe equipment, consequently, is most efficient. Costly clarifying plans are now being executed.

The park system of the city gets much atten-

tion, and money is spent on it liberally. There are twenty public parks, containing 2,183 acres, a remarkably large park area for a city of the size of St. Louis.

THE FUTURE OF ST. LOUIS.

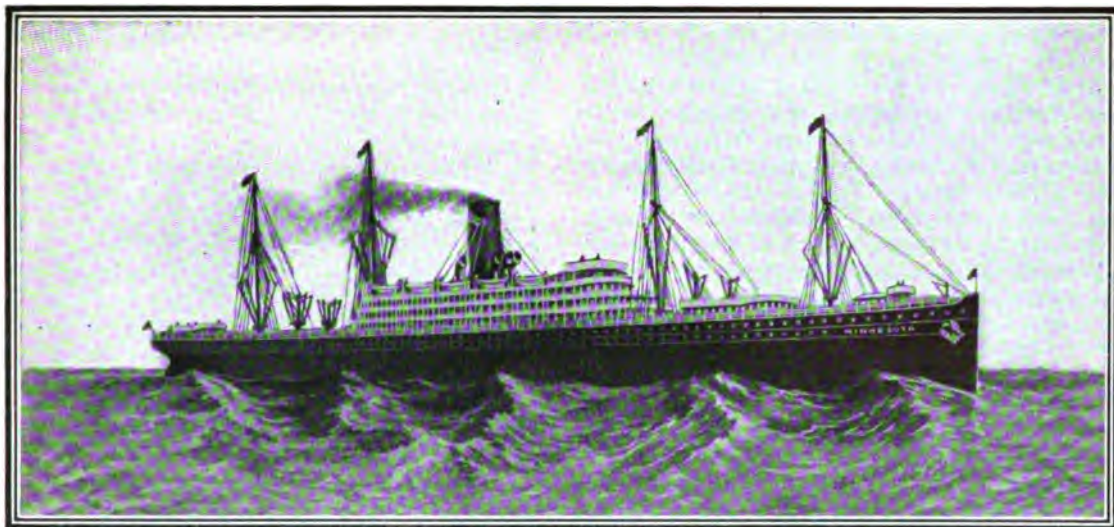
It is easy to see now what St. Louis will become. It will retain the trade territory it has already in the South, Southwest, and West, yearly becoming more valuable, and it will control the business of Mexico because of railway advantages. The cheap coal from the near-by mines in Missouri and Illinois, and the natural situation of the city as a distributing point, will increase the number of its manufactories. The Mississippi River, most of whose enormous commercial power is now wasted, will undoubtedly soon be used by the north and south rail-



THE CITY HALL, DESIGNED IN 1890.

ways to relieve their tracks of heavy freight which does not demand dispatch, and from this will come large and systematic river improvements, productive cultivation of a great part of the valley now neglected, and the building up of the small back settlements into prosperous towns.

The western limits of the city, within the next few years, will be extended about ten miles, to include the suburban towns, which have already built into touch with the city. Subway roads will be built before then, one running along Broadway north and south, and the other from the river west. Both plans are now under discussion, and bills for these roads are before the Municipal Assembly. The growth of the city for the past ten years has been so steady that it is fair to assume it will continue. If it does, and if the suburbs are annexed, the census of the year 2000 will give St. Louis eight hundred thousand people.



THE "MINNESOTA," OF THE GREAT NORTHERN STEAMSHIP COMPANY.

(As she will look when in commission January 1, 1904. Launched April 16, 1903, at the New London, Conn., shipyards.)

GIANT SHIPS FOR OUR ORIENTAL TRADE.

BY F. N. STACY.

IN the search for the wealth of the Indies, a tiny wooden bark, in 1492, brought Columbus to the Atlantic shores of America. In pursuit of the same quest, the bateau and birch-bark canoe of the *courrier du bois*, nearly two centuries later, brought Daniel Gresolon du Luth to the Lake Superior shore of northeastern Minnesota, within sight of the Mesaba range of the Ojibways. On April 16, 1903, a Minnesota transportation man, James J. Hill, taking up the mission of Columbus and du Luth in a practical American fashion, launches a giant steel palace, the steamship *Minnesota*, made of Mesaba range iron ore, to bring to the United States the wealth of the Indies in cargoes equal to one hundred train loads of twenty-five cars per train on each round-trip voyage of fifty days.

Thus are the dreams of the fifteenth century materialized into tangible fact by twentieth-century energy on a dazzling wholesale plan.

The past ten years of shipbuilding development have placed upon the high seas some wonderful creations in steel. In 1893, there appeared the *Lucania*, with 625 feet of length, 65 feet breadth, 41 feet depth, and a displacement of 19,000 tons. In 1898, the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* came forth, with 648 feet length, 66 feet breadth, 43 feet depth, and nearly twenty-two thousand tons displacement. The next year ap-

peared the *Oceanic*, the first 700-footer, of 68 feet breadth, 49 feet depth, and 28,500 tons displacement. Then came the *Deutschland*, of slightly smaller dimensions than the *Oceanic*, and, finally, in 1902, the twin giants, the greatest vessels on the ocean, the *Cedric* and the *Celtic*, 700 feet long, 75 feet broad, 49 feet deep, with a displacement of nearly thirty-eight thousand tons.

The *Minnesota* and the *Dakota*, built at the New London shipyards for the Great Northern Steamship Company, the one having been launched on April 16 and the other to follow in sixty days, have not the length of the *Cedric*, *Celtic*, or *Oceanic*, and they lack eighteen inches of the breadth of the *Cedric* and *Celtic*; but they are nearly seven feet deeper, and have a dead-weight cargo capacity one-half greater. Their length is 630 feet; breadth, 73 feet 6 inches; depth, 56 feet; and displacement, close to thirty-eight thousand tons. But whereas the *Cedric* has a dead-weight cargo capacity of 18,400 tons, which is the greatest of any vessel now doing business on the high seas, the dead-weight cargo capacity of the *Minnesota* will be, approximately, 28,000 tons. It will carry that many long tons of coal, or 280,000 barrels of flour.

The *Minnesota's* displacement is 14,000 tons greater than that of the famous *Great Eastern*,

16,000 tons greater than that of the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse*, and 12,000 tons greater than that of Germany's great vessel, now completing her first round trip, *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*; but its net dead-weight cargo capacity is not far from double that of either of the three vessels named. The greater depth of the *Minnesota*, and the economy of its internal arrangement for the accommodation of cargo, in both of which particulars it has no parallel, make it by far the greatest cargo-carrier designed or built for ocean transportation.

The *Minnesota* and *Dakota*, in order to withstand the stress of long sea voyages with such enormous cargoes, are necessarily constructed with great power and endurance. They are the heaviest vessels ever built under the survey of the British Lloyds. The frames and plating are about one-half heavier than those of other great vessels in their class, and approximately double the weight and thickness of the steel structure of the largest American battleship. Five continuous steel decks extend the entire length of the hulls. There is a double bottom of solid plate, and the frames and beams are spaced 30 inches apart amidships and 27 inches at the ends. Through the sheer strake, there is a maximum thickness of solid metal reaching 5.1 inches, with five-ply riveting of inch plates. Through the keel, the thickness is 4 inches, with three-ply riveting, and at the garboard lap the thickness is over four inches, with five-ply riveting. The steel plates vary in thickness from one to two inches. The rivets, of which there are 2,500,000 in each vessel, are pneumatically driven, and exceed in number those of the

Cedric by 500,000, and of the *Oceanic* by 750,000. Where the two latter vessels use an eight-inch post, the *Minnesota* and *Dakota* employ a twelve-inch post. Where the *Minnesota* and *Dakota* employ a twelve-inch frame, and a one to two inch steel plate, the battleship *Oregon* uses a six-inch frame and a half-inch plate in the deck and hull. There are, all told, 12,000 tons of steel plates and shapes in the hull and decks of the *Minnesota*, which is about one-third greater than the total tonnage of structural iron and steel in such buildings as the Park Row and the Waldorf-Astoria.

Primarily designed as cargo-carriers, the *Minnesota* and *Dakota* have the most modern accommodations for passengers, and in some respects the finest passenger equipment in the world. They have accommodations for 175 first-cabin passengers, 110 second-cabin, 70 third-cabin, and 2,400 steerage passengers or troops, making a total of 2,755 berths, in addition to berths for a staff of 48 officers and a crew of 230 men. Every room for first, second, and third-class passengers is located above the weather deck, in deck-houses, as near amidships as possible. Each room is fitted with a large window, with ventilator top, and all are outside rooms. Every room opens from a side passage which supplies light and air, and all berths are placed fore and aft. Dining-saloons, library, ladies' boudoir, smoking-rooms, barber shops, and commodiously furnished halls meet the latest modern requirements. The sanitary system equals the best shore installations. Fresh and sea water, hot or cold, is delivered to all parts of the ship. Porcelain lavatories are used throughout. All the



VIEW OF KEEL-BLOCKS OF THE "MINNESOTA" AND "DAKOTA," LAID IN 1901.



PUNCHING HOLES THROUGH STEEL BY COMPRESSED AIR.

living spaces are ventilated, artificially as well as naturally, the air being cleansed, in summer cooled, and in winter tempered, before it is delivered to the room. By the use of electric heaters, arranged with a switch, a passenger who needs a temperature of 75° F. may occupy a room adjoining that of another who wants only 60° F. Both vessels are equipped with a well-arranged electrically operated steam laundry, the finest plant of the kind on any merchant vessel.

The electric plant is the finest and largest ever placed on board an ocean vessel. All of the auxiliary machinery and appliances outside of the machinery space, except the windlass, are electrically operated. The dynamos have a normal output of 4,000 amperes. There is a total of 1,566 horse-powers represented in the motors of each ship. The ventilating apparatus, the refrigerating-machines, the steering-gear, the warping-capstans, the winches for handling cargo, the heating and the lighting, are all electrically operated. A central station on the upper deck over the dynamo-room distributes by main feeders the electric current to the entire vessel. Seven power circuits, with two heating and eleven lighting, lead from the central station to auxiliary switchboards. The net weight of the dynamos and connected engines is over one hundred and eighty thousand pounds per ship. There are more miles of electric wiring on the *Minnesota* than upon any other vessel yet designed. For the handling of cargo, there are two winches and two booms at each hatch, thirty-four steel booms in all, some of them fitted to lift weights of from thirty to fifty tons. The thirty-four winches for handling cargo are all electrically operated. The vessels are fitted with an electric whistle control, electric cooking apparatus, telephone system, and electric opera-

tion of dumb-waiters and elevators, of call-bells and alarm-signals.

The refrigerating plant and cold-storage room for cargo are notably interesting. There is one hold, completely insulated, devoted to carrying frozen meat, with a capacity of two thousand five hundred tons. Separate compartments are provided for butter, milk, fish, eggs, flour, vegetables, wines, silks, and bonded goods. An ice-making tank supplies cool water to drinking fountains throughout the ship. Two thirty-ton ammonia compressors, located in a house on deck, are driven by a seventy-five-horse-power electric motor. The cooling power of each compressor is equal to the melting of thirty tons of ice in twenty-four hours.

The *Minnesota* and *Dakota* are the first ocean-going American steamships to be fitted with water-tube boilers. Four of the sixteen boilers in each vessel are to be provided with automatic stokers and screw ash-conveyors, the first installation of mechanical stokers on an ocean-going cargo and passenger vessel. The coal bunkers have a capacity for 6,000 tons, sufficient to amply provide the great carrier for long journeys,—if necessary, for an 8,000-mile voyage. The normal speed is 14 knots, with an average of probably 12 knots under a heavy cargo in bad weather.

The anchors weigh 8½ tons, and the cable over eighty-five tons. The great steel rudder weighs 40 tons, and the twin screws have a diameter of 20 feet. There are 23 cargo hatches, and 20 side cargo ports for receiving and dispatching freight, which is handled by 40 cargo derricks. Above the five continuous decks, three upper decks rise to a height, at the captain's bridge, of eighty-eight feet above the keel.

Were the *Minnesota* to be placed on Broadway, she would extend down street nearly three blocks and fill the entire street up to the windows of the buildings on either side to the height of the average seven-story building. Her cargo capacity is more than double that of the largest recent cargo and passenger vessels constructed in American yards, like the *Kroonland* and *Finland*, built at the Cramp shipyards, or the *Korea* and *Siberia*, constructed at Newport News. The *Minnesota* has not far from double the tonnage of the new modern creations, the *Minnekakdu* and the *Minnedora*, the product of the New York shipyards. It has six times the cargo capacity of any vessel now on the Pacific coast. With a cargo equal to that of one hundred railway-train loads of twenty-five cars each, or of a single train seven miles long, it is plainly seen that two such giant carriers, possessing an aggregate cargo capacity equal to that of a fleet

of a dozen ordinary vessels, will bring to the commerce of Puget Sound with the Orient progress at rapid bounds.

THE SHORT-CUT TO THE ORIENT.

The question here arises—What are the traffic conditions which warrant the construction of vessels of such prodigious capacity and calling for such an enormous volume of freight business? Why should these vessels be built for Puget Sound, which heretofore has held a subordinate position as compared with the port of San Francisco?

In the first place, Puget Sound is the logical gateway of the United States to the Pacific Orient, by reason of the fact of its geographical position. The short-cut from the United States to the Orient, as one will see when he consults his globe, is northerly by way of the Aleutian Islands. The average map presents the coasts of North America and of Asia as if they faced each other and were almost parallel, whereas the spherical contour of the globe in fact makes the Asiatic shore line almost a continuation or projection of the American shore line to the other side of the globe. Thus, the most direct route from either San Francisco or San Diego, Cal., to Japan or China, instead of being westerly by way of the Sandwich Islands, is northerly past Puget Sound and the Bering Sea. It is 1,250 miles farther from San Francisco westerly *via*

Hawaii to Yokohama, Shanghai, or Hongkong than from Puget Sound northerly to the same destinations. In other words, the San Francisco round trip to the Orient *via* Hawaii is 2,500 miles longer than the Puget Sound round trip *via* Bering Sea, which is equivalent to a week's voyage for a fifteen-knot vessel and nearly nine days for a twelve-knot vessel. This advantage of a week to ten days in the length of the voyage is the logical basis for the faith in Puget Sound as the gateway of Oriental commerce.

In the second place, the Puget Sound route for American commerce with the Orient is about one-half the length of the New York route *via* the Suez Canal. From New York to Hongkong, through the Suez Canal, the haul is 11,575 miles, as compared with 5,830 miles from Seattle to Hongkong. From New York *via* the Suez Canal to Yokohama, the distance is over thirteen hundred miles, as compared with 4,240 miles from Puget Sound to Yokohama. Why should the United States circumnavigate the globe to reach the Orient by way of Europe when it has a short-cut of its own with one-half the length of haul?

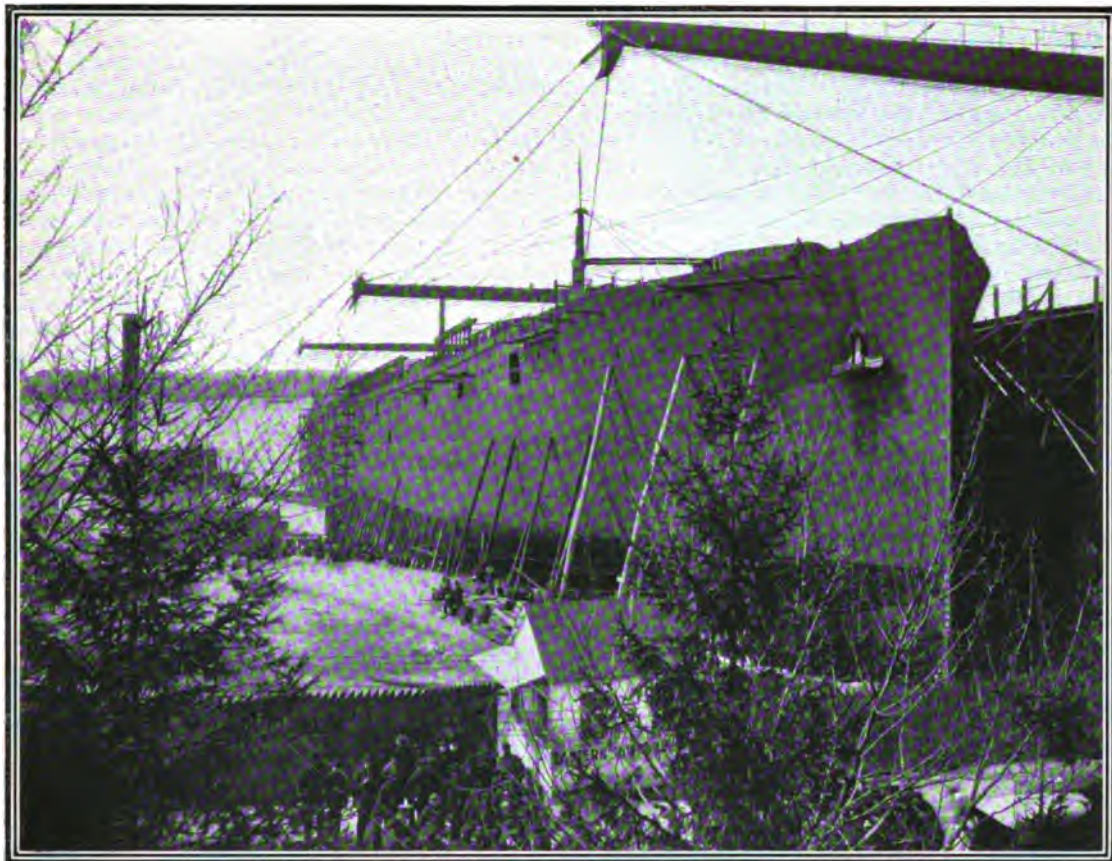
Another definite and convincing advantage which American commerce will enjoy in taking the direct trade channel from Puget Sound to the Orient is the avoidance of the two dollars per ton charge levied upon it by the Suez Canal. In view of the facts that within the past year

steel rails have been carried from the Mississippi Valley to Yokohama, and that within the past sixty days flour has been transported from Minneapolis to Manila and Hongkong, in each case at the low rate of eight dollars per ton, it is patent even to the layman that the two dollars per ton handicap *via* the Suez Canal is sufficient in itself to transfer future American commerce to Puget Sound.

Recent developments in pushing Oriental traffic have given marked fulfillment of the prediction that Puget Sound is our natural commercial doorway to the Orient. In two years, the export volume of that port has nearly doubled, and since 1895 it has multiplied sixfold. Indeed, Puget Sound and Willamette, the



A VIEW ACROSS THE DECKS OF THE "MINNESOTA" AND THE "DAKOTA," SHOWING STEEL CONSTRUCTION.



THE "MINNESOTA" BEFORE LAUNCHING.

two northern ports, have overtaken and passed the two California ports, San Francisco and San Diego. For the calendar year ending December 31, 1902, the exports from Puget Sound and Willamette were \$46,381,250, and those of San Francisco and San Diego were \$38,047,625. In steamship tonnage, Puget Sound has risen to the position of leading port on the Pacific Ocean. The steam tonnage for the month of February at Puget Sound was 52,409 entered and 68,909 cleared, as compared with 47,443 entered and 57,731 cleared at San Francisco.

Another interesting phase of our Pacific shipping is this, that whereas only 8 per cent. of the steam tonnage entering Atlantic ports in the foreign trade consists of American vessels, over 50 per cent. of the vessel tonnage carrying foreign trade at Pacific ports is American, while at Puget Sound over 75 per cent. of the steam tonnage entering for the foreign trade consists of American ships. Reversing the proposition, 92 per cent. of our foreign commerce at Atlantic ports is carried in foreign bottoms, as compared

with 50 per cent. at Pacific ports, and less than 25 per cent. at Puget Sound. When the *Minnesota* and *Dakota* arrive at Seattle to engage in commerce with the Orient, the United States will see upward of 90 per cent. of its Oriental traffic from that harbor carried in American steamships. It will probably take from now until January 1, 1904, to finish the upper decks of the *Minnesota*, put her machinery in place, and complete her furnishing and equipment for the voyage around the Horn, and the twin-sister giants may require until about April 1, 1904, to deliver their first freight and passengers at Pacific ports and enter upon their Puget Sound mission.

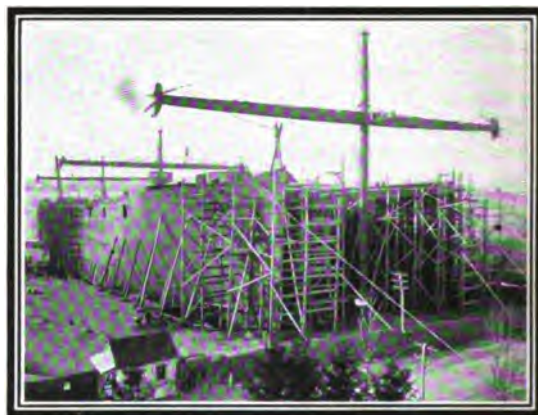
THE NEW LONDON SHIPYARDS.

The launching of the big ship at New London, Conn., naturally calls attention to the great shipbuilding enterprise which carried this vessel to completion. The foundation of a great merchant marine is a great shipbuilding industry. It speaks volumes for American enterprise and

genius in the building of ships that a company which had no existence on January 1, 1900, and not even a site for its plant on March 1, 1900, should be able within the brief period of three years to turn out the greatest cargo-carriers in the world. The shipyards at New London form one of the eight plants of the United States Shipbuilding Company. The New London branch of the general corporation is known as the Eastern Shipbuilding Company, Charles R. Hanscom president and manager. The United States Shipbuilding Company, of which Lewis Nixon is president, is the owner of two plants at Bath, Maine, two at Elizabethport, N. J., and one each at Wilmington, Del., South Bethlehem, Pa., and San Francisco, Cal., in addition to the youngest plant of all, that at New London, which has turned out the two greatest vessels designed and built in America. Five of these plants are shipyards, two are builders of marine machinery, and the eighth is one of the greatest forge, armor, and gun plants in the world. The constituent plants cover three hundred and seventy-five acres and employ seventeen thousand men. At New London alone, during the past sixty days, there have been employed upward of one thousand six hundred men, with a weekly pay-roll of about eighteen thousand dollars. The total volume of contracts in hand to be filled by the United States Shipbuilding Company at its various plants aggregates not less than fifty million dollars. At Wilmington, ten vessels are now under construction. At Elizabethport, the company is constructing a monitor, a cruiser, and two torpedo boats for the United States navy, and two troop ships and cruisers for Mexico. At Bath, there is being constructed a cruiser and first-class battleship, the *Georgia*; while at the Union Iron Works, in San Francisco, where the *Oregon* and the *Olympia* were built, there are being constructed the battleship *Ohio*, the armored cruisers *California*, *South Dakota*, and *Milwaukee*, the protected cruiser *Tacoma*, and the submarine torpedo boats *Pike* and *Grampus*. The combined displacement of the vessels under construction at the five shipyards of the United States Shipbuilding Company is over one hundred and seventy-five thousand tons.

If one of the finest harbors in the world, if a granite foundation for the laying of a ship's keel,

and if two and one-half centuries of patriotic and seagoing traditions, backed up with the capital of a fifty-million-dollar corporation, can produce a great shipbuilding center, certainly New London has a promising future. When James J. Hill and Charles R. Hanscom, on March 7, 1900, steamed up the mouth of the Thames River in the yacht *Wacouta* and landed on the rock-bound beach of Groton, just across the river from the New London docks, they recognized at once that the harbor and the site were ideal for the construction and launching of mammoth steamships. Within sixty days, a site was purchased and the Eastern



THE "MINNESOTA" AND THE "DAKOTA" IN COURSE OF CONSTRUCTION.

Shipbuilding Company organized and the plant started.

On January 15, 1901, the keels of the *Minnesota* and *Dakota* were laid, and on April 18 following, the first rivets were driven into the shell. The great trolley system which hoists the steel plates and shapes into position was established and in full working order on September 28, 1901, from which point work on the big ships proceeded at full blast. The increase in New London's population from 17,000 in 1900 to an estimate of over twenty-five thousand at the present time is one of the results of the development of what promises to be one of the greatest shipbuilding plants in the world.



THE GERMAN MUNICIPAL EXPOSITION.

BY GEORGE E. HOOKER.

SIX years ago, while preparations were going on for the Paris fair, a body of German burgomasters met at Carlsruhe to consider the proposal for a joint municipal exposition at that fair by German cities. The project was discarded, each city being left to its own course respecting Paris; but instead, the suggestion that a municipal exposition in and for Germany be held in 1903 was heartily approved. Active preparations to that end were soon under way; Dresden, whose burgomaster had made the original suggestion, was chosen as the place, and the exposition is to occur in that city from May 20 to September 30 of the present year.

WHAT GERMAN CITIES HAVE TO SHOW.

It promises to be an event of genuine interest and importance. It will, in the first place, be unique in conception. Municipal exhibits constituted something of a feature at Paris in 1900, as they had to a less extent in previous world's fairs. The forthcoming exposition, however, will be the first to be devoted exclusively to the subject of municipal development. In the second place, it will be widely representative of municipal enterprise in the German Empire. Out of the 156 cities in that empire having a population of 25,000 or more in 1895, 128 are to participate, and their preparations have been progressing with deliberation and wholesome emulation. In the third place, recent municipal history in Germany is peculiarly worthy of being thus displayed. The rapid growth of the cities of that country has been not less remarkable than that of American towns, and the efforts made, not only for superior administration in general, but especially toward comprehensive direction of that growth, form one of the notable facts of recent social history. Indeed, the great widening of municipal action in the cities of the Fatherland respecting education, recreation, charity, hygiene, and "municipal trading" is less significant than the attempt to give proper shape, both for economic and æsthetic ends, to the entire physical organization of those cities. The authorities have set up the ideal of a city which, in arrangement and structure, should be a rational unity; and while the results achieved have naturally been limited, they are in many respects surprising.

Hamburg, for example, could displace thirty

thousand people in order to obtain a proper location for new docks. Nuremberg, while developing into a modern industrial town, has studiously perpetuated its delightful architectural spirit, and any German city which should to-day lay out, or permit to be laid out, a new quarter on the easy and wearisome checkerboard plan would be laughed at. There have actually developed in Germany—and in Austria, too—especially during the last dozen years, the rudiments of a real science of city-building, with a limited but distinctive literature of its own. How far the forthcoming exposition will reveal the spirit and aims of this development, and how far it will be merely a display of method, device, and technique, cannot readily be foretold. It certainly ought, however, to disclose the existence in German municipalities,—despite their poverty in comparison with many Anglo-Saxon centers,—of a boldly idealistic attitude toward the notion of urban organization. It ought to show the existence of deliberate procedure, not only to enhance the conditions of health, to multiply modern conveniences, and to increase business expansion, but to create cities which shall be interesting in themselves,—cities which shall be restful in their lines and educative in their general suggestions to the mind, and cities, finally, which shall exemplify the idea of orderly unity. It should make it evident that a philosophy of city-making is actually assuming shape in municipal circles among the Teutons.

MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

The management of the exposition rests with a joint commission representing thirty of the participating towns, and the cost is borne in part by the latter according to population and in part by Dresden. There has been ample time for all preparations, and these appear to have been carried out with characteristic German thoroughness. In its internal organization, the display will fall under two main divisions. The first is intended to disclose "the condition of municipal life in Germany at the beginning of the twentieth century and its development in recent years." The second will "bring together a collection of appliances and manufactures produced by German firms for municipal purposes."

The first division will be supplied by city authorities, and will occupy 12,000 square meters



A VIEW OF DRESDEN FROM THE EAST IN 1896.

of space. Its eight general departments will comprise—(1) Public Streets and Places, including street-construction, mains, lighting, tramways, bridges, harbors; (2) Town Expansion, including housing; (3) Public Art; (4) Public Health and Safety; (5) Education; (6) Charities; (7) Public Finance, including "municipal trading," and (8) Municipal Statistics, including methods of regulating public employment. Models will constitute a favorite and effective method of display. Berlin, for example, has appropriated \$17,000 for models alone, and will exhibit by this means several of its public baths, its new overhead and underground electric railway, its abattoirs, its most approved school-houses, including a manual-training school, and one of its school gymnasiums. Hamburg will send a model of its great harbor and docks, with their general mechanical equipment. Nuremberg will show models of a new hospital, a school bath, and a new municipal theater. Cologne will exhibit in the same way a people's park, and Breslau a school garden. Other towns will show in like manner a school kitchen, dwelling-houses surviving from the Middle Ages, working-class houses of to-day, and types of *crèches* and the

latest schools for the blind. Full-sized sections of streets will be built, showing different sorts of paving, with sub-pavement constructions. A short street-railway line will illustrate progress to date in surface-transit methods, and an automobile train is contemplated.

RELIEF MAPS OF CITIES.

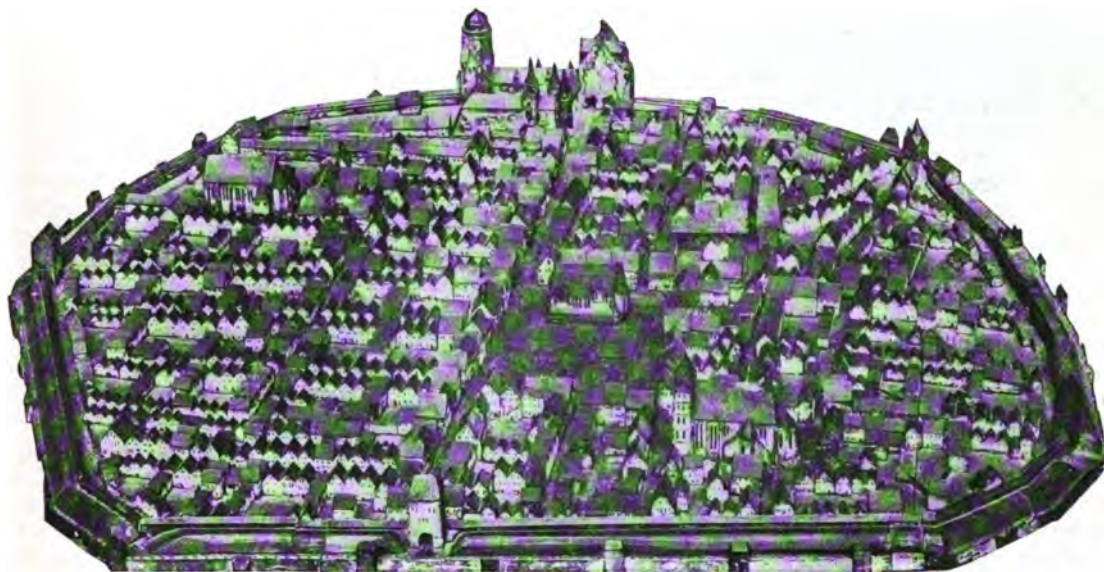
As bearing more particularly upon the principles of laying out towns and supervising building development, Stuttgart will present a large relief map of its entire area showing, among other things, the adaptation of street lines and railways to its irregular topography. Bautzen will show two such maps, one of the old city and the other of the city as now projected. The admirably organized industrial and art town of Düsseldorf will furnish plans illustrating its historical changes in form and area. Dresden will present in miniature "König Johann Strasse" before and after its reconstruction. The town of Hildesheim will set forth its procedure in conserving its charming Middle Age aspect. Fountains, squares, and other decorative elements will be liberally reproduced in model and picture, and in the further interest of beauty as well as

economy, there will be a special exhibit of smoke-consuming devices.

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE EXPOSITION.

The second main division will be supplied by private firms, and will occupy 8,000 square meters of space. It promises to contain a great

characterizes our generation, such a specialized exhibit may seem of slight moment to a distant country. It is doubtful, however, if any other foreign display ever challenged attention more justly from this country. No other leading country is so much in need as our own of the educational influence of such an exposition. In



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF NEW DRESDEN IN 1521. AFTER A WOOD MODEL.

variety of practical appliances, varying from an automatic coal-feeding apparatus for steam-boilers to an electrical adding-machine.

The exposition will be held principally in a permanent building erected five years ago for such purposes, and will also include various popular and purely recreative features.

While only German cities and firms will exhibit, formal invitations have been issued to numerous European cities, and to New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Washington, St. Louis, Milwaukee, and San Francisco, to be represented at the opening ceremonies. Not only should these invitations be appropriately recognized, but American towns should make the most of this important educational event. In comparison with the procession of world's fairs which

no other is the municipal problem so backward or so acute. In no other has the comparative study of municipal activity in general been so much neglected. We are thus challenged to a more enterprising line of practice. Private business firms would never ignore analogous expositions in their special lines, and cities are to-day the greatest of all business organizations.

It would be an excellent move if the cities above mentioned,—to say nothing of others,—could send representatives to this exposition who would bring back discriminating reports for city councils and the general public upon its most valuable features. American mayors, or, in case of their default, city councilors, may well bring this subject up for consideration at once.



THE RIGHT HON. GEORGE WYNDHAM, M.P., CHAMPION OF THE IRISH LAND BILL.

BY W. T. STEAD.

IN 1889, when he was twenty-six years old, Mr. George Wyndham entered Parliament, being elected as Conservative member for Dover, a seat which he has held ever since, and which he seems likely to hold for the rest of his natural life. His first notable speech was a reply to Sir W. Harcourt's criticisms of Mr. Balfour's land bill of 1890. It is a curious coincidence that after the lapse of thirteen years Mr. Wyndham's great opportunity has come in the production of an Irish land bill, and that now, as then, his most formidable antagonist is the burly and aged Knight of Malwood.

He spoke with a certain distinction, but he did not at first catch the ear of the House. His gestures were a trifle too much for the nerves of his hearers. He had to learn restraint, to discipline himself, and to acquire the mastery of the House of Commons manner. He was too much of a fine young gentleman. His enemies sneered at him as a lightweight, a mere *dilettante*, who had better stick to his books and leave politics alone. But those who had worked with him did not think so. He was appointed financial secretary to the war office, and so began his connection with the department which in the dark year of 1900 he was destined to represent in the House of Commons. He had an instinct for figures—which made him sometimes dream of being one day chancellor of the exchequer—and habits of industrious application which enabled him to master with compara-

tive ease the intricate details of our military administration.

In 1892, the Unionist administration having gone stale, it was turned out, much to the satisfaction of Mr. Wyndham and his chief, who were weary of office and longed for the invigorating leisure of opposition. It was in the next three years that Mr. Wyndham came under the spell of Mr. Rhodes. He went to South Africa,

and in his long rides with Mr. Rhodes over the veldt he learned something of the secret of the great African genius. He loved him as a man and he revered him as a leader, and when he returned to England, while some said that he was under the Rhodesian spell, Mr. Wyndham knew that he had found his soul.

Like the rest of us, Mr. Wyndham deplored the Jameson raid; but not even the raid could blot out from his heart the memory of the kindling inspiration which he had gained from Mr. Rhodes. When the South African Committee was appointed nominally to investigate, but really to hush up, the complicity of Mr. Chamberlain in the conspiracy which had



THE RIGHT HON. GEORGE WYNDHAM.

resulted so disastrously, Mr. Wyndham was appointed as the informal representative of the Chartered Company. He was the only member of that historical committee who did not miserably disappoint expectations. Like the rest of his colleagues, he earned the encomium pronounced by Lord George Hamilton for refraining from pushing the inquiry th

moment it threatened to compromise the good name of the government, but, unlike the rest of them, he refused to set his name to the series of falsehoods which they dignified by the name of a report. He did not, it is true, refuse to whitewash Mr. Chamberlain, but he refused to complete the infamy of that operation by blackening the character of Mr. Rhodes.

The return of the Unionists to power did not lead at once to his appointment to office. He devoted his attention to journalism and to letters. He was one of Mr. Henley's young men; he edited North's "*Plutarch*;" he edited a volume of Shakespeare's poems; he wrote articles which were printed and poems which have not yet been exposed to the ordeal of publicity. He took an active part in organizing the campaign in the press in favor of the Outlanders of Johannesburg, which in a few years was destined to culminate in a campaign of another sort. He had married the Countess Grosvenor, widow of the heir to the Dukedom of Westminster, and he took a delight in superintending the early studies of her only son.

He remained a private member till October, 1898, when, on the promotion of Mr. Brodrick from the war office to the foreign office, Mr. Wyndham became under secretary for war and took his seat on the Front Bench. His chief, Lord Lansdowne, was in the Lords, and Mr. Wyndham was the spokesman and official representative of the army in the House of Commons. Thus ended his period of probation.

AT THE WAR OFFICE.

Mr. Wyndham entered the war office when the reputation of the British army stood higher than it had done for many years. Lord Kitchener had just completed the reconquest of the Sudan. A campaign against innumerable difficulties had just been carried to a triumphant close. Khartum had been captured, and as a natural sequel the attempt of the French to bar the Cape to Cairo road by the occupation of Fashoda had been summarily and imperiously foiled. That within two short years the British arms would be covered with unspeakable humiliation, and that it would be necessary to array four hundred thousand British troops in South Africa in order to crush the resistance of seventy thousand Boers, was happily hidden from the eyes of the young minister when with a blithe heart he first took his seat on the Front Ministerial Bench in the House of Commons. The most censorious critic cannot lay upon his shoulders any of the responsibility for the series of misfortunes that culminated in the catastrophe of the Black Week of December, 1899.

Mr. Wyndham began his experience of war before he attained manhood, before smokeless powder and long-range rifles transformed the art of war. He quitted the war office when the lessons of a score of stricken fields in South Africa taught the world that the old-time war, which had lasted from the discovery of gunpowder until our day, was a thing of the past. But although the fashion of war changes, war itself, he has told us, will go on forever. "The conditions of the age-long contention have changed, and will change, but it certainly is coeval with progress; so long as there are things worth fighting for, fighting will last." But war as Mr. Wyndham saw it in 1885 has vanished like the Wars of the Roses.

Mr. Wyndham was quick to realize the change even before it had been made manifest to all the world by the campaigns in South Africa. Almost immediately after his accession to office, he made a speech on the subject, in which he said:

In my opinion, and that of some of our most expert soldiers, these developments in the weapons of war tend rather to a diminution of the sacrifice of life in war. They make the occasion of pitched battles much rarer. If you can force a pitched battle at a distance of eight miles, it leads to more maneuvering, and war becomes more scientific, more like a game of chess, than formerly, and with adequate arrangements and perfect mobility of transport, I feel sure that we shall see the time when a great general will be able to compel his opponents to surrender without a blow being struck rather than accept terms of battle which even a lunatic would not take.

The truth of this passage was much questioned then; but two years had not passed before the surrender of thousands of British troops, almost without firing a shot, from Nicholson's Nek onward, proved how truly the young under secretary had divined the possibilities of warfare under the new conditions.

Mr. Wyndham's work as under secretary was marked by no special display of genius before the war broke out in South Africa. He answered questions pleasantly, he explained the estimates lucidly, and defended the war office gallantly. He acquired more of the style and manner of an official. He kept his gestures under control, he no longer got upon the nerves of the House. It was evident he knew the business of his department, he made no bad mistakes, he was courteous to all men, and grew daily in the favor and the respect of the House of Commons.

It was not, however, till after the war broke out and the prestige of the army had been shattered by an almost uninterrupted series of defeats in South Africa, that Mr. Wyndham's first great opportunity came. When he rose in Feb-

ruary, 1900, in the debate on the address, he had to confront a House smarting with bitter humiliation, angry with five months' almost uninterrupted reverses, and eager to find a scapegoat in the war office. He had indeed a formidable task. The nation was beginning to fathom the depth of official ineptitude, and to appreciate the magnitude of the perils which encompassed the empire. The air was thick with cries of anger, with clamorous alarms, and with confused counsels. The situation was such that it might well have daunted an experienced veteran. Mr. Wyndham met it with such lofty courage, such calm composure, such resolution and perspicacity, as to amaze his friends and confound his enemies. Never had he appeared to such advantage. His speech saved the parliamentary situation.

It is true that it did not save the military situation. No speechmaking could do that. But it convinced the House that the war office must not be made the scapegoat,—at least, not just then. He had a bad case, no doubt. He had to defend a system which had been proved to be indefensible, and to make the best of the makeshift policy of meeting emergency by expediency. He could do nothing else. He was not the chief of his department. He was not even a member of the cabinet. What was given him to do was to make the best of a bad case,—how bad even its worst critics but dimly perceived at the time. And he did his best with a whole heart, and did it in such fashion as to disarm opposition and tide his colleagues over a most perilous crisis. From that time, Mr. Wyndham was recognized as one of the most promising of the future rulers of the empire.

His health broke down, and he returned from a sick-bed in March to move the army estimates. The work which the war threw upon the under secretary was enormous. But there is great resilience in his constitution, and he stuck to his post like a man until after the fall of Pretoria. Then, when the war was believed to be approaching its end, Mr. Wyndham was rewarded by being transferred from the under secretaryship of war to the chief secretaryship of Ireland, with a seat in the cabinet.

CHIEF SECRETARY FOR IRELAND.

When Mr. Wyndham found himself once again at Dublin Castle, he felt that he was returning to his first love. Mr. Wyndham possesses one excellent qualification for the task of conciliating the Irish. He is descended, on the female side, in direct line of descent from one of the most famous of the martyrs who sacrificed their lives in the cause of Irish independence. Lord

Edward Fitzgerald, who died in prison from wounds received in resisting capture, was the great-grandfather of the present chief secretary. Pamela, Lord Edward's daughter, was a kind of glorified Maud Gonne of her day, who made her house at Hamburg the rallying-place of exiled patriots. She married the first Lord Leconfield, whose daughter is Mr. Wyndham's mother. Besides this Irish blood, there is a French strain in his blood, which still further sets him apart from the "snub-nosed Saxons" in whose name he is governing Ireland.

On his appointment as chief secretary, he found the country stirring with the throes of a great national revival. Government and people alike, although in very widely different channels, were awaking to a sense of the immense possibilities of the salvation which they had hitherto neglected. Mr. Horace Plunkett and the Agricultural Department had begun to discover that the genius of the Celtic race disposed the Irish to take kindly to that coöperative organization of agriculture which is alien to the stubborn individualism of the English farmer. And side by-side with this, outdoing the official world in its zeal, was the great Celtic revival among the people—one of the most remarkable, unexpected, and promising of all the national movements of our time.

On his administration in Ireland, there is not much need to dwell. He began with a bad little blunder in seizing a paper which had thrown mud at "Ned Rex," as the profane Irish-Americans call His Gracious Majesty Edward VII., and he did not exactly endear himself to the Irish by his treatment of Sheridan, or by his revival of the Crimes Act for the purpose of giving a few representatives of a crimeless land the privilege of a sojourn in prison. On the other hand, he introduced an abortive but well-meant land bill, and appointed a first-class under secretary in the person of Sir Antony McDonnell. There is no need to dwell upon these details of an administration which will be judged, not by what it did in 1901–02, but by what it is trying to do in 1903–04.

Mr. Wyndham has frequently defined the principles of his Irish policy. They begin by a sonorous affirmation of the Unionist shibboleth in terms which, while seemingly uncompromising, might be accepted by every Home Ruler in the land:

These two islands, by the inflexible ordinances of geography, of history, of finance, are bound, and must ever be bound, together by ties even closer than those which bind our colonies to the mother country.

"Even closer" is an elastic phrase, but if they are to be of the same kind of ties, then

Mr. Wyndham's definition is equivalent to the formula of colonial home rule, with a difference to which no Gladstonian would take exception.

Mr. Wyndham has thus defined the two great objects of Unionist government in Ireland in terms to which Mr. Gladstone would have taken little exception, save in the order in which they are stated. Mr. Wyndham said :

The first of these objects is the suppression of agrarian crime, of intimidation, and the protection of liberty. That is a matter of immediate, of urgent, of constant obligation.

Mr. Gladstone would have put the protection and development of liberty first. But that is a detail, for in no way can agrarian crime be so effectively suppressed as by the removal of its causes, as Mr. Wyndham has at last discovered. There is no difference between the Gladstonian and Mr. Wyndham as to his second avowed object, the enlarging of the opportunities for the Irish people. The improvement of means of communication, of industrial processes, of fisheries ; the opening up of the west coast, with its sea fisheries, now crippled by the lack of safe harbors and transit facilities ; the encouragement of thrift, economic organization, and self-help by the establishment of agricultural banks and coöperative societies. All these are as much the objects of the Nationalists as of Mr. Wyndham's Unionists.

The essential point is that Mr. Wyndham is now baptized with the spirit of the Irish revival. He believes in Ireland. He loves the Irish people. To his quick and sympathetic nature, the witty and mercurial Celt is much more sympathetic than the more stodgy Englishman. Ireland, like the fair damosel in Spenser's poem, has a singular fascination for the Sir Calidores and Sir Artegalds who stray within range of the magic of her charms. Mr. Arthur Balfour has never cared, and does not now care, for anything so much as for Ireland and the Irish. And as it was with the master so it is with his secretary. The new land bill is but the first of the great measures of reconstruction and reconciliation by which the great-grandson of Sir E. Fitzgerald hopes to realize, and more than realize, the generous aspirations of his ancestor. After the land question comes education, and after that, again, the vital question of the industrial revolution which will make Ireland the great *entrepôt* of the world's commerce. Mr. Bourke Cockran sees in the splendid harbors of the west coast and the ever-increasing size of Atlantic ferry-boats a combination pointing irresistibly to the conclusion that Ireland will succeed England, as Carthage succeeded Tyre, in the leadership of

the world's markets. Mr. Wyndham largely shares Mr. Cochrane's belief, and is already scheming to prepare for the advent of the new day when Ireland will be the landing-stage and central clearing house of the commerce of the Old World and the New, the prosperous and flourishing middleman between Uncle Sam and John Bull.

Mr. Wyndham's speech in explaining the provisions of the new land bill was lucid, interesting, and worthy the occasion and the theme. Never before has an Irish land bill,—and there have been forty-two,—been hailed with such a chorus of approval. Whether the same good fortune will attend it in its future stages remains to be seen. But for the moment, all appears serene.

The question of questions as to the immediate future is whether, if the land bill passes, Mr. Wyndham will have the courage to go forward and add a further extension of local self-government to the other schemes which he is incubating for the benefit of Ireland. That something will have to be done, nobody knows better than Mr. Wyndham himself. We have governed Ireland in the past by the landlord garrison. The antagonistic interests of the two classes enabled us to act on the classic maxim, "*Divide et impera*." The aim of his bill is to terminate that division. If it succeeds, we shall be confronted, for the first time in the history of Ireland, by a united nation. The younger occupants of the old castles and country-houses in Ireland will take their natural position as leaders of the people, with whom their interests will be identical. In vain shall we try to keep the new wine of united and revived Nationalism in the shrunken bottle of Castle government. Irish autonomy, in one form or another, is the necessary and inevitable corollary of the last legislative exploit of the Unionist government.

Mr. Wyndham is not yet forty years of age. With the exception of Lord Rosebery, no young man has risen so rapidly in our time to the front rank, or has such a good chance of becoming prime minister. Between the two men there are many points of contact and many points of contrast. Both are aristocrats by birth and democrats by temperament ; both have had extraordinary good luck ; both are Rhodesians ; both are men of letters ; both are persons of singular charm. But there the resemblance ends. Mr. Wyndham had the good fortune of having to bear the yoke in his youth ; Lord Rosebery was "lord of himself—that heritage of woe." Mr. Wyndham is in the House of Commons ; Lord Rosebery in the House of Lords. Mr. Wyndham has never had any municipal training ;

Lord Rosebery's chairmanship of the County Council was one of the most brilliant episodes in his distinguished career. Mr. Wyndham is passionately devoted to Ireland and the Irish; Lord Rosebery is singularly antipathetic to the Irish genius. Mr. Wyndham—but why continue the parallel? The greatest point of contrast is in their temperament. Mr. Wyndham is of a happy disposition, absorbed in his subject, forgetful of himself, genial, expansive, sympathetic, and quick to share his ideas, his aspirations, and his fears with his intimates. Lord Rosebery is morbidly self-conscious, reserved almost to the verge of secretiveness, incapable of frank and generous confidence, and, although he has many followers, how many are there who could by any stretch of language be described as his intimates? You always know where you have Mr. Wyndham; you never know where you have Lord Rosebery.

As a speaker, Mr. Wyndham is felicitous in his phrases. His description of the Liberal opposition as a "piebald party with a patchwork programme" was as happy a taunt as any coined in recent years. He is not afraid of letting himself go. He does not forswear purple pages in his oratory, and he conveys to his hearers that pleasant sense of enjoying his own speeches. Mr. Wyndham, as his speech at the Rodin banquet showed, can be as eloquent in French as in English.

He is a human creature, who is true to his friends, adored by his wife, and incapable of playing foul in politics or in anything else. When the obligations of friendship imposed upon him the duty of bearing witness for a Liberal friend, to the detriment of the pocket of a Conservative M.P., he never hesitated. Friendship, with him, is superior to party.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

BY PROFESSOR FREDERICK J. TURNER.

IT is just a century ago that Livingston, Monroe, and Marbois signed the treaty by which France ceded Louisiana to the United States. The actual signing occurred on May 2, but the document was antedated to April 30. This event in the history of the United States, "worthy to rank with the Declaration of Independence and the formation of the Constitution," was the resultant of three long-continued forces in American history,—the advance of the pioneers toward the West, the diplomatic struggle between France, Spain, England, and the United States for the possession of the Mississippi Valley, and the rivalry of these powers over the disintegrating empire which Spain had reared in the New World. When we consider the magnitude and sweep of the advance of American settlement, it is easy to believe that whatever nations might temporarily secure the Mississippi River, in the long run the vast interior would be under the Government of the American people. Nevertheless, this cannot be affirmed with any certainty, and several times within the period from the adoption of the Constitution to the purchase of Louisiana the Mississippi Valley narrowly escaped being the theater of conflict between the powers of Europe. Into such a conflict, the United States would have been drawn as the ally of one or

other of these powers, and thus European interests would have dominated the fortunes of the New World.

In view of the fact that at the beginning of the Union the West was more interested in opening the Mississippi River as a means of exit for its crops than in the newly made federal government, it cannot safely be said that any strong European power which might have taken possession of the Mississippi Valley could not have held it, provided that it treated the Western settlers with liberality. The contest for Louisiana was in reality a contest for the whole Mississippi Valley and for ascendancy in the Western Hemisphere.

FRANCE, SPAIN, AND THE MISSISSIPPI.

Thus, from the point of view of world politics, the forty years which elapsed between the withdrawal of France from America in 1763 and the cession of Louisiana in 1803 were fraught with momentous issues. They may briefly be stated as follows: The family compact which bound France and Spain together had been strengthened by the cession of Louisiana to Spain in 1763, a cession which partly reconciled Spain to the loss of Florida to England. When the Americans declared their independence, France allied herself with them and procured the assistance of

Spain; but it was not to aggrandize the United States,—it was rather to humiliate England and to take her place as the controlling power over the United States. Nothing was further from the desire of France than to raise this country into a dangerous rivalry with Spain for the possession of the New World, and she therefore supported the demands of Spain at the close of the Revolution. These demands would have restrained the United States to the Alleghany Mountains, except where the frontier settlers had recently established themselves in Kentucky and Tennessee. Spain desired to exercise a protectorate over all the Indians of the Gulf region, and to exclude the United States from the Mississippi. But the American commissioners broke the instructions which required them to be guided by the advice of France, and made a separate preliminary treaty with England, in which that power, as a means of reconciliation, granted our demands to a boundary on the Great Lakes, the Mississippi, the thirty-first degree, and the St. Marys River. She also gave to us the navigation of the Mississippi. Although this treaty was accepted by France, Spain repudiated the right of England to yield to us territory of which she herself was in military possession; and as the actual possessor of Florida and Louisiana, she refused to open to us the navigation of the Mississippi, believing that it was the key to her monopoly of Spanish America. Even England herself pleaded violations of the treaty on our part, and refused to evacuate the territory between the Ohio, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi.

WESTERN SETTLEMENTS AFTER THE REVOLUTION.

Thus, at the close of the Revolution, the United States had thrust a wedge of settlement along the Ohio and its tributaries between two great Indian confederacies on the north and on the south, each of which was dominated by rival European nations, anxious to check the advance of the United States. She found herself thus threatened on each flank at a time when her own loose confederation seemed about to break asunder. She was unable to chastise the Indians, to protect the Western settlers, or to secure our claims to the navigation of the Mississippi. Such a situation was intolerable to the "men of the Western Waters." Without the freedom of that river, their corn and tobacco must rot in the fields. The great stream of American settlement that poured into Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio in the closing years of the Confederation grew turbulent as it found its industrial life dammed up by the Spanish closure of the Mississippi. Under the temptation of this situation,

at the close of the Confederation, England supported the Indians in their resistance to the advance of the Americans across the Ohio, and planned to promote the independence of the American settlements beyond the Alleghanies, with a view of making them her dependent allies. At the same time, she laid plans for the recovery of Florida. In the Southwest, Spain developed a similar policy. She strengthened her hold upon the Indians, intrigued with the leading settlers of Kentucky and Tennessee, with the view to inducing those communities to transfer their allegiance from the United States to Spain, and as a means of pressure, she refused the navigation of the river. The Western settlers themselves were strongly inclined to believe that their democratic agricultural society had a destiny separate from the merchants and planters on the other side of the Alleghanies.

ENGLAND'S ATTITUDE TOWARD SPAIN.

Although the establishment of the new government checked these intrigues, the French Revolution, which broke out contemporaneously with Washington's Presidency, raised an even more serious danger. One of its more important results was to end the family compact which had bound Spain and France for so many years. In 1790, England and Spain were about to go to war over the question of the seizure of some English vessels by Spain in Nootka Sound. Obviously, such a war would give to England an opportunity to supersede Spain in the control of the Mississippi, to win the support of the Western settlers by the offer of free navigation, and to organize a revolt of Spanish America. This would break the Spanish monopoly and open that immense region to her commerce. In February, 1790, William Pitt had an interview with Miranda, the celebrated Venezuelan revolutionist, who proposed that England should bring about the formation of an independent Spanish America which should include in one confederation all of South America except Brazil and Guiana, together with Central America, Mexico, Cuba, and Louisiana. England's support was expected because she would be the protector of this new nation, and Florida was apparently to be added to her possessions.

Preparations were actually made by Pitt to seize New Orleans, and an expedition from that city into Mexico was also considered. Thomas Jefferson, who had recently been appointed Secretary of State, saw clearly the danger to the future of the United States. Alarmed by the prospect of England's possession of Canada, Louisiana, and Florida, he wrote: "Embraced from the St. Croix to the St. Marys on one side

by their possessions, on the other by their fleet, we need not hesitate to say that they would soon find means to unite to them all the territory covered by the ramifications of the Mississippi." He therefore instructed our representative to point out to Spain that her best policy would be to cede Florida to us and to yield the navigation of the Mississippi, on the condition that we should guarantee her territory west of that river. Washington's cabinet was not ready to advise him to prevent England's expected expedition by arms, but their deliberations showed a keen realization of the importance to us of the possession of New Orleans. Fortunately, the question was not brought to a crisis, because France declined to recognize the family compact, and in her isolation, Spain was obliged to make terms of peace.

FRENCH DESIGNS ON LOUISIANA AND FLORIDA.

By the close of 1792, France, influenced by Miranda, had determined to enrich herself at the expense of the Spanish empire in America and to win back her own American provinces. Therefore, in the beginning of 1793, the French Government sent Genet as minister to the United States, with instructions to secure a treaty of alliance which should have among its objects the freeing of Louisiana and Florida and the conquest of Canada. If, however, the United States were not willing to make common cause with France, Genet was instructed to stir up a revolution in Louisiana and the other provinces adjoining the United States. In this, he was informed, he would probably be able to secure assistance from the frontiersmen of Kentucky. Finding Washington firm in his policy of neutrality, Genet initiated the secret and revolutionary part of his instructions. Through the consul at Charleston, he formed an army of Carolinians and Georgians designed to capture the Floridas, and he authorized the famous Gen. George Rogers Clark, of Kentucky, to form an army there which was to descend the Mississippi under the French flag and capture New Orleans. It was expected that by the spring of 1794 at least four thousand frontiersmen would strike simultaneously against the Spanish power on the Gulf of Mexico.

Fortunately for the future of the Mississippi Valley, the Reign of Terror compelled France to look to her safety at home and to leave these vast designs of revolutionizing Spanish America to one side. Acting upon the representations of the American Government, Genet was superseded, and his successor arrived barely in time to put a stop to the march of the frontiersmen. It is hardly too much to say, however, that but

for the cold neutrality of Washington, the West, under the banners of France, might have been hurried into a crusade against Spanish America that would have changed the whole current of the history of the United States.

FRANCE SCHEMES TO GET SPANISH TERRITORY.

The year 1795 marked a turning-point in the history of the struggle for the Mississippi. Jay's treaty put an end to England's influence over the Indians north of the Ohio, and freed the northern flank of the United States from the pressure of a foreign power. At the same time, Spain, realizing her weakness in the Southwest, and apprehending that Jay's treaty might mean a joint attack by England and the United States, yielded our boundaries and free navigation.

This relinquishment of Spanish claims to the eastern bank of the Mississippi was a serious menace to the plans of France. She had vainly demanded Louisiana for herself in the treaty of Basle, which closed her war with Spain in 1795. After Jay's treaty was ratified, she realized that there was but slight hope of winning the United States to the French alliance, and it became her policy to dominate the foreign affairs of Spain and to acquire large sections of American territory. In 1796, therefore, France instructed her minister to Spain to ask the relinquishment of Louisiana and the Floridas to France, as a means of protecting the rest of Spanish America. "We alone," wrote the Directors, "can trace with strong hands the bounds for the power of the United States and the limits for their territory."

In the same year, expecting a war with the United States, France sent into the interior of this country an engineer officer, General Collot, who made a careful map of the courses of the Ohio and the Mississippi, and examined the strategic conditions of the valley. So clearly did he realize the hold of the Westerners upon the river, that he desired to prepare the way for a secession of the West and the creation of a French empire with its eastern frontier along the Alleghany Mountains. He elaborated a scheme for a series of forts to command the passes of the Alleghanies, to protect the Great Valley from the attacks of the eastern part of the United States. At this time, France induced Spain to continue to hold possession of the posts on the east bank of the Mississippi River, under the expectation of a possible attack by England and the United States.

ANGLO-AMERICAN PLOT AGAINST NEW ORLEANS.

In fact, the apprehensions felt by Spain and France in this respect were not without foundation. Already plans were being laid by Senator

Blount, of Tennessee, to rally the frontier for a descent of the Mississippi River and the capture of New Orleans for Great Britain, with the hope of assistance by a naval force from that country. The plot was discovered, and Blount was expelled from his seat in the Senate; but this enterprise furnished the Spaniards with sufficient excuses for delaying the relinquishment of the promised posts, until at last, in 1798, Godoy, the prime minister, gave an order for their evacuation. France found him unwilling to play the part of a tool for her ambitious designs, and shortly after his order of evacuation, she brought about his fall.

TALLEYRAND'S PROPOSITION TO SPAIN.

In the relations between France and the United States, matters had gone from bad to worse. In 1798, France proposed to Spain that the Papal Legations, together with the Duchy of Parma, should be made a principality for the son-in-law of the King of Spain, in case Louisiana should be relinquished to France. In a memoir to the Institute, Talleyrand laid down his ideas on the subject of the acquisition of Louisiana and Florida. By such a revival of her colonial policy, he believed that Spanish America could be protected and that the French revolutionary energies would be diverted to a new channel of activity. Vast territories would be opened for the colonization of agitators and malcontents in all the parties, and France would find in Louisiana the granary for her important colonial possessions in the West Indies. Acting on these principles, Talleyrand again urged upon Spain the relinquishment of Louisiana and Florida, promising to make them "a wall of brass forever impenetrable to the combined efforts of England and America."

PROPOSED ALLIANCE OF THE UNITED STATES AND ENGLAND AGAINST FRANCE.

But England and America were now thoroughly aroused to the menace that the growing military greatness of France imposed, and under the Federal party, a closer connection was being established between the two powers. The revelations of the "X. Y. Z. correspondence," showing the insulting demands of the French Government, brought about such a heated condition of the public mind that in 1798 Congress authorized the capture of French vessels, and during 1798 and 1799 actual hostilities existed upon the sea. The aged Washington was made commander-in-chief of the army, and Hamilton was second in command.

Apprehending that the increasing influence of France over Spain after the fall of Godoy might

result in transferring the colonial possessions of Spain to the strong French nation, William Pitt, who then guided England's policy, again took up the question of extending British influence in Spanish America. At the beginning of 1798, Miranda, keen of scent for every opportunity to advance the cause of Spanish American revolution, came to him with renewed proposals for English intervention. For the assistance of the revolting Spanish colonies, England was asked to furnish an army and a fleet; of the United States was to be requested the coöperation of five thousand backwoodsmen, familiar with new countries, and officered by veterans of the American Revolution. By February of 1798, Pitt had determined that unless Spain seemed likely to be able to save herself from a revolution and from the resultant domination of France, England would propose some such combined operation with the United States to free Spanish America. Miranda's proposition was transmitted by our minister, Mr. King, to Hamilton, who gave his approval to the undertaking, but preferred that the principal part should fall to the United States, and that we should furnish the whole land force. "In this case," he said, "the command would very naturally fall upon me."

The restless genius of Alexander Hamilton saw in the proposed expedition the chance to become the Washington of Spanish America, and to bring about a renewed intimacy between the United States and England. If Adams could be succeeded in the Presidential chair by a victorious general with the power of a great army behind him, stability of government, threatened, as he believed, by the Republicans, would be insured. Moreover, Hamilton looked forward to the creation of an American system in which the United States should have the ascendance, able to dictate the terms of the connection between the Old and the New World. Fortunately, perhaps, for the future of the United States, the Presidential chair was again occupied by a man of cool judgment. John Adams declined to take part in this undertaking, and by a new commission to France, in 1800, he procured a termination of the hostilities between us and that country.

NAPOLEON GETS BACK LOUISIANA FROM SPAIN.

There now appeared upon the scene the tremendous figure of Napoleon. Napoleon's mind worked with such momentum, his action was so decisive, that the acquisition of Louisiana, upon which he determined, moved rapidly forward. On the last day of September, 1800, he made a treaty with the United States, and on

the next day Spain retroceded Louisiana to France. Napoleon gave Spain a promise never to alienate the province, and he pressed her to and the Floridas to his empire. Peace was projected with England by the preliminary treaty of October, 1801, and this being effected, Napoleon ordered an expedition to occupy San Domingo, then the most profitable possession of France in the West Indies. Louisiana was intended to be a feeder for San Domingo; but before Louisiana could be occupied, Napoleon found it necessary to crush the revolutionary negro republic in that island under Toussaint L'Ouverture, and this engaged the attention of his army of occupation.

JEFFERSON LOOKS TO AN ENGLISH ALLIANCE.

Rumors of the transfer of Louisiana reached the United States in the early summer of 1801, but the Government did not at once take alarm. When, however, toward the close of the year, President Jefferson received an official copy of the treaty from our minister in England, and at the same time was informed by our representative at Paris that France denied that a cession had been made, he became concerned, and in the spring of 1802 he wrote to Livingston, our minister to France, that "the day that France takes possession of New Orleans fixes the sentence which is to restrain her forever within her low-water mark. It seals the union of two nations who in conjunction can maintain exclusive possession of the ocean. From that moment, we must marry ourselves to the British fleet and nation." It was his policy, however, to wait until the next war between France and England should give to the United States an opportunity to make common cause with England in order to secure our demands. What was desired by Jefferson was the cession of New Orleans, or at least West Florida, as a means of insuring free transit down the Mississippi. In the rest of the territory beyond the Mississippi, he had less immediate interest. Had Napoleon been able promptly to throw a large army of trained veterans into New Orleans, it is more than doubtful whether Jefferson would have resisted this occupation. With Napoleon's army once there, the whole future of the Mississippi Valley would have been in question.

NAPOLÉON'S DREAMS OF COLONIAL EMPIRE.

But France was not able to occupy New Orleans at once. Her armies in San Domingo were swept away by war and pestilence, and the expedition that had been intended to sail for New Orleans at the end of September, 1802, was unable to depart. What the intentions of

France were with respect to Louisiana are shown in the instructions which were drawn for the general who was to command the forces of occupation. These instructions show that if France had occupied Louisiana, she would have attempted so to strengthen her forts along the river that the province could stand by itself. The Governor of Louisiana was also to maintain agents among our Western settlers, with a view of coming into relation with the prominent men, and by alliances with the Indians within our Southwestern region, he was to protect the province against the advance of the Americans. In short, these instructions lead clearly to the conviction that France was determined to take up the policy of Spain, with a view of securing the controlling power on both sides of the Mississippi. It was not simply Louisiana that Napoleon desired to rule, but the interior of the United States, and all the approaches to the Gulf of Mexico,—a great colonial empire that should replace the Spanish power, which at that very time was falling under his control.

JEFFERSON SENDS MONROE TO PURCHASE NEW ORLEANS.

The closure of the Mississippi by the Spanish intendant at this time stirred the West to its depths, and gave the Federalists their opportunity to demand war with France and Spain. Although Jefferson made earnest efforts to allay the military spirit, he found it necessary to take some decisive action, and he therefore sent Monroe on a special mission to secure our interests. Monroe's instructions of March 2, 1803, contained three alternatives. He was to try to purchase New Orleans and the Floridas, and, if necessary, he might guarantee to France her territory beyond the Mississippi. If, however, France declined to cede New Orleans, an effort was to be made to secure space enough for a large commercial town on the Mississippi as little remote from the mouth of the river as might be, together with provision for the complete right of deposit. It would appear from these instructions that Jefferson would have been willing to accept merely the right of navigation rather than make the Louisiana Purchase an immediate cause of war. "Peace is our passion," was his maxim, and his policy rested upon the hope of filling the Mississippi Valley with so strong an American population that when the time was ripe, by alliance with England, at some time when England and France might be at war, the United States would be able to procure additional establishments on the Gulf of Mexico. Only in case France compelled hostilities by closing the Mississippi was he ready

at the present juncture to ask an alliance with England.

NAPOLEON GIVES UP ONE EMPIRE ON THE CHANCE
OF WINNING ANOTHER.

In the meantime, Napoleon had determined to reopen the war with England, and while Monroe was still upon the ocean, he unfolded to his ministers, Talleyrand and Marbois, his inclination to relinquish Louisiana. To have held it against the advance of the American settlement would have been a task likely to meet the fate that Napoleon's Continental system met when he tried to dam up the great current of European commerce. The belief that combined action by England and the United States would make it impossible for him to occupy New Orleans was an essential factor in the case. The war already determined upon with England would, he believed, result in the loss of Louisiana. On the other hand, by cementing the friendship of the United States by the sale of the province, he would deprive England of a probable ally and enrich his treasury with funds for his approaching operations. The vision of a great colonial empire in America gave place in his mind to new European projects. After all, his genius was suited rather to land power than to sea power, and colonial empire rests upon a great navy. Whatever the considerations by which he was swayed, there can be no doubt that it was due to the impetuous determination of this Titan of the revolutionary era that Louisiana and the preponderance in the Western Hemisphere passed to the United States without a struggle.

THE WHOLE TERRITORY FOR \$15,000,000.

While Livingston was bargaining for a little strip of territory at the mouth of the river, Talleyrand asked him what he would give for all of Louisiana. Few Americans at that day could have realized the importance of the vast wheat and corn lands, cattle fields, and mines which Napoleon was ready to cast into our hands. Certainly, Livingston had no adequate impression of the importance of this wilderness. He demurred at the idea, and denied our interest in the trans-Mississippi country. A week passed in discussion over the price to be paid,—a week not without peril to the interests of the United States, for Napoleon's brothers attempted to dissuade him from the reckless violation of the French constitution and the interests of the republic involved in his arbitrary cession of Louisiana. Fortunately for us, however, Napoleon had determined to be the dictator of France, and for a consideration of \$15,-

000,000, Louisiana was secured to the United States.

RESULTS OF THE PURCHASE—CONSTITUTIONAL
AND POLITICAL.

The effects of the Louisiana Purchase upon America were profound. Politically, it resulted in strengthening the loose interpretation of the Constitution. Thomas Jefferson was the author of the Kentucky Resolutions, which affirmed the most stringent doctrine on the subject of State rights and strict construction. Even at this time, Jefferson believed that the treaty of annexation was constitutionally unwarranted. He believed that to carry out the terms of the treaty would be to "make blank paper of the Constitution by construction," and desired a constitutional amendment to validate his action; but to delay was to put the whole acquisition to hazard. His friends among the strictest of the State rights sect argued that the acquisition and incorporation of the territory was constitutional. Practical statesman that he was, he withdrew his doctrinaire ideas in the presence of the splendid opportunities which this acquisition furnished for promoting peace in North America and furnishing the broad foundation of a great democracy. He regarded the case as an exceptional one, and believed that the good sense of the country would correct the evil of construction when it produced ill effects. Nevertheless, this was a practical surrender to the doctrine that popular acquiescence might take the place of constitutional amendment even in such an important matter as doubling the area of the Union and changing the whole physiographic basis of the nation. This broad interpretation of the treaty-making power by the strict constructionist and State rights party itself paved the way for an imperial expansion of the United States. Not only that,—it laid the foundations for a readjustment of sectional power within the Union.

The treaty provided that the inhabitants of Louisiana should be incorporated into the Union and admitted as soon as possible, according to the principles of the federal Constitution, to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States. Louisiana was not to be permanently governed as a colonial dependency by a partnership of sovereign States, but the partnership itself was to be enlarged by the action of the President and twenty-six members of the Senate. New England leaders set up the doctrine that the assent of each individual State was needed to admit a new partner. Against an arrangement which would ultimately swamp New England by the votes of representatives

from the West and the South, they made vehement protest, and some even began to consider secession. The importance of the issue thus raised as to whether the new acquisition was to be ruled as an imperial possession or to be absorbed into the Union and thereby overturn the old balance of sections and destroy the safeguards of State sovereignty can hardly be overestimated. The question arose in still another form. By the terms of the treaty, special privileges were extended to vessels of France and Spain in the port of New Orleans. But the Constitution of the United States required that all duties should be uniform throughout the United States. The answer of Jefferson's supporters to the charge that a preference had been given to the ports of one State over those of another was that Louisiana was "territory purchased by the United States in their federate capacity, and may be disposed of by them at pleasure. It is in the nature of a colony whose commerce may be regulated without any reference to the Constitution." The significance of this argument has been illustrated within the last few years by the discussion of the relation of our new Spanish-American possessions to the United States. When the whole sweep of American history and the present tendencies of our life are taken into view, it would be possible to argue that the doctrines of the Louisiana Purchase were farther-reaching in their effect upon the Constitution than even the measures of Alexander Hamilton or the decisions of John Marshall.

Not only did the Louisiana Purchase work a revolution in the constitutional doctrines of the strict constructionists,—it also made certain a change in the conception of Statehood. A glance at the parallelograms beyond the Mississippi to which the names of States are given is sufficient to show the artificial character of the new sisterhood thus made possible by the acquisition of Louisiana. The old idea of Statehood could no longer exist when the fruit of the Louisiana Purchase was made manifest.

In other ways, the Louisiana Purchase profoundly affected American politics. The area of the Louisiana Purchase furnished the issues which resulted in our Civil War. Merely to name the important steps in the history of the slavery conflict is to show the truth of this assertion. The Missouri Compromise, the Kansas and Nebraska Act, and the civil war in Kansas were the prelude to the Civil War. It was in truth a struggle between the rival institutions and political ideals of the North and the South

for the domination of the vast territory beyond the Mississippi. Rival civilizations projected themselves across the river and struggled for ascendancy in a region where nature herself had decreed unity of institutions.

PREDOMINANCE OF THE UNITED STATES IN THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE.

The international effects of the Louisiana Purchase were even more significant than its political effect. From it dates the end of the struggle for the possession of the Mississippi Valley and the beginning of the transfer of the ascendancy in both Americas to the United States. Even the English veterans of the Napoleonic battles were unable to wrest New Orleans from Andrew Jackson in the War of 1812. The acquisition of Florida, Texas, California, and the possessions won by the United States in the recent Spanish-American War are in a sense the corollaries of this great event. France, England, and Spain, removed from the strategic points on our border, were prevented from occupying the controlling position in determining the destiny of the American provinces which so soon revolted from the empire of Spain. The Monroe Doctrine would not have been possible except for the Louisiana Purchase. It was the logical outcome of that acquisition. Having taken her decisive stride across the Mississippi, the United States enlarged the horizon of her views and marched steadily forward to the possession of the Pacific Ocean. From this event dates the rise of the United States into the position of a world power.

The Louisiana Purchase nearly doubled the area of the United States. It added territory equal to the combined area of Great Britain, Germany, France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy. Into this region have poured the descendants of the Americans of that day and a great tide of immigrants, until its population now numbers fifteen million souls. The wheat and corn and oats alone of this region have a value of over three hundred and forty-five million dollars annually. The land which Napoleon wished to be the granary of San Domingo is the granary of Europe. Perhaps most fundamental of all in its effects is the emphasis which the Louisiana Purchase gave to the conception of space in American ideals. The immensity of the area thus opened to exploitation has continually stirred the Americans' imagination, fired their energy and determination, strengthened their ability to handle vast designs, and made them measure their achievements by the scale of the prairies and the Rocky Mountains.

A FORECAST OF GREAT GATHERINGS.

CELEBRATIONS AND ANNIVERSARIES.

THE year 1903 is to be signalized by several important centennial celebrations. Next to the Louisiana Purchase itself, to be commemorated by the great exposition at St. Louis, next year, as well as by a celebration at New Orleans on December 20, next, the most noteworthy anniversary in American history associated with the present year is that of the admission of Ohio into the Union. The centennial anniversary of that event will be celebrated at Chillicothe, the first capital of the State, on May 20-21. The following programme of speakers and subjects is announced: "The Northwest Territory," Judge Judson Harmon, "Date of the Organization of Ohio and the Great Seal of the State," Judge Rush R. Sloane, Sandusky; "Settlement at Marietta," Prof. Martin R. Andrews, Marietta; "Ohio Country in the American Revolution," Hon. E. O. Randall, Columbus; "Ohio in the United States Senate," Hon. Joseph B. Foraker, Cincinnati; "Ohio in the House of Representatives," Hon. C. H. Grosvenor, Athens; "Governors of Ohio Under the First Constitution," Hon. D. M. Massie, Chillicothe; "Governors of Ohio Under the Second Constitution," Hon. James E. Campbell, New York; "Military History of Ohio, Including the War of 1812," Gen. T. H. Anderson, Sandusky; "Military History of Ohio from the War of 1812 and Including the Civil and Spanish-American Wars," Gen. J. Warren Keifer, Springfield; "The Judiciary of Ohio," Judge Moses M. Granger, Zanesville; "Public Schools of Ohio," Hon. L. D. Bonebrake, Columbus; "The University of Ohio," President W. O. Thompson, Ohio State University, Columbus; "Ohio in the Navy," Hon. Murat Halstead, Cincinnati; "The Ethnological History of Ohio," Gen. B. R. Cowen, Cincinnati; "The Press of Ohio," S. S. Knabenshue, Toledo; "Religious Influences in Ohio," Bishop C. C. McCabe, Omaha, Neb.; "Ohio Literary Men and Women," W. H. Venable, Cincinnati; "The Part Taken by Women in the History of Ohio," Mrs. J. R. Hopley, Bucyrus; "Industrial Development of Ohio," Marcus A. Hanna, Cleveland.

While Ohio and the Louisiana Purchase States are celebrating centennials, the far more ancient

city of New York, calm in its sense of antiquity, is quietly preparing to mark the two-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of its civic life in an appropriate manner on May 26. On that day, a meeting of the aldermen and all the officials of the city will be held in the City Hall. Mayor Low will preside, and an historical address will be made by Gen. James Grant Wilson. Patriotic exercises will be held in the public schools, and at night, stereopticon pictures of historical events will be shown in the public squares of the city.

One other anniversary occasion, also occurring in the month of May, should be noted here,—the centenary of Emerson's birth, which will be celebrated on May 25. Emerson societies and similar associations in all parts of the country will mark this date by appropriate exercises, the most interesting of which will probably be those at Emerson's home town, Concord, Mass. On the preceding evening, Sunday, May 24, there will be a memorial service in Symphony Hall, Boston, which will be addressed by President Eliot, and at which a poem will be read by Prof. George E. Woodberry. At Concord, on the following day, addresses will be delivered by Senator Hoar, Colonel Higginson, Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, and others. The Free Religious Association, of which Emerson was one of the founders, will devote the principal session of its annual convention, in May, to the subject of Emerson's religious influence. This association is also arranging for an Emerson memorial school, or conference, for three weeks, beginning on July 13. The morning sessions of the school will be held at Concord, and the evening sessions in Boston. In the thirty lectures to be delivered at this conference, the various aspects of Emerson's work and influence will be considered.

FOREIGN EXPOSITIONS AND CONGRESSES.

Pending the opening of the St. Louis World's Fair, a year hence, no industrial exposition of more than local significance will be held anywhere in the United States. In foreign countries, several interesting expositions are now open, and any of these will doubtless well repay the American traveler who chances, during the coming months, to go slightly out of his way for the purpose of visiting them. First among these in novelty, if not in intrinsic importance, is the great national industrial exhibition of

Japan at Osaka. Osaka is a populous city twenty miles by rail from Kobé and nearly the same distance from Kioto. On the exposition grounds, buildings have been erected to represent the following departments: agriculture, forestry, marine products, industries, machinery, education, fine arts, transportation, live stock, and fisheries. There will also be a foreign sample building, in which will be samples of articles produced or manufactured in foreign countries. Adjoining the exhibition grounds, there are extensive buildings erected for the sale of goods produced in all the different provinces of Japan, forming a great bazaar. It is announced that during the exposition there will be an assembly of ten thousand Buddhist priests at one of their temples in the city to commemorate the thirteen-hundredth anniversary of the death of Prince Shotoku. It is said that this will be the second time that such a ceremony has ever been held in Japan, the first having been celebrated twelve centuries ago.

During the month of July, a German shoemakers' exhibition will be held at Hamburg. It is stated that the prime object of this exposition is the promotion of technical education in the shoemaking industry. There will be exhibits of the work of apprentices and masters of the German School for Shoemakers, of leather and tanning materials, of shoemakers' lasts, tools, and instruments of various kinds, of machinery employed in the manufacture of shoes, and of other articles used or consumed in the shoemaking trade. Foreigners are invited to exhibit machinery for the manufacture of shoes, but all shoes manufactured in foreign countries in bulk for the general trade and placed upon the market in large quantities are excluded.

An exhibition of engineering machinery, hardware, and allied trades is now being held at the Crystal Palace, London, and will close on May 31.

An international fire exhibition is to be held at Earls Court, London, from May to October. Exhibits of American inventions are requested. The exhibits will include building-construction, building equipment, electrical and heating safeguards, fire-extinguishing appliances, life-saving appliances, fire station and equipment, fire alarms, telephones and telegraphs, salvage corps appliances and stations, ambulance equipment, temporary hospitals, waterworks and water fittings, insurance companies and insurance equipment, fire brigades, fire survey, and the history and literature of the subject.

An international firemen's competition will be held at Havre, France, from May 31 to June 1, under the auspices of the mayor of the city and other distinguished citizens. The exercises will

consist of maneuvers of fire engines, hook and ladder companies, and so forth. The juries will be composed of French and foreign firemen who are in active service. An honor prize will be given for the best execution of maneuvers, and also a prize to the company which presents the best appearance both as to its *personnel* and as to its apparatus. Organized fire departments in all parts of the world are invited to send representatives.

FOR IMPROVED SANITATION.

The only industrial exposition to be held in France during the year will be that at Rheims, from May 15 to September 6, but an international exposition of improved housing is to be held in the Grand Palace of the Champs Elysées, at Paris, from June 29 to November 15. The object of this exposition is to contribute to the solution of the problems connected with the housing of working people throughout the world by setting forth models of improved houses of different kinds of materials and styles of construction, models of furniture and decoration, and, in a word, exhibiting the whole range of improvement in housing. Since this question of improved dwellings touches all those problems that concern the comfort and the hygiene of cities,—cleanliness, sanitation, purity of water-supply, systems of drainage, facilities of traffic, and so forth, it is important that these various interests should all be represented in the exposition. It is believed that much will be accomplished by way of arousing public sentiment in support of the improved-housing movement throughout the world. American coöperation has been sought by the managers of the exposition, and the American Institute of Social Science is to be represented at the congress to be held in connection with the exposition. A special committee has been appointed to coöperate with this international housing congress. The plans of the municipal exposition at Dresden are outlined on pages 571–573 of this number.

An interesting congress of hygiene and demography is to be held at Brussels from September 2 to September 8; the questions to be discussed will include bacteriology, microbiology, parasitology applied to hygiene, alimentary hygiene, applications to chemical and veterinary sciences, sterilization, use of antiseptics, sanitary technology, industrial and professional hygiene, hygienic transportation, best means of disinfection, administrative hygiene, aim and organization of medical inspection, quarantine regulations, and supervision of tenement-houses. Immediately after this congress of hygiene, there will be held, also at Brussels, an international dairy

congress, under the auspices of the National Dairy Association of Belgium. This congress will discuss the principal subjects of international importance related to the dairy industry, such as—(1) an international convention for the repression of fraud in the butter and margarin industry; (2) hygiene of milk and milk products; (3) creation of an international dairy association.

RELIGIOUS GATHERINGS.

The usual number of conventions and other occasions of a distinctly religious character have been announced for the forthcoming summer and autumn months. Additional interest is imparted to the various meetings of Methodist clergy and laity by the fact that this summer occurs the two-hundredth anniversary of the birth of John Wesley. This anniversary will be celebrated in different parts of the United States at different times.

For instance, there will be a celebration on May 27 at Minneapolis. The old-style date of Wesley's birth is June 17, and this day will be observed in many places. The Sunday before—June 14—however, which has been set apart as Children's Day, will be devoted to a celebration of the bicentenary in all the Sunday-schools of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Sunday, June 28, has been set apart in many places as the day of celebration, because that is the new-style date. Wesleyan University, at Middletown, Conn.; Northwestern University, at Evanston and Chicago, Ill.; Ohio Wesleyan University, at Delaware, Ohio; Allegheny College, at Meadville, Pa.; and, indeed, every educational institution of the Methodist Episcopal Church of any importance will observe the bicentenary in some way, at some time before June 28. There is no prearranged plan for the observance of the bicentenary, each institution following its own inclination in the matter.

YOUNG PEOPLE'S ORGANIZATIONS.

The only great Methodist meeting of a national character occurring during the year will be the International Convention of the Epworth League at Detroit, July 16-19. At this convention, the temperance, missionary, and other interests of the denomination will be represented, and on one evening there will be two "industrial" mass meetings.

The Twenty-first International Christian Endeavor Convention will be held at Denver, Colo., July 9-13, 1903. The meetings will be held in Auditorium Endeavor, an immense tent seating ten thousand people, and in a number of the

largest churches. Delegates will be present from all the States, Territories, and provinces, and most of the foreign countries. The programme will cover all phases of young people's work, interdenominational and international fellowship, home and foreign missions, social questions, and Christian citizenship. A special feature will be a school of methods, which will meet each morning of the convention for definite study under the leadership of experts in different lines. The new general secretary, Mr. Von Ogden Vogt, will be introduced to the work at this convention. The speakers will include many prominent leaders in religious, philanthropic, and political life.

While the Christian Endeavor delegates are assembled by thousands and tens of thousands at Denver, another great body of young people, coming from the Baptist denomination of America, will be gathered at Atlanta, Ga., to consider similar themes, and at Akron, Ohio, during the same week, the Young People's Christian Union of the Universalist Church will be represented in a convention attended by some three thousand delegates. In these three simultaneous meetings of American young people interested in religious work, every section of the Union will participate, and so all the sections will be brought into close touch with one another.

During June and July, five conferences of college students will be held under the direction of the Student Department of the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations. These gatherings will meet at Gearheart, Ore., opening May 29; Asheville, N. C., June 13 to 21; Lake Geneva, Wis., and Lakeside, Ohio, June 19 to 28; and Northfield, Mass., June 26 to July 5. The purpose of the conferences is to promote manly Christian living and high Christian ideals among college men, and to train the leaders of organized Christian work among students to carry on their work most effectively. The daily programme at each of these conferences consists of public addresses on religious subjects by leading clergymen and laymen; normal Bible classes, to prepare students to become leaders of groups of Bible study in the colleges; conferences for the discussion of practical methods of promoting religious life among students; and meetings to consider the various phases of the foreign and home missionary problems. It is customary also to hold, each evening, a conference at which the various callings needing Christian college men are presented. The afternoons of these conferences are always devoted to athletics and other forms of recreation. Last year, about fifteen hundred college men attended these gatherings, which have had a very

marked influence upon the life of the universities and colleges of the United States and Canada.

The largest of the Northfield gatherings will be the General Conference of Christian Workers, July 31 to August 16.

The Young Women's Conference at Northfield, July 7-15, corresponds to the Young Men's Conference.

The dates of the summer gatherings of the Young Women's Christian Associations are as follows:

The sixth Pacific Coast conference, at Capitola, Cal., May 15-26; the ninth Southern conference, at Asheville, N. C., June 13-23; the eleventh Eastern conference, at Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., June 26-July 6, student section, and July 10-20, city section; and the thirteenth Western conference, at Lake Geneva, Wis., August 15-25, student section, and August 26-September 4, city section.

The ninth biennial convention of the association occurred at Wilkesbarre, Pa., April 15-19.

MISSIONARY ANNIVERSARIES.

Important conferences of leaders for missionary work in Sunday-schools and young people's societies are to be held at Silver Bay, Lake George, and at Lookout Mountain, Tenn., in the month of July. These conferences aim to combine exceptional vacation facilities with practical training for more effective missionary work in young people's societies and Sunday-schools. The conference at Lookout Mountain will be held during the first eight days of July, and that at Lake George, July 22-31.

The ninety-fourth annual meeting of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions will be held in Manchester, N. H., October 13-16, 1903. The main features of the meeting have been already decided upon, and include the annual reports of the home and foreign secretaries and of the treasurer of the board; the annual sermon, by W. G. Sperry, D.D., president of Olivet College; addresses by the president of the board; by President Charles Cuthbert Hall, D.D., of Union Theological Seminary; by Rev. George A. Gordon, D.D., of Boston; by one of the secretaries of the board, and by several of the missionaries now at home on furlough.

The fifty-seventh annual meeting of the American Missionary Association is to be held in Cleveland, Ohio, October 20-22, 1903. This association is a national organization. Representatives will be present from many States and Territories, from Alaska, and from Porto Rico. The work of the association is educational and

evangelistic. It maintains one hundred and seven institutions of learning of various grades. It has given especial emphasis to industrial training, having introduced this method into the South and among the Indians of the West. The negro problem is given especial attention in the work of this association. The industrial, educational, and religious development of the colored people in the South has been greatly promoted by its work. Several of its institutions are now conducted by colored principals and teachers, and are doing very efficient service. In Porto Rico, our new island territory, training-schools have been established, the one at Santurce having plans for especial training in agriculture.

The Baptist national anniversaries will be held in the Prospect Avenue Baptist Church, Buffalo, N. Y., May 18-26. The meetings are advisory, and not legislative, as all Baptist churches are independent. The three great missionary organizations will hold sessions in the following order: The American Baptist Home Mission Society, the American Baptist Missionary Union, and the American Baptist Historical Society. These societies will take two full days each. They represent a constituency of Northern Baptists of about one million two hundred thousand. The Southern Baptist body has a constituency twice as large, and is separate. In addition to the three societies above named, there will be meetings held by the Women's Home Mission Society and the Women's Foreign Mission Society, by the Baptist Historical Society, the Baptist Education Society, and the Young People's Union of America.

MEETINGS OF VARIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

The one hundred and fifteenth General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America will meet at Los Angeles, Cal., on May 21. The Rev. Dr. Henry van Dyke, the retiring moderator, will preach the annual sermon, and the question of the adoption of the proposed revision of the Confession of Faith will be put to vote. The General Synod of the Reformed Church in America will meet at Asbury Park, N. J., on June 3. On the same day, the General Synod of the Evangelical Synod of the Lutheran Church of the United States will assemble at Baltimore, Md. The Evangelical Association will hold its general conference, this year, at Berlin, Canada, on October 1, meeting for the first time outside the United States.

The American Unitarian Association will hold its annual meeting in Tremont Temple, Boston, May 19-20; and the Universalist General Convention expects to meet at Washington, D. C., on October 23 for its biennial convention.

CONFERENCES FOR SOCIAL BETTERMENT.

The influence of the great national conferences that are held every year in this country for the improvement of social and political conditions can hardly be overestimated. Sooner or later, every nook and corner of the land is brought within the range of this influence. As an instance, can any one doubt the value to any city of the impetus given to all its forms of charitable work by the meeting of such an organization as the National Conference of Charities and Correction, with its membership of experts, its intelligently planned programmes, and its wisely directed counsels? Last year, the conference met at Detroit, two years ago at Washington, three years ago at Topeka, Kan.; this year it will invade the South, and will hold its sessions from May 6 to 12, inclusive, at Atlanta, Ga. The two hundred delegates appointed by Governor Terrell to represent Georgia in this conference will meet with representatives of almost every State in the Union. The neighboring Southern States will probably be more fully represented than ever before in such a gathering. All the difficult problems connected with poor relief and the care of the defective and delinquent classes will be discussed, and the South will be able to profit from the experience of the Northern and Western States.

The Charities Conference is only one of several national organizations devoted to discussion and practical endeavor along lines of social amelioration. Among the societies which will hold meetings during the coming season for the purpose of considering the same class of problems are the American Social Science Association, which will meet this year at Boston, on May 14; the American Humane Association, the date of whose annual meeting has not yet been definitely fixed; the American Public Health Association, which will meet on November 2, at Washington, D. C.; and the American Park and Outdoor Art Association, a flourishing organization, which will hold its seventh annual meeting at Buffalo, July 7-9. Closely allied also with the Charities Conference are the National Children's Home Society, which will meet at Pittsburg, on June 17, to discuss the problem of the care of homeless and neglected children, and the National Prison Association, which holds its annual meeting in September. Several of the societies that we have named are semi-official in character, city, State, and county governments being represented very largely in their membership. An organization consisting exclusively of officials is the League of Amer-

ican Municipalities, membership in which is held, not by individuals, but by American city governments, represented at the annual conventions by their mayors, aldermen, or other officials. The seventh annual convention of this body is to be held at Baltimore, October 7-9. The eleventh national Conference for Good City Government, and the ninth annual convention of the National Municipal League, were held at Ann Arbor and Detroit, Mich., in the latter part of April.

EDUCATIONAL, PROFESSIONAL, AND SCIENTIFIC MEETINGS.

It has long been the boast of American educationists that the great summer meetings of teachers in this country have excelled in numbers and enthusiasm similar gatherings held anywhere in the world. The meetings of the National Educational Association, held each July for many years, have been in the nature of huge mass meetings, the attendance often running far up into the thousands and tens of thousands. Although these meetings occupy but a few days, they are so organized and systematized as to details that any wideawake American teacher, either of the higher or lower grades, is able to get from them what is most profitable in the prosecution of his or her professional duties. The association now includes eighteen departments, each one of which holds separate sessions during the week of the meeting. This year's meeting will take place, July 6-10, in the city of Boston; President Eliot, of Harvard, will preside. The association now has a permanent membership of 10,000.

An educational conference appealing to a smaller constituency is the annual Convocation of the University of the State of New York, which will be held, this year, June 29-30, at Albany. The attendance at this meeting, however, is never confined to the teachers of New York State. Many eminent educators not residents of New York have in past years participated in the convocation. The discussions of this body are chiefly related to the progress of secondary and higher education.

In addition to the regularly appointed educational meetings of the present year, a special conference of college presidents has been called to meet at Chicago, May 8-9, to consider the relation of the college to the professional school. This conference was called by President James, of the Northwestern University.

The American Library Association has come to be recognized the country over as a leading educational agency. It has a present member-

ship of fifteen hundred, including, not only librarians, but many trustees of public libraries and others associated in one way or another with the progress of the public-library movement in this country. At the meeting to be held at Niagara, June 23-27, the three leading topics of discussion will be: (1) Training for Librarianship; (2) Fiction in Public Libraries; (3) Centralization and Coöperative Library Activities; (4) Libraries and the Book Trade. The subject of training for librarianship has just been brought prominently forward by Mr. Carnegie's recent gift to Western Reserve University of \$100,000 to found and endow a library school, and it is quite likely that matured plans for this school will be discussed by the association. It is expected that many Canadian librarians will find it possible to attend this Niagara meeting.

The National Congress of Mothers may fairly be regarded as an educational body, since so great a part of its programmes at the annual meetings is devoted to the effective coöperation of home and school. The congress is also doing much to stimulate organizations and individuals to secure wiser and more effective methods of dealing with the helpless and unfortunate children to be found in every community. This year's convention will be held at Detroit, May 5-8.

The usual conventions of the medical, legal, and engineering professions will be held, this year, at various points East and West. The American Bar Association has chosen the famous Hot Springs resort of Virginia as a meeting-place, with August 26-28 as the date. Mr. Francis Rawle, of Philadelphia, the president of the association, will deliver the annual address, discussing the most noteworthy changes in statute law of the past year. The American Medical Association will meet at New Orleans, May 5-8; many other important medical and surgical societies, including the American Academy of Medicine, the Association of American Physicians, and the American Surgical Association and its affiliated societies, will meet at Washington, D. C., during the month of May.

The American Institute of Homeopathy will meet at Boston, June 22-27; the National Eclectic Medical Association at Indianapolis, June 9-11; and the American Association of Physio-Medical Physicians and Surgeons at Indianapolis, May 21-23.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science, which, with its affiliated societies, embraces practically all of the important scientific activities in the United States, has changed its time of meeting from the summer

months to the Christmas holidays, thus removing from the catalogue of great summer gatherings one of its most conspicuous and interesting features. For many years, it has been the custom of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* to include in this annual forecast a brief synopsis of the programme to be presented at each forthcoming meeting of the American association. Now, however, since the meeting is more than eight months hence, it will be impossible to announce any of the details of the programme. The next meeting will be held at St. Louis, in the week beginning December 28, 1903, and ending January 2, 1904. There will be one summer scientific meeting this year of considerable importance,—that of the American Forestry Association, at Minneapolis, late in August, the exact date not having as yet been definitely determined. A special meeting of the American Ornithologists' Union will be held in California—probably at San Francisco—May 15-16; the annual session of this society will begin on November 16 at the Academy of Natural Sciences, in Philadelphia.

SUMMER SCHOOLS.

The summer-school movement in this country has been vigorous for many years; but never, since the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* began to observe its growth, from year to year, have the signs of healthful activity been more numerous than at present. Many summer schools, it is true, have died early deaths, but those that survive have better support and are certainly more worthy of support than in the early and tentative period. The college and university summer school has apparently come to stay. The teachers' summer school, too, seems to be a fixture. The large, popular lecture-course schools are less numerous than they were a few years ago; but a few are still maintained successfully in almost every section of the country.

Just now, the most interesting phase of the summer-school movement is to be seen in the South. There, the leading educators are uniting in an effort to make of the summer school an efficient ally in the task of quickening the educational conscience of the people. The first session, last year, of the Summer School of the South, at Knoxville, Tenn., was most successful, not only in opening new opportunities to Southern youth, but in stimulating an interest in the educational advance movement that is making its presence felt over the entire South. The whole work at Knoxville was conducted in the interest of the public-school system, and the work that will be done at the forthcoming session (June 23-July 31), supported by the Gen-

eral Education Board, will be directed with a view to promoting the great campaign in behalf of public education now in progress in most of the Southern States.

Provision has also been made by the General Education Board for other similar work, and especially for a summer school to be held at the Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Ala., from June 29 to August 7, for the benefit of colored teachers.

THE CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION.

The word "assembly" in connection with the Chautauqua Institution has a unique meaning. The assembly includes a popular programme of university-extension lectures on literary and scientific subjects; frequent concerts by prominent soloists, assisted by the Chautauqua chorus of five hundred voices and an orchestra of twenty pieces; popular lectures and readings by men and women of national reputation; and also many attractive entertainments, such as athletic exhibitions, prize spelling and pronunciation matches, illuminated fleet, open-air band concerts, evenings of magic, etc. The assembly will convene at Chautauqua, N. Y., on Chautauqua Lake, July 2 to August 30, 1903, for the thirtieth annual session.

At the same time, there will be in session the Chautauqua Summer Schools, with two terms of three weeks each, beginning July 6 and 27, respectively. Dr. George E. Vincent is the principal. These schools enroll about twenty-five hundred students, and the 90 instructors offer 160 courses. The instruction includes English, Classical and Modern Languages (French under the direction of the Alliance Française), Science, Mathematics, Sociology, History, Psychology, Pedagogy, Kindergarten, Religious Teaching (including a Sunday-school Institute, July 27-August 1), Domestic Science, Arts and Crafts, Library Training, Music, Fine Arts, Expression, Physical Education, Business, etc. In such an environment, the student gains, not only a deeper insight into the subjects pursued under university, college, or normal-school instructors, but opportunity is afforded to attend the best lectures and concerts and to seek recreation in the outdoor sports of golf, tennis, rowing, sailing, fishing, etc.

Emphasis should be placed on the national character of the summer assembly of the Chautauqua Institution. While many of the more than forty thousand visitors come from New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, a large number of people representing the far South and West make Chautauqua their summer rendezvous.

In 1878, the first class for the home-study work was organized at Chautauqua, and the twenty-fifth anniversary of this event, will be

celebrated during the coming August. Appropriate exercises will be held in commemoration of the various steps in the growth of the movement which during its quarter-century has enrolled three-quarters of a million of readers and numbers more than forty thousand graduates. Dr. Edward Everett Hale, one of the councilors, and other distinguished men, will take part in the exercises, which will include the laying of the corner-stone of the New Hall of Philosophy.

OTHER SUMMER-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES.

It is interesting to note in this connection that the Catholic Summer School organized some years ago on Lake Champlain has continued to prosper, and that its courses of lectures are recognized as of the highest scholastic value. During the coming summer, the school will be open for the nine weeks from July 6 to September 4. The courses of study have been arranged with reference to the approved plans for self-improvement among teachers and members of reading circles. An important feature of this school is its work in English literature. Courses are also announced in the principles and methods of teaching, in biology, and in music and physical culture.

The seventh summer assembly of the Jewish Chautauqua Society will be held at Atlantic City, N. J., July 9-29. One of the principal features of this assembly will be the series of popular conferences for the discussion of important problems of living interest. Thus, one of these conferences will take up the theme "Jewish University Students—Their Attitude Toward Jewish Problems." Mr. Lehman, the first recipient of an American Rhodes Scholarship at Oxford, will speak as a representative of Yale. Other representatives of various leading universities will participate. At a conference on applied philanthropy, the topic to be considered will be "The Coöperation Between Jewish Charity Workers and Immigrants."

An institution that has amply proved its worth and usefulness is the Summer School in Philanthropic Work conducted by the Charity Organization Society in New York City. The sixth session of this school will open on June 22, and will continue for six weeks. The programme of instruction will include a study of the care and treatment of needy families in their homes, the practical work under the direction of the agents of the Charity Organization Society; visits to institutions for the care of destitute, neglected, and delinquent children; observation of the work of hospitals and dispensaries, study of the institutional care of adults, and the study of public

playgrounds, vacation schools, recreation piers, and the various neighborhood improvements to be seen in a modern city. The director of the school, this year, as in past seasons, is Dr. Philip W. Ayres.

Space fails us to mention the various forms of summer-school effort that will be in evidence throughout the country during the coming season. A list of the universities and colleges that open their doors for instruction during the whole or a part of the long vacation would be virtually a list of all the institutions of higher education in the United States. There are also large enterprises designed especially to meet the needs of teachers, like the Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute. All of these institutions are well attended, and it can no longer be said that educational work flags at all in this country during the summer months.

MUSIC FESTIVALS.

Only a few music festivals of importance are to be held in the United States this year, but all American music-lovers are interested in the performance of the Wagner operas to be given in the new Prince Regent Theatre at Munich. There will undoubtedly be a much larger attendance at this festival, owing to the fact that there will be no performance at Baireuth this season. Following are the dates of the Munich performances:

1st Cycle. August 8 to 18.

Der Ring des Nibelungen. Lohengrin. Tristan und Isolde. Tannhäuser. Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg.

2d Cycle. August 17 to 28.

Tannhäuser. Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg. Lohengrin. Tristan und Isolde. Der Ring des Nibelungen.

3d Cycle. August 21 to September 1.

Lohengrin. Tristan und Isolde. Tannhäuser. Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg. Der Ring des Nibelungen.

4th Cycle. August 25 to September 5.

Der Ring des Nibelungen. Tannhäuser. Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg. Lohengrin. Tristan und Isolde.

5th Cycle. September 4 to 14.

Lohengrin. Tristan und Isolde. Tannhäuser. Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg. Der Ring des Nibelungen.

Another great festival of Bach's music will take place at Bethlehem, Pa., May 11-16. The "Christmas Oratorio," and "St. Matthew's Passion," which were rendered under the same auspices two years ago, will be repeated this year, together with a number of church cantatas.

There will be six days of service and music planned to commemorate, in succession, the birth of Christ, the Passion, and the joy of Easter.

The forty-sixth annual Festival of the Worcester County Musical Association will be held at Worcester, Mass., in the week of September 28-October 3. The conductors will be Wallace Goodrich and Franz Kneisel, their successful dual leadership of chorus and orchestra, last year, guaranteeing continued interest in these important factors of the festival. The festival chorus, four hundred voices, has been rehearsing weekly since New Year's under Mr. Goodrich, and the two great choral works, "Elijah" and "Franciscus," are now familiar to all the singers. Coincident with a change in festival administration, it is announced that the festival will consist of five concerts, and as many, if not more, public rehearsals. For some years past, seven concerts have been given in four days, and the strain on chorus, orchestra, and patrons has been severe. This year, with fewer concerts and more joint rehearsals of chorus and orchestra, higher artistic results will be obtained and patrons given more enjoyable series of concerts. The orchestral works to be performed are not yet selected. The two choral works include "Elijah" and a novelty in Edgar Tinell's oratorio "Franciscus," a work that has had but two American performances, but which ranks extremely high in Europe among modern compositions. The work is attractive in rehearsal, and its performance, the first thoroughly prepared one in this country, is likely to draw to the Worcester Festival many musicians who wish to keep in touch with the newest great oratorio.

The twentieth triennial Saengerfest of the Northeastern Saengerbund, at Baltimore, promises to be the largest affair of the kind ever held in America. It is expected that six thousand singers will take part in the two principal concerts, which take place on June 15 and 16, and that in the welcoming concert on June 14 four thousand children from the public schools will be added to the large chorus of the United Singers of Baltimore. President Roosevelt will be present at the first concert, June 15, when Director Melamet's new work, entitled "America," will be rendered by a solo soprano, a large chorus, and a grand orchestra of one hundred and fifty musicians. The rehearsals for the three great concert programmes are now going on in the various cities east of the Alleghany Mountains, and Prof. David Melamet, director of the fest, goes from city to city to superintend them.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

A GREAT CONGRESS OF ARTS AND SCIENCES AT ST. LOUIS.

PROFESSOR HUGO MÜNSTERBERG, of Harvard, tells in the *May Atlantic Monthly* of the elaborate and well-considered plan of presenting at the St. Louis Exposition the work of the world's scientists to date. The Congress of Arts and Sciences at St. Louis is



PROFESSOR HUGO MÜNSTERBERG.

going to be remarkable among institutions of the sort in its deliberate purpose to attain unity of thought, instead of presenting a mass of scattered specialistic researches, according to the traditional scheme of world's fair congresses. So far, a long list of unconnected meetings, with a long programme of unconnected papers, have characterized the congresses of the great expositions, and real scholars have come to the conclusion that such arrangements were on the whole useless and without any important value for science.

At the specific instigation of Professor Münsterberg, the St. Louis Congress of Arts and Sciences will be one congress with a hundred or more sections, bringing the inner relations of all branches of knowledge to light.

The ambition of the able men in charge of this department of the St. Louis fair is not small, and they have ransacked the whole world for the first-rate men of science who have a view beyond the narrow limits of their special problems, and have the authority to express the principles, to lay down the methods, and to judge fairly of the fundamental problems of their sciences.

Professor Münsterberg proposes to allow a fair honorarium to the European men of science, inviting them to prepare each a definite piece of work in the service of the complete plan. The American scientists are to be paid, too, with a less allowance for traveling expenses, and Professor Münsterberg believes that the presence of some hundreds of European and American scientists of the first rank will bring thousands of younger and lesser men to play their part without honoraria.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF KNOWLEDGE.

The administration of this congress has divided human knowledge into two parts, seven divisions, twenty-five departments, and one hundred and thirty sections, with the possibility of an unlimited number of sub-sections. An extraordinary amount of thought of the best quality has been given to this classification of human knowledge, and Professor Münsterberg's explanations of the principle on which the classification was made is amply worth careful reading.

The Congress of Arts and Sciences is to meet at St. Louis on Monday, September 19, 1904, opening with an assemblage of all its members. It first divides itself into divisions, after that into its departments, then into its sections, and, finally, into its last ramifications. For Monday morning, the opening day, the subject for the whole congress is knowledge as a whole, and its marking off into theoretical and practical knowledge. Monday afternoon, seven divisions meet in seven different halls. Tuesday, the seven divisional groups divide themselves into the twenty-five departments, of which the sixteen theoretical ones meet in sixteen different halls on Tuesday morning, and the nine practical on Tuesday afternoon. In the following four days, the departments are split up into the sections, the seventy-one theoretical sections meeting on Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, about eighteen each morning, in eighteen halls; and the fifty-nine practical sections on the same days and afternoons. During the first week, there will be a system of two hundred and sixty

sectional, fifty departmental, seven divisional, and three congressional addresses which belong internally together and are merely parts of the one great thought which the world needs—the unity of knowledge.

Professor Münsterberg says that only men of science of the first class will participate in this great plan, and he and his colleagues are looking for such in all the countries of the world.

A VAST PROPAGANDA OF SCIENCE.

"Only the first two days' work will be essentially the welcome gift of the hosts—the contribution of American scholarship. In every one of the one hundred and thirty sections, however, at least one of the leading addresses will be offered by a leading foreign scholar, and all countries will be represented. Every address will be followed by a discussion, but our work will not be really completed when the president delivers, on Sunday, his closing address on the harmonization of practical sciences. The spoken word is then still to be transformed into its lasting expression. The exposition has voted the funds, not only to remunerate liberally all those who take their share in the work, but also to print and publish in a dignified form those three hundred and twenty addresses as a gigantic monument of modern thought, a work which might set the standard for a period, and will do, by the unique combination of contributors, by its plans and its topics, by its completeness and its depth, what in no private way could be accomplished. Hundreds of colleagues are helping us to select those men for the departments whose word may be most helpful to the whole. Thousands will listen to the word when it is spoken, and the printed proceedings will, we hope, reach the widest circles, and thus become a new force in the progress of civilization, a real achievement of science."

THE KEY TO EMERSON'S INFLUENCE.

OF the many tributes to Ralph Waldo Emerson, called for in the magazines by the occasion of the centenary of the philosopher's birth, one of the finest is from Thomas Wentworth Higginson, in the *May Success*. Emerson was not considered a man of marked ability, in his younger days, as compared with his two brothers, who died in their youth. His young wife also died early, his health was poor, and, though he had some success as a preacher, he never got the invitation to teach rhetoric at Harvard, which he would have been glad to receive, and he left Boston to make Concord his home and live by literature and teaching.

THE ESSENCE OF HIS TEACHING.

"When we ask ourselves for the key to Emerson's influence, we find it more nearly by, turning back to the careers of George Fox and Elias Hicks than to any other spiritual teachers of modern days. Like them, he said, 'Look within.' He trusted in the inward light. He said to the graduates of Divinity College, Cambridge, July 15, 1838: 'Men have come to speak of the revelation as somewhat long ago given and done, as if God were dead. . . . The soul is not preached. . . . The office of a true teacher is to show us that God is, not was; that he speaketh, not spake.' To every graduate, he said, 'Yourself, a new-born bard of the Holy Ghost, cast behind you all conformity and acquaint men at first hand with the Deity.' These words were met with loud outcries of indignation, but they made their way and have ever since been making it. In all religious bodies, save the most illiterate, they have unconsciously reached human minds, and you are liable to recognize their influence in any sermon you hear. Their germ had been visible in his little volume called 'Nature,' published in 1836, the year before, at a time when the book of Oriental philosophy,—to which we sometimes hear his doctrines attributed,—had not reached America, and had not, indeed, been largely published in England. This volume, 'Nature,' it may be remembered, was written in the same chamber of the 'Old Manse' in which Hawthorne wrote his 'Mosses.' It took twelve years to sell five hundred copies of it, but it was the beginning of a really original American literature, although it was his later oration, 'The American Scholar,' which has been called 'our intellectual declaration of independence.'

HIS INFLUENCE ON GREAT ENGLISHMEN.

"The especial source of his wide influence has no doubt come from those passages of strong simplicity which are found amid the occasional abstruseness of his poems, and the similar passages which his prose writings offer. So perfect are these statements that, as Dr. Holmes well said, 'the moment after they had been written, they seemed as if they had been carved on marble for a thousand years.'

"It is not too much to claim that in the vast armies of our Civil War there were thousands of youths who, in moments of difficult decision, had repeated these words to themselves. Written at the very beginning of the war, these lines held their influence until its ending, and, indeed, ever since. We know the vast influence that Emerson exercised through Tyndall, especially;

through Carlyle, who always made Emerson the exception from his general condemnation of the human race; and also through the unwilling Matthew Arnold, who never praised anything American, if he could help it, but who pronounced Emerson's essays to be 'the most important work done in prose in this century.'

EMERSON'S PANTHEISM.

"One phrase of Mr. Emerson's, often quoted, was in his own case disproved,—'Great geniuses have the shortest biographies; their cousins can tell you nothing about them.' His biographies are multiplying and growing larger, and thirty-three lectures on him are planned by the Twentieth Century Club. Moreover, in no book, I think, have we more intimate glimpses of Emerson than in the little volume of Rev. Dr. Haskins, his cousin. When this gentleman was the rector of Grace Church in Medford, and had invited Emerson to lecture there in the lyceum, his people expressed their surprise at such an invitation, because they had supposed that Emerson did not believe in God. Mr. Haskins said to the sage, at the tea-table, before the lecture, 'I think I am entitled to ask what you would have answered if the inquiry had been made of you, "Do you believe in God?"' His reply, though quaintly worded, was, nevertheless, very gravely and reverently made: 'When I speak of God, I prefer to say "It,"—"It."'" 'I confess,' says Dr. Haskins 'that I was, at first, startled by the answer; but, as he explained his views in the conversation which followed, I could discover no difference between them and the commonly accepted doctrine of God's omnipresence. Conversing lately with my good friend and neighbor, Rev. A. P. Peabody, concerning Mr. Emerson, I remarked that I thought his pantheism was the best kind. "I do not call it *pantheism*," said Dr. Peabody, "I call it *hypertheism*!"'

HIS GREAT ACHIEVEMENT.

"Emerson's great achievement lay in impressing upon Americans, apart from all theological speculations, the supreme importance of the higher nature, the moral life, the intellectual being. Believing in democracy, in the sense that he was never surprised by the advent of genius and virtue from the most unexpected quarters, he yet prized all classes only in proportion as they yielded these high qualities. This made him, wherever his influence reached, our best antidote for all meanness. If we yet retain an unspoiled America, it is due more largely to his leadership than to any other. He was the teacher of our teachers, the guide of our guides."

THE CZAR'S MANIFESTO: ITS GENESIS AND MEANING.

THE story most generally credited in Europe as to the genesis of the Czar's manifesto of March 11, to which allusion was made in the April number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, is that it is due to the representations made by M. Demtchinsky, meteorologist, engineer, and landed proprietor, who, after contributing freely to the columns of the *Novoe Vremya*, was received in audience by the Czar. He spoke his mind freely as to the evil state of the country, and being asked to embody his views in writing, drew up a report in which he set forth with brutal frankness the defects of the existing system and expounded "a whole system of reform in three divisions. The result of all this was that von Plehwe was sent for, and ordered, in the first place, to get the manifesto ready, and then to organize various commissions to carry out the proposed reforms."

The manifesto, says the correspondent of the *Westminster Gazette*, was "meant to be a clear and concise statement of what the Czar wishes to do for the welfare of his people, and, as it issued from the hands of officials who had no intention of doing what they were told, it was tantamount to nothing, for what was given with the one hand was fully taken away by the other."

Dr. Dillon's Estimate.

Dr. E. J. Dillon contributes to the *Contemporary Review* a thoughtful and discriminating estimate of the manifesto. Dr. Dillon says:

"The instinctive impulses of Czar Nicholas II. are happy, humane, and seasonable, and in this they differ considerably from the deliberate and Penelopean acts of many of his advisers. With a keen eye on the trend of political affairs, he is ever on the alert for some generous idea, some practical measure which shall fire his subjects with social hope, and, by knitting their interests more closely together, weld all classes in one organic whole. The present manifesto is a striking case in point. It is evidently the product on the one hand of complex processes which have been at work in Russian society for fifteen years at least, as well as of economic and cultural changes the significance of which has not yet been fully gauged; and on the other, of the Czar's lively sensibility to these quickly shifting conditions, and of his sincere desire to bestow upon the one hundred and thirty-six millions of his subjects such breadth and fullness of national life as he honestly believes them capable of enjoying.

"The manifesto, which was promulgated on March 11, is the expression of a heartfelt wish

to satisfy the needs of the people, and the utterance of a reasonable hope that they will help him to solve the arduous problem. It may, consequently, be likened to a piece of white paper with a single text; and all criticism must needs be postponed until the essay on the text has been written. To speak of it as a *Magna Charta* of constitutionalism is premature and misleading.

WHAT THE MANIFESTO MEANS.

"This document is neither a *Magna Charta* nor a declaration of rights,—it is the expression of his majesty's intention to have the old-world forms, which the modern man even in Russia has outgrown, readjusted to latter-day requirements. Religion is, the Emperor rightly holds, the most solid groundwork of the nation's well-being; and recognizing the fact that religion is not identical with any particular church, he deems it expedient to strengthen the undeviating observance—by the authorities who have to do with matters of creed—of the principles of tolerance laid down by the fundamental laws of the Russian Empire, which, piously recognizing the orthodox church as chief and predominant, bestow upon all our subjects of other religions and upon all foreign communions freedom of belief and of worship according to their respective rights.' Few passages of the manifesto will evoke more heated discussion than this, but nothing could be gained by commenting at this early stage upon words of wisdom which possess no further meaning than that which future legislation on the subject will put into them.

THE QUESTION OF RELIGIOUS LIBERTY.

"One of the laws at present in force in the empire to which exception is widely taken deals with the religion of children one of whose parents is a member of the orthodox church, and prescribes that every such child shall be brought up as a member of that communion, even though both its parents desire to enroll it in another.

"Whether the manifesto will react upon that article of the penal code, it is, of course, impossible to foretell with certainty, but it would be rash to assume that the statute will be repealed. On the contrary, the position assigned to the orthodox church as 'chief and predominant' would appear meaningless without some such privileges which the others do not possess.

THE GERM OF FUTURE DEVELOPMENT.

"The changes in the organization of the village community which are foreshadowed in the manifesto are less likely to interest foreigners than those which fall within the sphere of religion or politics. But to the Russian peasant it

is a matter of supreme moment. One passage of the imperial proclamation deserves special notice. It is that which contains a promise that the agrarian laws will be revised, and that the schemes of improvement formulated will be discussed in provincial government councils 'with the closest collaboration of the worthiest public men invested with the confidence of the public.'

"If the manifesto mark, as many Russians hope and profess to believe, a new departure in domestic policy, the beginning of a new era of representative government, this promise, then, is assuredly the germ from which it will ultimately spring. Nor is there any good ground for doubting that the powers of the *zemstvos* will be somewhat extended, that a certain degree of influence upon agricultural legislation will be vouchsafed to them, and that the number of their members will be considerably increased. But it seems equally certain that a long time must elapse before all these reforms can be embodied in legislation. Moreover, whatever the nature of the concrete results the manifesto will finally bring forth, it may be unhesitatingly assumed that constitutional government, even in the mild form in which it is now pinning away in central Europe, is not among the innovations contemplated by the Czar."

M. Leroy-Beaulieu's Views.

M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, who writes in *La Revue* for March 1, is puzzled at the manifesto, as well he may be, seeing that he seems only to have at hand the inaccurate version first telegraphed to western Europe. For that reason also, he receives the manifesto, on the whole, sympathetically, and hopes that it will initiate the emancipation of the Russian conscience and the emancipation of the worker. He apparently regards the clause about religious tolerance as if it promised to change the law—which it did in translation, but not in the original, which as given above specifically states that the present law is good enough. Still, he calls the promise vague. One thing he sees nothing but good in if it is carried out, and that is the making of it easier for the peasant to release himself from the communal bonds. This, he says, would mean a great transformation for the empire.

Sir Henry Norman's Comment.

The editor of the English *World's Work* sees in the manifesto a dual influence:

"If the truth could be known—it seldom or never is known in Russia—it would probably be found that the first draft of the imperial utterance was far in advance of that which now sees the light. Nobody who has been in a position

to learn of the character and aspirations of the Czar will doubt for a moment that tolerance, sympathy, and enlightenment are the mainsprings of his latest action. Unfortunately other influences, against which even a Czar sometimes struggles in vain, have cast these lofty intentions into a mold which virtually obscures their character and objects."

"THE MACEDONIAN CLAIMANTS."

IT is a fact not generally understood in this country that the Greeks, in the present Macedonian crisis, are actually in sympathy with the Turks. Mr. William Miller, writing in the *Contemporary Review* on "The Macedonian Claimants," deals in particular with the Greeks and the Albanians, who have been rather left out of account by most writers.

"It is curious, if somewhat disheartening, to find that at Athens, at this moment, the Bulgarians, not the Turks, are regarded as the worst enemies of the national aspirations in Macedonia. No student of the Eastern question will be surprised at this sudden and kaleidoscopic change since the war of 1897. But well-meaning philanthropists who hope against hope and believe against history that all the Christian races of the East will join hands in a common crusade against the Turks will scarcely credit what is an undoubted fact. For some months past—in fact, ever since the Macedonian question became acute—the Greek press has been administering strong stimulants to the Sultan to send more troops to Macedonia along that self-same railway which, barely six years ago, the Bulgarians were loudly implored to cut, so that the advance of Edhem Pasha into Thessaly might be checked! Only a few days ago, I read a leading article in one of the chief Athenian journals in which Turkish outrages in Macedonia were denied, the recent atrocities narrated by the special correspondent of the *Daily News* were declared to be inventions, and the behavior of the Turkish troops was declared to have been better than that of many other nations would have been 'under similar provocation!'"

ALBANIA.

The Albanians, according to Professor Virchow, have the most intellectual skulls in Europe. According to Dr. Dillon, who deals with them in the later part of the review, they also have the toughest.

"In their love of bloodshed and horror of humdrum and laborious lives, they resemble the Kurds, and feel, like them, that they have a better right to exist and thrive than the inferior races, who are on earth merely for their sakes.

Vendetta and hospitality are the two tribal customs the strict observance of which makes the most profound impression on the foreigner. Not only do sanguinary feuds rage for generations between two tribes, but also between two families of the same tribe, and hundreds of persons are sacrificed at sight to propitiate the bloodthirsty shades of parents or forebears. It has been calculated that about 25 per cent. of the entire population die violent deaths. But the prospect has no terror for the Albanian, whose proverb expresses his feelings on the subject: 'Dying is a plague; but it is half a plague to live.' At times, large tracts of land are given over to these sanguinary encounters, and oddly enough, while any man passing there may be shot down by his enemy or the enemy of his tribe, a woman is allowed to go her way unmolested. Hospitality, too, is carried to extraordinary lengths, and the murderer of a man can trust his victim's family to spare his life once he has gained the shelter of their home."

KING CHRISTIAN IX. OF DENMARK.

KING CHRISTIAN IX. of Denmark, the Nestor among the monarchs of Europe, celebrated his eighty-fifth birthday on April 8, and Dr. A. von Wilke makes this an occasion for giving a short account of the King's reign, in a recent issue of *Die Woche*. King Christian is not a Dane by birth, but belongs to the house of Holstein, one of the two German princely families that have supplied nearly every European country with its rulers, the other one being the house of Coburg, to which King Edward belongs. King Christian, however, is related to the extinct Danish dynasty both on his mother's and his wife's side, and through the latter he succeeded to the throne of Denmark on the death of Friedrich VII., in 1863.

This reign of forty years has not been a quiet one. "There are few periods in the history of Denmark," says the writer, "marked by so many external and internal conflicts as the last four decades. At the very beginning, an unfortunate war deprived the country of two rich provinces [Schleswig and Holstein], reducing it to a smaller area than it had ever before covered, and deeply wounding and humiliating the pride of the people. And on the restoration of peace, the country was torn for years by political factions that have been harmonized only within a comparatively recent time. The King, siding with the minority of his subjects, was in open conflict with the parliamentary majority, and was more than once obliged to go to the extreme of dissolving the Chambers, in order to

carry out, with the aid of an unpopular ministry, the measures that he deemed best for the welfare of the country. And he finally had the satisfaction of seeing internal peace return in consequence of his persistence."



KING CHRISTIAN IX.

But while the factions were raging, and reviling one another, and an attempt was even made to assassinate the president of the ministry, the King personally was never attacked, for he disarmed all his opponents by a kindness toward individuals that has become the most prominent trait of his character. His popularity is further enhanced by the fact that he is a model husband and father, and is connected by family ties with the chief reigning houses of Europe, to the political advantage of the country; his wife, Queen Luise, who died four years ago, was facetiously called "the mother-in-law of Europe."

King Christian has six children, three of whom are numbered among the crowned heads of Europe,—his second son, who mounted the throne of Greece in 1863 as King George I.; his daughters, Alexandra, Queen of England, and Dagmar, Empress-Do-vager of Russia, the mother of the present Czar Nicholas II. The King's numerous progeny of children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren, who are scattered all over Europe, gather about him every summer in one or the other of his castles. Court etiquette is then thrown aside; royalty "is glad to be as men among men; they seek amusement in sports, as bathing, tennis, and automobiling, and brighten the declining years of their aged host by their presence and filial love."

SUBMARINE WARFARE.

LIEUT. G. E. ARMSTRONG, R.N., contributes an article to the April *Cornhill* upon the possibilities of submarine boats in wartime. England has nine submarines built and building, France fifty. Lieutenant Armstrong cites some cases in which the submarine has performed great exploits, and concludes that as their proper sphere is the defense of ports, they practically make a blockade impossible.

A SUBMARINE'S INVULNERABILITY.

Many devices have been invented for indicating the approach of a submarine, but even if detected what good does it do? The submarine only shows for from seven to fifteen seconds.

"Perhaps only those who have had actual experience of practice at sea with quick-firing and machine guns can properly appreciate the significance of these figures. In the first place the target which such a vessel presents, when awash, is about as difficult a one as could be imagined. Secondly, only 'direct hits' would be of any avail, and the chance of securing any of them in the short space of time at the disposal of the captains of guns would be extremely slight; and in saying this I think even the most ardent gunnery man will agree with me. Of course, any attempt to injure a submarine when submerged would be out of the question, owing to the resistance given by the water to even the heaviest projectiles, and the consequent deflection."

The periscope, however, is now so perfect that a submarine never needs to come to the surface before discharging a torpedo at all.

"So perfect is it, and so regular in its action is the depth-keeping apparatus of an efficient submarine, that the *Français*, for example, has run a course of eight miles under water with the periscope constantly one foot out of water. This means that the unfortunate gunners on board a ship which is being attacked would, under these circumstances, have a painted metal rod one foot long and three inches wide to fire at, at the distance of several hundred yards; and even if they accomplished a miracle by hitting it, they would hardly be better off than they were before."

Lieutenant Armstrong mentions that only a select few among British naval officers have any practical acquaintance with this new type of vessel. In fact, scarcely one officer in a hundred has ever even seen a submarine. The French, however, use every effort to acquaint their officers and men with all the aspects of submarine warfare. In the opinion of many officers, the whole principle of naval strategy

in wartime has undergone serious modification since the introduction of the submarine.

Essential Requirements.

Commander F. M. Barber, U.S.N., retired, writes in the current *Forum* on some of the technical details of the submarine torpedo boat which are of interest to the lay reader. The following, according to Commander Barber, are the essential points:

"1. The boat should be able to steer a course and perform the necessary operations; and apropos of this it will be remembered that water is 900 times as dense as air, but that it has been calculated by Bouguer that we must go to a depth of 700 feet before it becomes absolutely opaque.

"2. The boat should have speed. The importance of this feature is accentuated and aggravated by the fact that, in consequence of the increased wetted surface, nearly double the power is required to get the same speed when under water that is obtained when the boat is running with half its body submerged.

"3. It should have a sufficient supply of air to support life for several hours or to have the means of purifying it—520 cubic inches of air per man per minute are required to support life—but in addition provision must be made for getting rid of the carbonic acid and animal impurities that are given off.

"4. The boat should be of sufficient displacement to carry machinery and crew and have space for them to operate.

"5. It should be of such form as to be easily propelled and steered.

"6. It must be able to rise and fall at will to a determined depth either when stationary or when in motion.

"7. The crew must be able to enter and leave the boat without external aid.

"8. The boat must be of sufficient strength to resist collapse, the pressure increasing at the rate of one-half pound to the foot as the boat goes down.

"9. Finally, and in addition to all the above, the boat must be properly armed in order to be certain to sink the enemy."

THE LATEST INVENTIONS.

Commander Barber describes several devices that have recently been adopted with a view to overcoming the inherent difficulties of submarine navigation:

"In the present state of the art, the boats are propelled on the surface by petroleum, gas, or alcohol engines, and under water by electric engines driven by storage batteries, which also supply the lights. Compressed air supplies breath-

ing, ejection of torpedoes, and ejecting water ballast when required. Air that has been breathed can be rendered reasonably respirable again by allowing it to bubble through water. But experiments are now being made by the French with a material called 'oxylithe,' a new chemical compound which liberates oxygen freely when mixed with water. This not only purifies the air, but it burns up all animal impurities. In addition, experiments are being made with a new motor to which oxylithe furnishes the fuel. If this proves successful, and the prospect is at present favorable, the motor will do for both surface and under-water running. Much more powerful machinery can be installed, a large part of the heavy electric batteries can be removed, and other advantages obtained; but, of course, all this will take time. One difficulty with electric accumulators has been the escape of explosive fumes; but the French have overcome this by covering them with wire-gauze boxes. In fact, there is finality in nothing. The situation of the submarine boat is very much like that of wireless telegraphy. It is yet new and has its defects; but all navies must have it even as it is, though every day sees new improvements.

"The impossibility of seeing under water to a great distance by any means yet discovered renders it necessary for a submarine to come to the surface occasionally on approaching an enemy in order to rectify the line of approach. To reduce the portion exposed to a minimum, a vertical tube a few feet in length containing reflecting mirrors is employed. It is called a periscope, and the end which appears on the surface resembles a bottle. Advantage was taken of this a short time ago to perpetrate an amusing ruse by floating a quantity of bottles out of the harbor of Cherbourg on the ebb tide. Calculating approximately on the time that they would reach some French armor-clads which were simulating a blockade, the submarines made their attack. The armor-clads were so confused by the bottles that they were all torpedoed by the submarines without ever being able to identify them."

The "Protector."

In *Page's Magazine* for April, Mr. Herbert C. Fyfe gives a short account of the *Protector*, which has recently been launched at Bridgeport, Conn. It differs chiefly from the *Holland* and other types of submarines in being able to run along on wheels upon the floor of the ocean. Traveling on the bottom is declared to be the most simple, safe, and reliable method known of under-water navigation. There are two wheels fitted to the keel, one in advance of the other.

They are three feet in diameter, with nine-inch face.

Our Navy Department is about to carry out a series of exhaustive trials with the *Protector*, and every one in authority seems to speak well of it.

THE COÖPERATION OF THE NAVY AND THE MERCHANT MARINE.

THE various ways in which the navy can further the interests of the merchant marine of a country are discussed by Georg Wislicenus in the *Deutsche Monatsschrift*. In time of war, it assumes the office of protector to the merchant vessels. "Any merchant marine," says the writer, "depends on the strength of the navy of its country. The great secret of all English success lies in the fact that the English navy always has been so well proportioned to the English merchant marine that foreign powers could never interfere with the latter. The boldest French pirates could never seriously cripple English trade, in spite of many single victories, because in all naval wars between England and France the English fleet retained mastery of the sea. To-day, as centuries ago, the protection of transatlantic trade and the merchant marine is the most important task of any independent navy that is not confined merely to coast defense; in order to achieve this task thoroughly, the enemy must be driven from the sea and blockaded in his ports, for then the merchant vessels of the other power are as safe on all seas as in time of peace. When the Union troops in the War of Secession had blockaded the entire coast of the Confederate States, the sea traffic, and with it the power of resistance, of those States was broken."

IN TIME OF PEACE.

In time of peace, also, the navy acts as protector, or a kind of police that enforces respect for the flag. The writer illustrates this by the case of Holland and England. "Holland's marvelously flourishing foreign trade in the seventeenth century declined almost simultaneously with the downfall of Dutch supremacy on the sea, while England owes its leading position in commerce chiefly to the auspicious coöperation of the navy with the merchant marine. Since the seventeenth century, the development of both has gone hand in hand to such extent as to outdistance all competitors. All the nations are so accustomed to seeing English men-of-war in all ports that gratuitous insults are hardly ever offered to the English flag. The feeling of security thereby engendered has been of incalculable benefit to English commerce."

THE HYDROGRAPHIC BUREAUS.

Another office of the navy is that of charting the seas, and here, again, the English navy has given material aid, not only to the English merchant marine, but to all seafarers in general; the hydrographic bureau of the English admiralty has issued nearly four thousand charts, and many guide books for mariners, that are used by vessels of all nations. "Other countries, also," the writer concludes, "recognize the value of these naval labors of peace, as is shown by the excellent work done by the French and American hydrographic bureaus; although they cover less ground than the British office, their work is frequently superior to the latter in regard to reliability and careful execution. The Russian hydrographic office, that is working on an extensive scale, is striving hard to become independent of English charts. Even the hydrographic offices of the smaller countries, as of Spain, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Holland, and Sweden, render valuable services to their merchant marine, though confining themselves mostly to their own coasts, leaving the survey of foreign coasts to England and France.

THE MULATTO IN THE NEGRO PROBLEM.

THE large part played by the mulatto factor in the American race problem is the subject of a suggestive article in the *May Atlantic Monthly* by Mr. Alfred H. Stone, of Greenville, Miss., who has studied the negro in the Yazoo-Mississippi Delta. Mr. Stone advances the thought that we have greatly underestimated the importance of the mulatto in the race problem. In fact, he thinks that were it not for the mulatto, there would be no race problem. He thinks it a matter of regret that the twelfth census did not attempt to enumerate separately the mulatto element. Mr. Stone points out that the people who have argued that the negro is capable of unlimited development, proving it by the achievements of individuals of his race, have really forgotten that these individuals were mulattoes, "from Murillo's favorite pupil down to Crispus Attucks, Benjamin Banneker, Douglass, Bruce, Lynch, the late Sir Conrad Reeves, Du Bois, Washington, Cheenutt, and others."

THE REAL NEGRO IS CONTENTED.

Mr. Stone contends that when free from white or mulatto influence, the negro is of a contented, happy disposition. He is docile, tractable, and unambitious, with but few wants, and those easily satisfied. "He inclines to idleness, and though having a tendency to the commission of

petty crimes, is not malicious, and rarely cherishes hatred. He cares nothing for the 'sacred right of suffrage,' and when left to his own inclinations, will disfranchise himself by the thousand rather than pay an annual poll-tax. He infinitely prefers the freedom and privileges of a car of his own to the restraint of one in which he would be compelled to mingle with white people." As for the real negro,—the negro of the masses,—Mr. Stone thinks he presents few, if any, serious problems, and "none which he may not himself work out if let alone and given time. But it will be an individual rather than a race solution; the industrious will as children acquire a common-school education, and as adults will own property; those capable of higher things will find for themselves a field for the exercise of their talents, just as they are doing to-day; the vicious and shiftless will be as are the vicious and shiftless of other races."

WHERE THE COMPLAINTS COME FROM.

The complaints over "the lack of opportunities under which the negro labors," and the "injustice of race distinction," do not come, according to Mr. Stone, from the negro, but from the mulatto or white politician. "Through the medium of race papers and magazines, the pulpit, industrial and political gatherings and associations, the mulatto wields a tremendous influence over the negro. It is here that his importance as a factor in whatever problems may arise from the negro's presence in this country becomes manifest,—and the working out of such problems may be advanced or retarded, just as he wisely or unwisely plays the part which fate—or Providence—has assigned him. The negro, like the white man, responds more readily to bad influences than to good, and the example and precepts of a hundred men like Washington and Du Bois may be easily counteracted by the advice and influence of some of the very men of whom the mulatto type unfortunately furnishes too many examples.

THE GOOD AND THE BAD INFLUENCES.

"Booker Washington may in all sincerity preach the gospel of labor; he may teach his people, as a fundamental lesson, the cultivation of the friendship and esteem of the white man; he may point out the truth that for the negro the privilege of earning a dollar is of much greater importance than that of spending it at the white man's theater or hotel; yet all these lessons must fail of their fullest and best results so long as the negro's mind is being constantly poisoned with the radical teachings and destructive doctrines of the mulatto of the other school."

TRANSPORTING NEW YORK'S MILLIONS.

THE most difficult transit problem in the world, is Mr. W. W. Wheatly's characterization of the work of transporting New York's population, in an article in the *May World's Work*. It is not difficult to believe this phrase when it is considered that the New York street railways carry more passengers than all the other railroads in North and South America.

For practical purposes, the total metropolitan population at the beginning of 1903 is 4,500,000, the figure obtained by adding the three New Jersey counties just across the Hudson to the several boroughs of Greater New York. The annual average rate of increase is more than one hundred thousand, so that even allowing for some decrease in the annual rate during the next decade, the population of the year 1913 should be something more than six million people.

The surface and elevated roads of New York already carry twice as many people every year as all the steam railroads of the United States combined. Experts consider that with a population, ten years hence, of 6,000,000, and a possible daily passenger travel in the metropolitan district of 8,000,000, it is probable that the number of people seeking exit from the business district between 5 and 6 o'clock each evening will be 500,000, instead of half that number, as now. Thus, the gigantic transit plans for the metropolis must be undertaken in anticipation of possibly twice the present great demand on it.

WHERE THE REAL PROBLEM LIES.

"But the real problem of transit relief relates primarily to the lower end of Manhattan. With the exception of the few bridges and tunnels which deliver the east-and-west travel direct to the business district, it is certain that the swarms of people from the other bridges and tunnels will be thrown upon the local Manhattan lines for distribution. The travel from the Blackwell's Island bridge, the Pennsylvania-Long Island Railroad tunnel, and the New York and New Jersey tunnel, will be dumped upon the south-bound lines in the morning, and upon the north-bound lines in the evening, at the height of the rush hour."

WORK ALREADY CUT OUT FOR THE NEW ROADS.

It is expected that the four tracks in subway No. 1 will be crowded to the maximum limit as soon as operations begin. In this subway, 540 cars an hour will move in one direction, with perhaps 43,000 passengers seated and standing. Nine additional tracks are proposed by Engineer Parsons, but they are not yet authorized, and it will require from three to five years for their com-

pletion. In the meantime, the electrical development of the Hudson, Harlem, and Putnam divisions of the New York Central, and the main line of the New Haven road, for a distance of twenty to thirty-five miles to the northward, the building of the new Portchester road, the extension of the elevated and subway routes to various parts of the Bronx and Westchester, will make a further great increase in the number of long-distance passengers seeking through train service to and from the business districts.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LONG ISLAND.

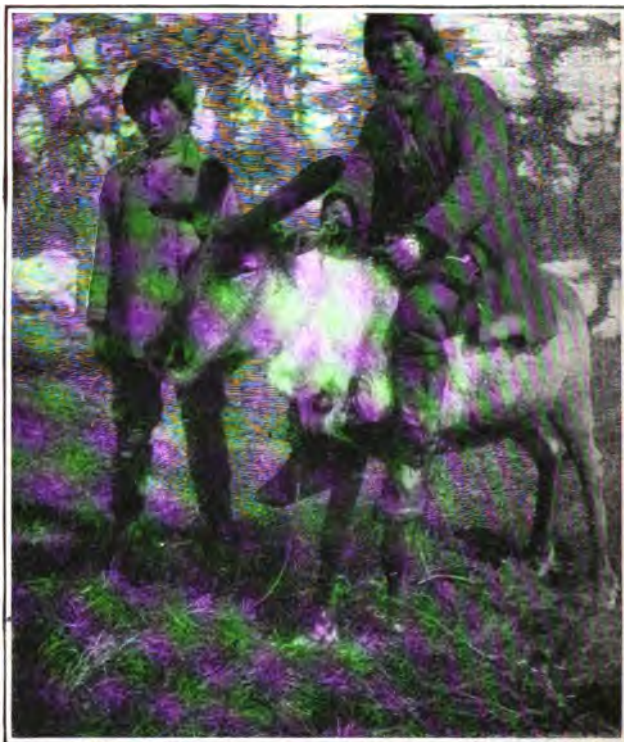
The additional bridges and tunnels pointing toward Long Island will be completed in 1907 or 1908. They provide for thirty tracks, where now there are but four. This enormous increase of facility in reaching Long Island will bring a tremendous movement toward that suburb of New York along the lines of least resistance. It looks as if there would be an immediate overflow toward Long Island of the hundreds of thousands now unwillingly crowded into the tenements and flat houses of Manhattan. It may be that a magnificent city on Long Island will grow up within a few years, to overshadow Manhattan and carry with it the center of population of Greater New York.

REINDEER IN ALASKA.

THE failure, a few days ago, of an attempt to bring reindeer from Lapland to Alaska has led some people to make the mistake of assuming that the Alaskan reindeer industry is no longer successful. That such a view of the situation is very far from the truth is clearly shown by Mr. Gilbert H. Grosvenor in the *National Geographic Magazine* for April. This writer says:

"Twelve years ago, Dr. Sheldon Jackson brought his first herd of sixteen reindeer across Bering Strait from Siberia and started his reindeer colony at Unalaska, off the bleak coast of Alaska. Many then smiled at the experiment and declared his plan for stocking the great barrens of northwestern Alaska with thousands of the animals which for centuries had been indispensable to the natives of Lapland and Siberia was impracticable and wasteful of time and good money. But the experiment prospered from the very first. Other reindeer, numbering nearly one thousand in all, during the succeeding years, were brought over from Siberia. Today, there are nearly six thousand head in the

various herds distributed along the Alaskan coast from Point Barrow to Bethel. The existence of the twenty thousand natives of northwestern Alaska, as well as the success of the miners who are beginning to throng into the interior of the territory in the far North, are



RIDING THE REINDEER IN SUMMER.

dependent upon these domestic reindeer; their clothing, their food, their transportation, their utensils, and their shelter are all furnished them by the reindeer.

"The reindeer enterprise is no longer an experiment, although still in its infancy. There are four hundred thousand square miles of barren tundra in Alaska where no horse, cow, sheep, or goat can find pasture; but everywhere on this vast expanse of frozen land the reindeer can find the long fibrous, white moss which is his food. There is plenty of room for ten million of these hardy animals. The time is coming when Alaska will have great reindeer ranches like the great cattle ranches of the Southwest, and they will be no less profitable."

REINDEER-RAISING AS AN INDUSTRY.

For the introduction into Alaska of domestic reindeer from Siberia, Congress has appropriated,

during the past ten years, \$158,000. In regard to the profits of reindeer-raising, Mr. Grosvenor says:

"A fawn during the first four years costs the owner less than \$1 a year. At the end of the four years, it will bring at the mines from \$50 to \$100 for its meat, or if trained to the sled or for the pack, is easily worth \$100 to \$150.

"The fawns are very healthy, and but few die; the does are prolific, and after they are two years of age add a fawn to the herd each year for ten years. Last year, out of fifty does two years and more of age in one herd, forty-eight had fawns, and of these only five died, three of which were lost through accidents or by the carelessness of the herder.

"The reindeer are so gregarious and timid that one herder can easily guard one thousand head. The herder knows that if a few stray off he need not look for them, as they will soon become frightened and rejoin the main herd.

"The does make almost as good sled deer as the bulls and geldings. They are slightly smaller and less enduring.

"The Chukchee deer cost, in Siberia, about \$4 a head for a full-grown doe or bull. The fawns born in Alaska are larger and heavier than the parent stock. The Tunguse deer cost nearly \$7.50 apiece. By the addition of the Tunguse breed, it is hoped that the Alaska stock will be improved and toughened.

"The reindeer cow gives about one teacupful of very rich milk, nearly as thick as the best cream, and making delicious cheese. Mixed with a little water, the milk forms a refreshing drink. The Siberians and Laplanders save the blood of slaughtered deer and serve it in powdered form. From the sinews, tough thread is obtained."

In concluding his article, Mr. Grosvenor gives this optimistic picture of the Alaskan reindeer's prospects:

"Even if no more reindeer are imported from Siberia, if the present rate of increase continues, doubling every three years—and there is no reason why it should not—within less than twenty-five years there will be at least one million domestic reindeer in Alaska. This is a conservative estimate, and allows for the deer that die from natural causes and for the many that will be slaughtered for food. In thirty-five years, the number may reach nearly ten million head, and Alaska will be shipping each year to the United States anywhere from five hundred thousand to one million reindeer carcasses and thousands of tons of delicious hams and tongues. At no distant day, it may be safely predicted, long reindeer trains from arctic and subarctic

Alaska will roll into Seattle and our most western cities like the great cattle trains that now every hour thunder into the yards of Chicago."

THE CHUKCHEE REINDEER-RAISERS OF SIBERIA.

A CURIOUS tribe of people dwelling in the far North was discovered by Mr. Waldemar Bogoras, of the American Museum of Natural History, in his journey to northeastern Asia in behalf of the Jesup North Pacific Expedition, and these Chukchee are described in the May number of *Harper's Magazine*. The pictures of the Siberian natives show a strong likeness to the American Eskimo, with much more decided Mongolian traits of physiognomy. The explorer says that the country he traversed two years ago, on this expedition, in northeastern Siberia, and three hundred miles from the shore of Bering Sea, has never before been visited by white men. After a terrible nineteen days' journey inland from the Pacific Ocean, the writer and his guides came upon a Chukchee village, and were entertained with the delicacies of the season, which happened to be frozen meat pounded fine and mixed with tallow, raw kidneys cut in thin slices, bone marrow, and other northern dainties. The party sat on thick skins and feasted surrounded by the whole population of the camp.

The Chukchee show marked differences from the other tribes of Asia, and in their customs and beliefs bear strong resemblance both to the American Eskimo and to the Indians of our northeastern shore.

This wild country, twice as big as the whole German Empire, has a population of about twenty thousand only, of reindeer-raisers.

"The Chukchee are a fierce, warlike tribe. Two centuries ago, in wars with Cossack invaders, they held their ground to the last. When taken captive, they would end their own lives; and women would kill their children and burn themselves in their tents rather than fall into the hands of the victors. At last, in the middle of the eighteenth century, large bodies of Chukchee warriors twice succeeded in heavily defeating strong Cossack parties, whose chiefs were killed, or taken captive and afterward slowly tortured to death. Then the Russian Government, tired with useless wars, ordered hostilities to cease; and since that time the Chukchee reindeer-breeders have lived unmolested in the middle of their desolate barren tundra.

"Much of their fierceness, however, is still retained at the present time. Murders are frequent, and they are followed by continual acts

of blood-revenge, unless the relatives of the first murderer speedily dispose of him themselves, and thus remove the cause of strife. Cases of suicide are hardly less numerous, because even very young people are quite reckless of their own lives, and when thwarted in their purpose will destroy themselves from anger or spite, jealousy or unassuaged desire. Persons suffering from some incurable illness, and especially old men and women weakened with age, often proclaim their wish to be killed by their nearest relatives. Then the sons or the nephews, who otherwise are kind and dutiful to their elders, feel themselves bound to comply, however unwillingly, with the request. No retraction is permissible, since such an announcement is considered as a promise of human sacrifice to the evil spirits. If taken back, the revenge of the spirits on the whole family will be incurred."

PROSPEROUS CANADA.

THE migration, within the past year or two, of thousands of substantial American citizens to the fertile lands beyond our northern border adds a new element of interest to such a survey of Canadian affairs as Mr. Erastus Wiman contributes to the *North American Review* for April. Optimistic, Mr. Wiman certainly is, as regards Canada's commercial and industrial future. He shows from the reports of the Dominion Department of Trade and Commerce that the aggregate foreign trade of the country was 91 per cent. greater in 1902 than in 1895, and that the total trade showed a gain of over \$70 *per capita*. In the meantime, certain Canadian articles, like cheese, have taken a high place in the foreign markets because of their excellence, and are likely to maintain their prestige permanently. Mr. Wiman favors a zollverein arrangement between the United States and Canada.

AREA COMPARED WITH THAT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Mr. Wiman says that annexation to the United States is unpopular and disapproved in Canada, not because the Canadians love the Yankees less, but because they love themselves more and propose to develop their own country in their own way. Americans do not always fully realize that Canada comprises more space on the earth's surface than all the States of the Union taken together. "It is not only the larger of the two countries, but, because of its enormous volume of minerals, and, specially, because of its food-producing lands, it is believed by Canadians to be the richer. Omitting the possessions of both

countries in Alaska, Canada has five hundred thousand square miles more of land available than the United States; besides, it has more than half the fresh water of the globe within its borders and within its control—a fact of supreme importance, as will be seen later on, when its geographical location and the grades of its rivers are realized. This five hundred thousand square miles of land comprises Northwest Canada, rendered available within the last twenty years through the operations of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which has made all Canada accessible."

GRAIN-GROWING, MINING, AND MANUFACTURING.

We have lately heard a great deal in the United States about the wheat-growing possibilities of Northwest Canada. The future of this industry is still somewhat problematic, but Mr. Wiman shows that Canada has at least one distinct advantage, as a grain-grower, over her competitors,—namely, a system of cheap and ready transportation to the seaboard.

Another important element of wealth in Canada is her paper pulp-wood. The area covered by this timber extends from the interior of Labrador, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia west and northwest to Alaska, north of the St. Lawrence valley and the prairie sections, almost up to the Arctic Circle, and is estimated to comprise 450,000,000 acres. The entire region is probably better supplied with water power than any equivalent area on the earth's surface. This latter fact has especial significance in connection with the manufacture of paper, and the power plants already established, described in a recent number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, seem to indicate a rapid development of manufacturing enterprises.

As to Canada's mineral resources, Mr. Wiman says:

"Rich ores of iron abound all the way from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Among many localities, may be mentioned Texada Island, between Vancouver Island and the mainland; several places along the Crow's Nest line of the Canadian Pacific Railway system; the Atikokan district, about seventy miles west of Thunder Bay; the Iron Lake, Frances, and Helen hematite mines near the northeastern angle of Lake Superior, extensive deposits of rich ores in various parts of the country between Lake Ontario and the Ottawa River, and in the valley of this stream; besides many others of different kinds of iron ore in the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia, and on the east side of Hudson Bay and in the Labrador peninsula (which is one thousand miles across).

Canada possesses coal enough to supply the

world. Although the limits of her enormous coal fields in the Northwest Territories, and in the mountainous country extending from the State of Washington to beyond the Arctic Circle, have not yet been accurately defined, they probably exceed those of the United States, and consequently of any other country in the world. It is a remarkable and important fact that, while the United States possesses no coal fields on the shores of either ocean, Canada has rich mines capable of great development at tidewater in Nova Scotia on the Atlantic and on Vancouver Island on the Pacific."

The Dominion Geological Survey has reported as follows on the mineral wealth of the country :

"Almost every mineral and metal known can be found in Canada, and a number of the most valuable products exist here in quantities not exceeded anywhere else in the world ; take, for instance, the metals iron, copper, lead, nickel, gold, silver, zinc, manganese, and the non-metallic minerals, coal, petroleum, natural gas, salt, corundum, asbestos, gypsum, cements, phosphates, mica, slate, etc."

SOUTHERN COTTON MILL COMMUNITIES.

THE defeat of the child-labor bill in the Georgia Legislature has caused an impression to prevail in the North that the situation, so far as Southern factory conditions are concerned, is well-nigh hopeless. An article by Mrs. Leonora Beck Ellis in the *American Journal of Sociology* for March should go far to remove such an impression, since it brings clearly into view certain distinctly favorable aspects of Southern factory life which have received scant attention from most writers on the subject.

ECONOMIC OBJECTIONS TO CHILD LABOR.

It is evident, in the first place, that practical considerations are operating very effectively against the system of child labor in cotton mills, in the South as well as elsewhere.

"Manufacturers in this part of the country, as in Massachusetts or Illinois, are learning the lesson that it is a false economy, with expensive practical as well as ethical results, which prompts the employment of the low-priced labor of children. Delicate machinery operated at high speed demands more intelligent and steadfast attention, to secure the best results, than untaught and usually careless childhood can give it. The direct loss thus involved counts heavily in the course of a year, and comes to be weighed comparatively as the adult labor of a section grows more skillful and satisfactory ; nor are clear-headed mill men slow to discover that such loss,

estimated closely, is by no means compensated for by the low scale of wages to the child operative."

As a matter of fact, a recent report of the North Carolina Labor Commission shows that, while in 1895 there were 6,046 children employed in the factories of that State, in 1899 there were only 3,308—a decrease of 50 per cent. in four years, although during this same period there was an increase of 50 per cent. in the number of women and 100 per cent. in the number of men similarly employed, to meet an increase of nearly 40 per cent. in the number of spindles. These facts tend to justify, in a measure, the optimistic conclusion reached by Mrs. Ellis, that child labor in factories is a rapidly vanishing evil.

From this conclusion, Mrs. Ellis passes on to a study of the homes and the family life of the mill operatives throughout the new manufacturing South.

A RURAL PEOPLE.

Among the points of difference between the factory operatives of the South and those of other sections, Mrs. Ellis notes, first, the absence of "urban instincts" in the Southern communities. The good and the bad in these mill workers, she says, are still such qualities as belong to a strictly rural people ; but with the passing of the present generation this characteristic must be largely lost.

"It may be asked : What are the indications of this quality which, for lack of a better word, is named 'rusticity' ? The signs are many and easy to read. No observant person can miss the plain evidence even in his first day with the mill people. He walks past the cottages row on row, and sees prince's feather and bachelor's button growing in the tiny yards, patchwork quilts sunning from the windows, and strings of red pepper festooned on the back porch. The boys are quite often chewing tobacco, but they are not smoking cigarettes. Often, alas ! the girls dip snuff, but they do not lace in their waists nor attempt handkerchief flirtations. The women are given to quiet, and a profound reserve usually marks their social intercourse. The festive gatherings in the 'amusement halls' on Saturday nights are either stiff parties or genuine country dances. The 'barbecue' is common on a general holiday, and the 'all-day singing' of a Sunday still remains the acme of enjoyment, affording the perfect blending of sociality and devotion.

NATIVE AMERICANS.

"A second quality differentiating our people from the Northern factory communities of to-day is what may well be called their unmodified

maintain a navigable stage through the bar at the principal estuary.

"Here are two opposing conditions for which money has been lavishly expended,—levees to hold the waters in a confined channel, and obstructions at the river's outlets which must necessarily prevent a rapid disposition of the flood waters.

"When to these overflowing streams of the eastern watershed there come from the Rocky Mountains the melting snows and from Texas and Colorado the cloudbursts, which frequently occurs, through the Arkansas, Red, and Canadian rivers, and from the more northerly Platte, Yellowstone, and Missouri, the antagonistic works of man must give way before the terrible influences of nature.

"But why all this waste of rain when every drop that falls as rain or snow is needed by the growing population of the States of the West?

THE USES OF FORESTS.

"By a systematic reafforestation of the mountain regions and the planting of trees on the plains at headwaters of these Western rivers, and the construction of extensive storage reservoirs to supply water for irrigation, this country must be vastly improved in agriculture, manufactures benefited by water power, and navigation improved by a regularity of flow in various streams; a recurrence of such disastrous floods in the South would be impossible, as, relieved of the surplus water of the Western streams, which back up and retard the flow of the great Mississippi, the Ohio would be fully competent to carry away the waters of its drainage area. And with a proper systematic reafforestation of the Alleghany and eastern mountains, and the broken lands along the various streams, the forces of nature could be easily overcome and the nation be forever benefited."

IS MAN THE CENTER OF THE UNIVERSE?

ARE we going to come back to the old familiar theory of the universe, according to which Man was the center of all creation, the sun, the moon, and the stars being the convenient street lamps created for his convenience? The discovery of the immensity of this sidereal universe led to the belittling of the importance of man. We seemed to become as insignificant as cheesemites seated upon one of the minor planets in a universe which contained one hundred million worlds. "What is man that thou art mindful of him?" was the inquiry which gained in force with every improvement of the telescope. As system after system was revealed, each fresh

discovery seemed to make more utterly unthinkable the old theory which had its expression in the Book of Genesis. But now an article which Alfred Russel Wallace contributes to the March number of the *Fortnightly* gives us hope that our good conceit of ourselves is about to be revived, and that we are going to come back to the old faith by the very latest and most approved scientific road. For if Dr. Wallace is correct, there is a strong presumption that we are after all the center of the whole universe.

He maintains that there is no reason to believe that the stars are infinite in number. He says that the increased size and power of the telescope, and that powerful engine of research, the photographic plate, alike lead to the same conclusion,—namely, that we are piercing to the outer elements of the starry system. The total number of visible stars from the first to the ninth magnitude is about two hundred thousand. If they increased in number on to the seventeenth magnitude at the same rate that they increased from the first to the ninth, there ought to be 1,400,000,000 stars visible through the best telescope, instead of which there are not more than 100,000,000. As our instruments reach farther and farther into space they find a continuous diminution in the number of stars, thus indicating the approach of the outer elements of the stellar universe. If the universe is not infinite, but has limits, where is its center? He says that the new astronomy has led us to the conclusion that our sun is one of the central orbs of a globular star cluster, and that this star cluster occupies a nearly central position of the exact plane of the Milky Way. Combining these two conclusions, Dr. Wallace states definitely that our sun is thus shown to occupy a position very near to, if not actually at the center of, the whole visible universe, and therefore in all probability is the center of the whole material universe. This conclusion, he maintains, has been arrived at gradually and legitimately by means of a vast mass of precise measurements and observation by wholly unprejudiced workers.

Not only are we the hub of the universe, but Dr. Wallace thinks that there is grave reason to doubt whether life could have originated and have been developed upon any other planet. It was necessary that for hundreds of millions of years the surface temperature should never for any considerable time fall below freezing-point or rise above boiling-point. None of the other planets appear to possess this and other fundamental features which have made life possible on the earth. Among these features, he maintains that the importance of volcanoes and deserts has never been properly appreciated.

Without volcanoes and without deserts, we should not have had that uninterrupted supply of atmospheric dust without which the earth would have been uninhabitable by men. Our position, therefore, without the solar system is as central and unique as that of our sun in the whole starry universe. He sums up his conclusions as follows :

"The three startling facts—that we *are* in the center of a cluster of suns, and that that cluster is situated not only precisely in the *plane* of the Galaxy, but also *centrally* in that plane, can hardly now be looked upon as chance coincidences without any significance in relation to the culminating fact that the planet so situated has developed humanity.

"Of course, the relation here pointed out *may* be a true relation of cause and effect, and yet have arisen as the result of one in a thousand million chances occurring during almost infinite time. But, on the other hand, those thinkers may be right who, holding that the universe is a manifestation of mind, and that the orderly development of living souls supplies an adequate reason why such a universe should have been called into existence, believe that we ourselves are its sole and sufficient result, and that nowhere else than near the central position in the universe which we occupy could that result have been attained."

If Dr. Wallace be right, it is obvious what an important bearing his conclusion will have upon the whole field of theological thought.

An Opposing View.

It is said that Dr. Wallace is at present engaged in writing a book in which he will elaborate the thesis advanced in his *Fortnightly* article. Meantime, Prof. H. H. Turner, of Oxford, offers a reply in the April number; and it must be admitted that he puts a very different light upon Dr. Wallace's arguments. As regards the existence of life on other planets, Mr. Turner sums up Dr. Wallace's argument as follows :

"Life is impossible at the uttermost boundaries of the universe. Therefore, it is only possible at the exact center."

But even if we are at the center of the universe, which Mr. Turner does not admit, he maintains that we are there only temporarily and accidentally. The solar system is moving through space at a rate which would take us to Sirius in one hundred thousand years, if we happened to be moving that way. In the fifty million or one hundred million years during which this earth has been inhabited, we must have passed thousands of stars, and other stars must have held the position before. If the

universe is as finite as Dr. Wallace argues, we should have traversed it from boundary to boundary in that time. Professor Turner, however, does not admit that the apparent thinning out of the stars at what Dr. Wallace considers the borders of the universe proves that the universe is finite. There are everywhere dark stars and dark nebulae which obstruct light, and therefore the fact that no stars can be perceived beyond certain limits proves nothing. Finally, we are not even temporarily at the center of the universe. The universe, as known, is like a saucepan—we may be at the center of the bowl, but not at the center of the bowl and handle taken together.

THE COMING TELESCOPE.

IN the May *Harper's*, there is an account by Prof. G. W. Ritchey of "Photographing the Nebulae with Reflecting Telescopes" which gives a most surprising idea of the feats of the astronomical photographer, when it is considered that the camera has been seriously used in astronomy for only about twenty years, although the first work of photographing the moon was done forty years ago by Draper. This writer gives some very interesting information as to the possibilities of building much larger telescopes than now exist. The largest ever constructed was Lord Rosse's, of six feet in diameter. This was sixty years ago, and nowadays modern reflecting telescopes one foot in diameter will give photographs more distinct and brilliant than Lord Rosse could obtain.

GREAT MIRRORS NOW POSSIBLE.

When this is said, Professor Ritchey's further statements become all the more interesting. He says no *great* telescope now exists, and that it is entirely possible now to construct a great reflector with even more than the refinement of the instrument in the Yerkes Observatory. "In the optical shop of the Yerkes Observatory is the nearly finished mirror for a reflecting telescope of five feet aperture. Two years' work has already been done upon this glass by the writer. The rough disk for this mirror was cast at the glass-works of St. Gobain, near Paris. It is five feet in diameter, is eight inches thick, and weighs a ton. No serious difficulties have been encountered in making this mirror, and there can be not the slightest doubt that an eight-foot mirror could now be made which would be as perfect in all respects as the mirror of the two-foot reflector which we are now using in photography. The French makers of the rough disks of glass have recently expressed their readiness

to undertake for us a ten-foot disk, one foot thick, which they think would be as homogeneous, as well annealed, and as perfect in all respects as the five-foot disk.

"I do not advocate mere bigness. In order that the improvement in the photographs obtained with a great reflecting telescope shall be proportional to the increase of size, all parts of the instrument must be made with the utmost care and skill; with all of the perfection made possible by modern engineering and mechanical methods, and by the latest improvements in glass-making and in optical work.

REFLECTING AND REFRACTING INSTRUMENTS.

"Some idea of the compactness, the rigidity, and the economy of construction possible in the mounting of a great reflector can be gained when I state that the tube of a reflector of eight feet aperture would be less than forty feet long,—twenty-three feet shorter than the tube of the forty-inch Yerkes refractor; and that the diameter of the dome required for such a great reflector would be eighty feet,—ten feet less than that of the dome of the forty-inch refractor. The cost of an eight-foot reflector, constructed with the greatest economy and simplicity, and yet with the utmost refinement, for use in photography, together with the cost of the dome, would be little, if any, greater than that of the Yerkes refractor with its dome.

WHAT WE COULD SEE WITH AN EIGHT-FOOT REFLECTOR.

"Judging from the results obtained with the two-foot instrument, an eight-foot reflector, if used in a climate where atmospheric conditions are fine, would photograph stars which are fifty times fainter than the faintest stars which can be seen with the largest modern refractors. This means that such a reflector would enable us to penetrate seven times farther into space than can now be done with the greatest visual telescopes, and therefore that such an instrument would reveal to us a universe seven times seven times seven—more than three hundred—times greater than the universe which is revealed by the most powerful modern refractors.

"Such a great reflector would give us photographs of the nebulae of about five times the scale of the photographs obtained with the two-foot reflector; the delicate structure and minute details of these wonderful objects would be shown proportionately better, provided that the instrument were used in a suitable climate. I know of no opportunity which has ever been presented in the entire history of astronomy greater than that which now awaits us in the

construction of a large modern reflector and its use in astronomical photography. We are accustomed to think of the construction of such a great telescope as an enormous undertaking; and yet the cost of an eight-foot reflector would be about one-twentieth that of a great modern office building or a modern battleship. How insignificant does even such a telescope appear when we think of the inconceivable depths of space which we are trying to penetrate; of the great works of the Creator which we are trying to study; of the problem of the development, the evolution, of suns and worlds which we are endeavoring to solve."

WHAT SCIENCE HAS FOUND OUT ABOUT THE BRAIN.

"THE Mechanism of the Brain" is the title of an article in the May *Harper's* by Mr. Carl Snyder, who reports the latest discoveries and hypotheses of our scientists in regard to the composition and function of that organ. For half a century, the scientific world has recognized that the vital part of the brain and the nerves seems to be highly phosphorized fat, and that without the phosphorus, this fat does not seem to think. Mr. Snyder pithily says: "Whether it be the brain-cell of a glowworm, or one trembling with the harmonies of 'Tristan und Isolde,' the stuff it is made of is much the same; it is a difference of structure, apparently, rather than of material. And the chemical difference between a brain or nerve cell and that of the muscles or the skin seems reducible mainly to a difference in the proportion of two substances,—water and phosphorus. Lean beef, for example, is from 70 to 80 per cent. water; the brain is from 90 to 95 per cent. water. And a brain or nerve cell may contain from five to ten times as much phosphorus as, let us say, the cells of the liver or the heart. The actual quantity is, of course, extremely small,—by weight, but a fraction of 1 per cent."

THE SIZE OF THE HUMAN BRAIN.

The brain of the average man weighs about three pounds. There is more of the phosphorized fat down the spinal column, and little plexuses all over the body, wherever a group of muscles are to be moved; and others still, the sensory or feeling nerves, which are everywhere. This nervous substance is made up of distinctly separated units, most of them extremely minute, though some attain a length of two or three feet. "The cells which run from the small of the back down into your toes are the longest. Those of the brain are mostly so small as to tax the powers

of the microscope." One scientist estimates the number of brain-cells at 1,600,000,000.

"Of course, the number varies enormously, for the size and weight of the normal brain vary greatly. The size of the brains of comparatively few distinguished men is known, and most published figures are worthless. The list given below is authoritative, and speaks for itself. The sizes are given in cubic centimeters :

Average human brain, 1,400 ccm. (49 oz. av.).	
Dr. Dollinger.....	1,207
Harless.....	1,228
Gambetta.....	1,294
Liebig.....	1,352
Birchoff.....	1,452
Broca.....	1,485
Gauss.....	1,492
Agassiz.....	1,512
Thackeray.....	1,644
Schiller.....	1,781
Cuvier.....	1,829
Turgeneff.....	2,012
Byron.....	2,238

"It will be seen that Byron, who was commonly supposed to have a small head, is highest in the list ; and whatever may be thought of his poetry, certainly he was a man of rather mediocre intellectual attainments, as poets generally are ; while Baron Liebig, who possessed one of the best-equipped brains of the first half-century, was below the average."

HOW THE NERVE WAVES TRAVEL.

"Quick as thought" is not very quick. While a light wave would travel seven times around the equator in a second, a nerve wave makes only about a hundred feet a second. Just what this nerve wave is puzzles the scientific men. As there is no nerve action without the evident presence of electricity, it seems probable that nerve action, thought, and consciousness, and what in our present ignorance we call electricity, are one and the same.

PROFESSOR MATHEWS' EXPERIMENTS.

"This view gained heavy reinforcements a year ago from some brilliant experiments of Prof. Albert P. Mathews, who had been working on nerve-stimulation with Prof. Jacques Loeb in the University of Chicago. Professor Loeb, and others, had shown that in certain salt solutions an excised heart could be kept beating for hours ; further, that a piece of ordinary frog's muscle, for example, dipped in the same solutions, would beat rhythmically, like a heart.

"Professor Mathews took a step further. Instead of cutting away the nerves from the muscles, he left them joined at one end, merely separating the nerve enough to let the end of it hang in a cup of salt solution, while the frog's legs were suspended on a frame. The rhythmic beat began in a short time, just as if the muscles themselves were in the salt bath. Plainly, the nerve carried the stimulus, and, so far as any mortal could see, the stimulus was the same

as that which makes a live frog's muscles contract when it jumps. Whence came this stimulus ?

"The only solutions which give this effect are those capable of generating a current of electricity. A succession of electrical impulses, from a dynamo, for example, will make the frog's leg's twitch rhythmically, just as do these electrical solutions."

ENGLAND'S NEED OF UNIVERSITIES.

NOW and then is heard in England a demand for more and cheaper universities. Not more Oxfords and Cambridges, but institutions which make adequate provision for complete intellectual training and professional instruction, cheap and easily accessible for every boy or girl destined for a brain-working occupation. In the *Cornhill Magazine* for April, Mr. Sidney Webb argues convincingly on this line.

A HUMILIATING COMPARISON.

"The proportion of university students is going up in Holland and the United States at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum ; in Germany and Belgium, by 6 per cent. ; in Switzerland, by more than 7 per cent. ; while in France, Italy, Austria, and Russia the annual increase cannot fall behind these figures. On the other hand, in the United Kingdom the proportion of the population for whom we provide the highest training is at best stationary, and in some years actually declines. We may still believe that man for man an Englishman is superior to the citizen of any other country, but not even the most sanguine patriot can ignore the advantages of education. . . . We have come, at the opening of the twentieth century, to an era of professional expertness, in which the merely cultivated amateur is hopelessly beaten out of the field."

Mr. Webb points out that the new universities are not, and should never be, intended to become the rivals of Oxford and Cambridge. They have different aims and different methods,—they also appeal to different classes. He then describes the functions of the new universities, which is briefly to turn out the graduate fully equipped, not only as a cultivated citizen,—as is now the case,—but also as far as may be possible as a trained professional.

The conditions and limitations of the new universities imply,—first, that they will rapidly become large and numerous frequented institutions, and, secondly, that the standard of their teaching will be extremely high. They will be practical above everything else ; students will go there in order to master the subjects which

will enable them to gain a livelihood. This will compel an intensive study of each department of learning unknown to the average "pass" man. Imagine the economic professor at Oxford having to lecture on banking and currency daily before a class of bank clerks and branch managers in such a way as to retain their respect and convey instruction!

LONDON'S NEED.

Mr. Webb pleads for a great technical high school, of the Charlottenburg type, to be erected on the four or five acres of vacant land at South Kensington. The University of London is lamentably inadequate for the needs of the great metropolis! It needs money, and the stimulating impulse of a great ideal. It would take \$250,000 a year, at least, to put the science faculty properly on its feet. The engineering faculty is in such an infantile condition that the advanced mechanical student is advised to go to the McGill University at Montreal or the Polytechnikum at Zurich. To set the whole university on its feet and equip it with the necessary endowment requires at least five millions sterling. Each of the nine other new local universities proposed would require about \$2,500,000. Within the next decade, says Mr. Webb, it will be necessary to provide for England alone, for what we may call tertiary education and the advancement of learning, the equivalent of \$50,000,000.

The proposed universities are as follows:

"In London and its thirty miles radius; at Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Durham (with Newcastle-on-Tyne); for Yorkshire, for the East Midlands (with Nottingham), for East Anglia, for the southwestern counties (with Bristol, Exeter, and, it may be hoped, Plymouth), and for the south (with Reading and Southampton)."

MARTYRS OF THE POLE.

DURING the nineteenth century, two hundred ships have perished in Arctic exploration, over thirty million dollars has been spent, and numberless lives have been lost—but the mystery of the Pole remains unsolved.

THE RECORD OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

The *Deutsche Revue* contains a most interesting article by the Marquis de Nadaillac upon the martyrs of the North Pole. The nineteenth century closed with the expeditions of Greely, De Long, Jackson, Peary, Nansen, Andrée, and the Duke of Abruzzi; and the prize of the greatest effort was a few more miles of ice-field conquered, and the attainment to the highest

point yet reached, 83° 33' 49" north latitude. This was done by Captain Cagni, Abruzzi's lieutenant. Three men in his expedition were lost and never again seen. Andrée's project was condemned by all the highest authorities as quite impossible, and the writer considers that after such a clear sign from heaven as was given by the continuous contrary winds during a whole year, Andrée should have desisted. His two companions did so; but he had so many offers to fill their places that he could pick and choose as he liked. It was said that an American newspaper offered him \$20,000 to take one of its editors! Rumors of the discovery of the skeletons of the bold explorers were many, but none proved authentic. Sverdrup, however, seems to have achieved the greatest measure of success of all. He was captain of the *Fram* in Nansen's expedition. On that occasion, staying quietly on his ship, he penetrated almost as far north as did Nansen with fearful labor and privation. A second time he essayed to conquer the problem of the Pole in the *Fram*. He solved many important problems. He upset the theory that there was no land between America and Asia by the discovery of three islands. Sir Clements Markham, president of the Royal Geographical Society, spoke enthusiastically of Sverdrup, but strongly deprecated the costly expeditions which the various nations sent out in rivalry without any system of coöperation. He considers future North Pole expeditions as worthless; useless for geographical purposes; useless from the naturalist's point of view.

THE LATEST ATTEMPTS.

Sverdrup ought, perhaps, not to be considered a martyr of the North Pole, as he had a well-built ship under him all the time. Peary has proved by far the most energetic and persistent of Arctic explorers. He took his wife with him on his first expedition, during which a daughter was born to them. In all, he made seven expeditions, and discovered that Greenland was an island. The latest pioneers do not deserve the name of martyrs. They go in well-appointed ships, with tenders to keep them supplied with food and every luxury—and do nothing. The Russians made a bold attempt to reach the Pole by means of the ice-breaker, the *Zermak*, but it was a miserable failure. Two Danish expeditions did very good scientific work from the east side. They discovered a village full of skeletons. The men lying in the huts, the dogs at their feet, while the bones of bear and walrus round the huts showed that the grewsome sight was not caused by starvation, but by some sudden catastrophe.

THE GREAT BREAKFAST-FOOD INDUSTRY.

SOME astonishing facts of "The Industry That Cooks the World's Breakfast" are given by Mr. Frank Fayant in the *May Success*. Battle Creek, Mich., is the great home of this work, though there are other centers, such as the Buffalo manufactory of shredded-wheat products, which puts out a million biscuits a day and spends seven hundred thousand dollars a year in advertising. The Battle Creek gospel of prepared cereal foods is presented by Mr. Fayant as follows:

THE HEALTH-FOOD IDEA.

"A cereal-food factory is a huge digestive machine, relieving the human stomach of the more difficult part of the work of converting vegetable material into body tissue. The idea at Battle Creek, the birthplace of the 'health-food' industry, is that, as we gradually give up the vocations of brawn for the vocations of brain, we must change the character of our food. A farmer who toils from sunrise to sunset in the field, working his body and not his brain, is fit physically to eat foods that would send an office worker in a town to his doctor. When a swift torpedo-boat destroyer is sent out to secure a speed record, the engineers feed only picked coal to the fires; a present-day American, giving his whole thought to rapid achievement, is equally in need of picked fuel. It is a strange condition of affairs that, in this age of scientific research and of marvelous investigations into the secrets of life, we give so little scientific thought to the food we eat. At Battle Creek, dietetists have been working out a reform in food for thirty years. Their progress was slow up to the time when a few shrewd men saw the commercial possibilities of health-food manufacture. Now diet reform is rapidly becoming a question of national interest. With ten million dollars a year being spent to advertise 'breakfast foods,' the public is forced to take an interest in the food question. One cannot pick up a magazine, or ride in a street car, or walk down a street, without having the merits of some new cereal food brought before his eye. The idea of a scientific diet that Battle Creek is spreading out over the world may not revolutionize the diet of the human race, but it will work a change in millions of kitchens."

MORE THAN A HUNDRED VARIETIES.

"The varieties of food and drink that can be made from fruits, nuts, and cereals are almost infinite in number. Already there are more than a hundred on the market. Within a few years, it would seem, this scientific preparation

of foods will be an immense industry, and the present remarkable output of nearly fifty million dollars' worth a year will be increased many times."

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE PACKAGE.

"The rise of the 'breakfast-food' industry has made popular the package idea for kitchens. American housewives take kindly to pasteboard packages, or cartons. The sudden growth of the industry would have been impossible without the cartons. Small pasteboard boxes and large wooden cases, each holding two or three dozen cartons, are very large items in the cost of production, but labor-saving machinery cuts these items down to a minimum. In the food factories, the cartons are cut, printed, and folded almost automatically; and after they have been automatically filled with cereal food, they are closed with paste by machinery. Only by the use of all this automatic machinery is it possible to keep the price of the cartons under a cent apiece. A fraction of a cent is not much money, but one Chicago factory spends more than five thousand dollars a day on cartons. It recently gave an order for ninety thousand dollars' worth of paper for labels and fifty tons of ink to print them. The cost of wooden packing-cases about equals that of the cartons. In putting a carton of a certain well-known breakfast food on the market, the cost of the cereal product is about two and one-third cents, and the cost of the packing one and one-third cents, making the cost of manufacture three and one-third cents. The selling price to the grocer is eleven and one-third cents, and to the public, fifteen cents. One factory uses a piece of paraffine paper to wrap the product inside the carton. This paper costs more than one hundred thousand dollars a year, but the manufacturers think that American housewives want to have it, and the sale of this particular product would seem to indicate that they are right."

THE MARGIN OF PROFIT IN HEALTH FOODS.

"With the cost of a carton of breakfast food only between three and four cents, and the retail selling price fifteen cents, the industry is one that attracts prospectors like a new gold field. But not all get rich who erect food factories. The profit in the sale of cereal foods is large, but a market is not to be had for simply the asking. It needs just as much business sagacity to make money out of a food factory as it does out of a rolling mill or a railway. A market can be created and kept in existence only by persistent publicity, and by publicity that costs. It costs from four hundred to eight hundred dollars in advertising to sell one thousand dollars'

worth of breakfast foods. The man who makes wheat-coffee spent, last year, eight hundred and eighty-four thousand dollars in advertising in eight hundred newspapers and thirty magazines, and this year he is spending a million dollars. The maker of shredded wheat spends seven hundred thousand dollars a year in publicity. The maker of another well-known food was recently spending more than one hundred thousand dollars a month for advertising. He paid five thousand dollars for the privilege of painting the name of his product on a big chimney in lower New York that can be seen from all the North River ferryboats. He has for months kept before the public eye a comic figure and some swinging rhymes about his food. He has made all America and England laugh, but the laugh has cost the manufacturer hundreds of thousands of dollars."

INSECT ENEMIES OF PINE FORESTS.

THE commercial interests of the owners of pine forests are seriously affected through injuries to the trees by insects (*Retiniæ*) which eat into the young leaf-buds and burrow in the branches, destroying the new growth to such an extent that in some places whole forests have become worthless.

The last number of the *Centralblatt für Bakteriologie* departs from its custom of publishing subject-matter relating only to the science of bacteriology, and presents a paper by Dr. J. R. Bos, of Amsterdam, concerning injuries by insects in the pine forests of Holland.

Most insects are totally different in appearance and habits during different phases of their life-history. The eggs from which they hatch do not contain enough food material to enable the developing organism to attain its perfect form before hatching, as birds, etc., do; consequently, the insect hatches as an immature, worm-like creature that proceeds to forage for itself until it is ready for its final metamorphosis into the mature form.

It is during the immature, larval stages, when eating is its chief occupation, that the insect acquires an economic importance through its injuries to the trees. One kind of retinia requires two years to develop to the adult form; the others, injurious to forest trees, require only one year.

One form (*Retinia duplana*) which attacks the leaf-buds of the pine reaches the mature, butterfly stage in April, and lays its eggs in the buds just before they are ready to grow out into branches. The larva hatches in May, and the new branches are already grown out before the

feeding of the worm becomes of any importance. On this account, the larva of this species is always found burrowing in the upper, tender part of the twig, with the result that the young needles growing in this part of the tree become sickly and fall off, followed by the withering of the whole branch.

A second form (*Retinia trionana*) attains the winged stage of development in May or June, when the young branches as well as the needles of the pine have grown out and the terminal buds are present. The adult butterfly deposits an egg in this bud, which contains the rudiments of next year's branches, and the larva, hatching in the autumn, eats out the bud, completely destroying it. The next year, lateral buds, which under normal conditions do not grow out, develop an excessive number of small branches which are short-lived and form the so-called witches' broom.

Another species (*Retinia buoliana*) becomes mature in July. The larva leaves the egg at the end of August, and eats very little, or nothing, before winter, but begins the following spring, when the leaf-bud has developed into a twig, which it eats out from underneath, commonly causing the twig to wither and die, when the larva attacks a second branch with similar effect. Sometimes, if the twig is very vigorous, it continues to grow after being burrowed into by the larva, but the injury first received weakens it and produces a bent branch called a wood horn.

The three species have similar habits, and the difference in the harm done is due chiefly to the difference in the time of egg-deposition and the consequent effect of the larva on the buds. Other variations may occur as the result of seasonal variations of the climate, condition of the soil, etc., which may cause an earlier development of the twigs, making them stronger and better able to resist the attacks of the larvæ, which would not be affected by such changes and would hatch at the usual time.

The French entomologists have seemed to find these insect pests especially troublesome, and have reported that in parks and forests infested by them not a pine tree escaped being killed or dwarfed. They consider these insects the worst enemy of pine-tree culture.

The signs of the presence of the insect larvæ are the development of an excessive number of sheath-like branches at certain places, the development of broad, thick needles, and also of needles growing in threes instead of twos. When young trees are attacked, they do not develop a main trunk, but instead have several branches and present the appearance of a bouquet of pine branches. Growing forests may be entirely ruined in this

way. An infected tree becomes a center of infection for the following year if left to itself. As a preventive, the tree should be destroyed or the infested branches broken off and burned. There are also a number of insects which are parasitic on the various species of retinæ, and will exterminate them if introduced into the infested localities. These insects determine in some way where the retinæ eggs are deposited and deposit their own eggs in the same place. The larva of the parasite hatches and devours the helpless and wood-eating larva.

ADELAIDE RISTORI.

THE octogenarian Italian actress, Ristori, now living in retirement in Rome, is the subject of a warmly appreciative sketch by Marie Donegan Walsh in the *Philharmonic*, of Chicago, for March.

Following in the footsteps of her parents, both of whom belonged to the dramatic profession, Ristori began her stage life at the age of twelve. "Her first important part (suggestive of the branch of art where she was to score her greatest triumphs) fell to the young actress' share in her fifteenth year, when she appeared in the tragedy of 'Francesca da Rimini.' Her actual dramatic career began in 1837, when she joined the Royal Sardinian Company. The young girl's real ability and talent were speedily realized in her native country, so keenly critical in matters of art that nothing short of genuine merit is accepted. After much study and hard work, Ristori played in various cities; and in every Italian city she visited, her success was assured. From this time, her series of triumphs began—triumphs which only ended with the tragedienne's retirement from the stage. Her fame became world-wide, every European capital opening its arms to the talented young artiste, the greatest living exponent of classic drama, whose exquisite charm and naturalness vied with her genius in captivating all hearts.

"The English people always proved fervent admirers of the great tragic actress, and some of the records of her great successes were in England. One of Ristori's performances was attended by Mazzini (at that time an exile in England), and in an interview with the trage-

dienne, the great Italian statesman assured her that her marvelous histrionic powers had evoked from him a tribute which not even the wrench of parting from his beloved country called forth,—that of tears. Adelaide Ristori was always an untiring champion in the cause of Italian liberty and unification, and eloquently pleaded her country's cause in many lands with unfailing success.

"Among other memorable achievements of Ristori was the rendering (after years of study) of 'Macbeth' in English, at Drury Lane, in 1882. Another notable success was registered once in theater-loving Manchester (always ready to appreciate real dramatic talent), when in their genuine admiration of the actress' perfection the public, forgetting insular reserve, shouted like one man 'Viva l'Italia!' The Old World and the New united in claiming Ristori; North and South America as well as Australia paid tribute to her gracious charm, and she was enthusiastically received on every visit paid to all the great cities of the United States.

"Her repertoire of plays is one of the most varied, perhaps, ever undertaken by an actress classic authors of divers nationalities being interpreted by the tragedienne with equal ability to those of her own nationality. Adelaide Ristori (unlike many tragic actresses) could 'stoop to conquer' by bright vivacity in comedy. Her masterpieces (given with unfailing success in almost every capital of the civilized world) were: 'Medea' by Ernest Legouv  (the celebrated French playwright, still living and in his ninety-seventh year). Schiller's 'Mary Stuart,' 'Macbeth,' 'Marie Antoinette,' 'Judith,' 'Mirra' by Alfieri, 'Phedee,' and 'Lucretia Borgia.' Besides these, Ristori has appeared in many other title *r les* by celebrated authors, both foreign and Italian. She has created many a striking figure in the annals of histrionic art; and none could outrival her in depicting types of the strongest and noblest, as well as the weakest, of womanhood. Side by side with the nobly sorrowful figures of a *Mary Stuart* and a *Marie Antoinette* there will go down to posterity an impassioned *Lady Macbeth*, a fateful *Medea*, a *Deborah* and *Judith* truly scriptural in their grandeur, or the bewitching sweetness of the light-hearted *Locandiera* by Goldoni."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

UNDER the title "The Hampered Executive," Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson, in the May *Century*, shows how Congress has come to limit the power of the Chief Executive which the laws seem to confer upon him. In crises, the President has enormous power. As Mr. Lincoln said, "As commander-in-chief of the army and navy in time of war, I suppose I have a right to take any measure which may best subdue the enemy." Until the war opens, however, the President has no discretion to speak of. He cannot even authorize experts to drill their troops in the methods which they deem the best unless Congress agrees, and Congress seldom agrees with expert advice. The President's second supposed power of granting pardons has also become limited, practically speaking, and the power of negotiating treaties, of nominating officers to the Senate, and other officers he has been authorized to appoint are notoriously dependent on the good-will of Congress. Mr. Nelson protests against the tendency to load responsibility on the President without the power which ought to accompany responsibility.

THE GREAT TIMBER OF OUR NORTHWEST.

A very readable article on the great forest districts of the Northwest is given by Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, under the title "The Conquest of the Forest." He gives some extraordinary facts concerning the waste of magnificent fir areas of the Northwest by fire and careless lumbering. It is estimated, for instance, that while about 20 per cent. of the available timber of Washington has been cut by lumbermen, over 22½ per cent. has been destroyed by fire. He says that timber in the Pacific Northwest seems all but inexhaustible. One authority estimates that there are standing in Washington 200,000,000,000 feet of timber,—red fir, hemlock, and cedar; in Oregon, 225,000,000,000 feet,—red fir and yellow pine; in California, 200,000,000,000 feet of the same species. At the present rate of cutting, 120 years would be necessary to exhaust the forests, but it is probable that the rate of cutting will increase enormously, owing to the exhaustion of the Eastern wood-supply. In two decades, the Oregon product has increased from \$2,000,000 to \$10,000,000 a year; Washington, from \$1,700,000 to over \$30,000,000; and California, from \$8,000,000 to over \$13,000,000.

THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO.

The recent disturbances in Morocco give an unusual interest to Mr. Arthur Schneider's "With the Sultan of Morocco." Mr. Schneider was a member of the Sultan's household for some sixteen months, to March, 1902, and acted as his majesty's preceptor in art. This writer paints the Sultan as a rather naive, well-intentioned young man, who has inherited from his mother a taste for the civilization of Europe.

There is a very pleasant chapter of reminiscences of "Modern Musical Celebrities," by Hermann Klein, dealing, this month, with Adelina Patti, who is to pay a visit to the United States next winter, singing in concert only. A chapter in the series of sketches of notable women deals with Mme. Blanc; Mr. Sylvester Baxter describes Sargent's mural painting, "The Redemption," in the Boston Public Library, and there is a sketch of "Thomas Arnold the Younger," by William T. Arnold.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

IN one of Mr. H. C. Merwin's delightful and discriminating essays in the May *Harper's*, "Recent Impressions of the English," he remarks that in respect to mental activity, England bears the same relation to Scotland that it does to the United States. "Both in Scotland and the United States, the average of intelligence is far higher than it is in England; but I think we must admit that in the nobler departments of intellectual achievements, we also are as yet inferior to the English. It is the same in respect to oratory. The average of the speaking in the House of Commons is lower than it is in the American House of Representatives, but the best English speakers surpass the best American speakers." Mr. Merwin refers merely to the abstract and higher branches. When it comes to applied science and practical art, he finds the American superior. In surgery, we are probably on a par with the English. In civil or mechanical engineering, we excel, and we are infinitely superior in trade, in mechanics and in manufactures.

WHERE SHAKESPEARE GOT "KING JOHN."

Mr. Edwin A. Abbey's Shakespearean illustrations appear, this month, in "King John," with a critical comment by Mr. Joseph Knight. Mr. Knight says there is no doubt that a previous play on the same subject was in existence when Shakespeare's "King John" was written, that it had been acted with success, and was afterward erroneously or fraudulently ascribed to Shakespeare. The title was "The Troublesome Raigne of John, King of England." Shakespeare exploited this play in the "King John" we know, and adhered closely to its story, though his obligation as regards language was scarcely perceptible.

Mrs. John Van Vorst writes on "The Woman of the People," there is an impressionistic study of Constantine by Mr. Arthur Symons, and a critical estimate by Hamilton Wright Mabie of Emerson's influence today, one hundred years after his birth. We have reviewed the following articles from the May *Harper's* among the "Leading Articles of the Month": "The Mechanism of the Brain," by Carl Snyder; "A Strange People of the North," by Waldemar Bogoras; and "Photographing the Nebulæ with Reflecting Telescopes," by Prof. G. W. Ritchey.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

CAPT. A. T. MAHAN, the famous naval authority, writes in the May *Scribner's* on "The Organization of the Navy Department in the United States." The whole extent of ocean in which the United States habitually maintains a naval force is divided into districts called stations, each one usually under an admiral, and each one independent and responsible solely and directly to the Secretary of the Navy. For providing and managing the tools of the naval seamen—ships, guns, and engines—and performing other acts of naval administration, there are eight bureaus in the department, each representing in its way the Secretary: Yards and Docks, Construction and Repair, Steam Engineering, Ordnance, Equipment, Supplies and Accounts, Navigation, Medicine and Surgery. Captain

Mahan thinks that the Navy Department lacks some sequence of interest and action, owing to the fact that there is a new Secretary chosen every four years, and there is no other body to perpetuate a traditional and positive policy. The navy needs in its administrative constitution "something which shall answer to the continuous interest of the people in civil details; something which, while wholly subordinate to every Secretary, shall embody a conservative and progressive service idea, and in so doing shall touch both the public, from whose sense of national needs impulse comes, and the administration, ashore and afloat, upon whose response to impulse efficiency depends. That a Secretary can do this has been abundantly shown; the dangerous possibility, also amply demonstrated, is that several in sequence may lack either will, or power, or professional understanding."

GENERAL GORDON'S REMINISCENCES.

The opening feature of *Scribner's* is a chapter of reminiscences by Gen. John B. Gordon, of the Confederate army, "My First Command, and the Outbreak of the War." General Gordon is one of the very last of the great figures of the war on the Southern side, and his account of the company he organized in the mountain districts of Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee,—the "Raccoon Roughs,"—is of unusual interest. General Gordon takes occasion to set off General Lee's view of the right and wrong of the great struggle against General Grant's, and to protest against any partisan utterances to-day. His own view is that at present the one thing "wholly and eternally wrong" is the effort of "so called statesmen to inject one-sided and jaundiced sentiments into the youth of the country in either section." He thinks there is no book in existence in which the ordinary reader can find an analysis of the issues between the two sections which fairly represents both the North and the South.

PRESTIDIGITATEURS AND MEDIUMS.

Mr. Brander Matthews, in "The Strangest Feat of Modern Magic," recounts an extraordinary exploit of the famous "magician," Robert-Houdin, before Louis Philippe in the Palace of Saint-Cloud in 1846. The "magician" himself does not explain the manner in which he accomplished the extraordinary trick, but Mr. Matthews undertakes to suggest ways in which it might have been achieved, and suggests, further, the caution it should compel in all honest investigators toward every one who professes to be able to suspend the operation of the custom of nature. "No one of the feats attributed to Home, the celebrated medium who plied his trade in Paris during the Second Empire, was more abnormal than this trick of Robert-Houdin's, and no one of them is so well authenticated."

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

MR. J. HENNIKER HEATON begins the May *Cosmopolitan* with an account of the working of the "Governmental Parcel Post in Great Britain." The writer advances the prophecy that every civilized nation will sooner or later possess a parcel post. "It is certain that a community which is content to leave the conveyance of its parcels in the hands of private contractors must either be miserably poor or immensely rich—and, it may be added, long-suffering." In England, the parcel post was established in 1836 by the late Henry Fawcett. The result shows that the post-office

gives 20 per cent. better speed in delivering articles than the private carriers, and the rates now charged in England are—for parcels up to a pound, threepence; up to two pounds, fourpence; and so on up to eleven pounds, with a charge of one shilling. Mr. Heaton says the United Kingdom has made notoriously bad bargains with the railroads. In order to offset this now to some extent, the post-office is beginning to send parcels by its own vehicles, horse or motor, now run on most of the main roads from London, and by this means 11,500,000 parcels a year are saved from the extortionate railway rates. When "franking" was allowed to members of Parliament and others, the privilege was sometimes sublet for as much as three hundred pounds a year. On one occasion, a member of Parliament sent a grand piano through the post-office, and a nurse and two cows were franked to the British ambassador in Holland.

SCIENTIFIC CORN-GROWING.

In "The Marvels of Corn Culture," Mr. A. D. Shamel, of the Illinois Experiment Station, tells of the extraordinary results of scientific breeding of corn to produce the most perfect ear and grain. He tells of individual instances of Illinois farmers who have improved the yield per acre as much as twenty-five bushels by using improved seed corn, and a single farmer is now planting seven thousand acres with this scientifically tested seed. Mr. Shamel complains that unscrupulous seed dealers have retarded this movement by advertising, under fancy names, really poor seed corn, shelled from good ears, poor ears, and nubbins without selection. After being persuaded by expensive and beautiful catalogues to try these seeds, the farmers would become disgusted and would denounce corn improvement as a fraud. Mr. Shamel says that nothing can be told from shelled corn. All seed corn should be bought in the ear, so that if the buyer is not satisfied with the type it need not be planted. There is no escape from the fact that ears will be produced like those of the seed.

THE GOULD-ROCKEFELLER ALLIANCE.

In the "Captains of Industry" articles this month, Mr. Samuel E. Moffett writes of the late Gustavus F. Swift, Mr. Dexter Marshall of Clement Acton Griscom, and Robert N. Burnett of George Jay Gould. Mr. Burnett says that Mr. Jay Gould's heir and successor had a serious altercation with Mr. J. P. Morgan over the proposed purchase of the New York & Northern Railroad by the Manhattan Elevated Railroad, and that this incident turned him to the Rockefeller's for aid in his project of extending the Gould system of railroads in the West. It is said that Mr. Gould has won the friendship and confidence of Mr. John D. Rockefeller to a marked degree, and that from year to year the Rockefeller millions have been poured into the various Gould schemes.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

"THE End of the World" is the title of the first article in the May *McClure's*, a title which suggests something startling over the name of Prof. Simon Newcomb, the eminent astronomer. Professor Newcomb writes from the vantage-point of 5000 or 6000 A.D. in telling how our planet came to grief through the collision of a dark star with the sun. When the astronomers on the summits of the Himalayas found this star, and made the more astonishing discovery that it

had no orbit,—in other words, that it was falling straight toward the sun,—the chief professor of physics in the world at once came to the conclusion that this meant trouble for the earth, a fact which was gradually communicated to the rest of the world. Professor Newcomb pictures the course of events in the two hundred and ten days which the astronomers figured out as the time necessary for this star to reach the sun, and the phenomena which ensued after the impact. The collision increased the light and heat of the sun very suddenly thousands of times, the whole surface of the earth was exposed to radiation as intense as that in the focus of a burning-glass, which will melt iron and crumble stone. The works of man and every living being on the earth were destroyed, and the worst of it all was, as will occur to many, that this end of the world did not come suddenly, but was protracted, with its horror, over several days, even after the actual collision. Professor Newcomb's essay will be more worth while than most such efforts, furnishing, as it undoubtedly does, a graphic presentation of one of the methods by which astronomers consider that the world may actually lose its population.

THE NEW YORK NEWSBOYS.

Mr. Ernest Poole, writing of "Waifs of the Street," gives us a glimpse into the world of the newsboy and the other waifs that recruit the juvenile asylums. He makes the uncomfortable discovery that of the worst classes of the street workers, 80 per cent. have terrible diseases by fifteen, and a horrible proportion of them become messengers and servants for the dives in Chinatown. In the narrow streets near Newspaper Row, one will find a hundred of these ragged little chaps sleeping on the streets between 12 and 2 o'clock at night; that is, after the last edition of the evening papers are sold, and before the morning papers have come out. "They lie in tangled heaps of twos and threes over gratings, down steps, and under benches. Their faces are white, cold, and unconscious,—like the faces of dead children."

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

THERE is a graphic account of "The First Ascent of Mount Bryce," by James Outram, in the May *Frank Leslie's*. This great mountain lies in the elbow of the Columbia River, some sixty miles from human habitation. It is 11,800 feet high at the summit, and the complete ascent was finished last August by the writer, accompanied by a Swiss guide. The mountain was named, in 1898, after Mr. James Bryce, who then held office as president of the Alpine Club. It projects westward from the Continental Watershed, rises in splendid isolation from a massive base to a long and extremely narrow ridge, crowned by overhanging cornices of snow, and culminating in three sharp peaks. The summit looms almost vertically above the timber slopes and foaming torrents of the Bush River, more than eight thousand feet below.

There are some exciting "Tales of the Northwest Mounted Police," by Agnes C. Laut, whose duties cover a region a thousand miles wide, five hundred miles from north to south. For a score of these brave horsemen to arrest an Indian horsethief in a reserve of several thousand Indians was a common feat. Of late, the duties of the mounted police have been much more peaceful than formerly. Still, on the patrol, they annually travel more than a million miles, and have enough to do in punishing "rustlers" and maintaining

order in the wild crowd of gold-seekers pouring to the frozen north.

In an article on "The Deep Sea Sailor," by Mr. Broughton Brandenburg, who has gathered his information from his own seafaring experience, the writer says the stewards of the steamships are paid more poorly than any other class which goes to sea, yet he has known stewards to make two hundred dollars on a six weeks' voyage from their tips. There is a delightful nature article by William Davenport Hulbert, "What the Trout Stream Saw," and further chapters of "The Autobiography of a Shopgirl."

EVERYBODY'S MAGAZINE.

THE present troubles in Macedonia lend timeliness to the sketch, in the May *Everybody's Magazine*, of Boris Sarafoff, who became, three years ago, the president of the Macedonian Revolutionary Committee, which he has organized into a powerful and menacing union. The Macedonian patriot is a young man of thirty who inherited from generations of Bulgarian ancestors his hatred of Turkish tyranny. When he was five years old, he saw his father and grandfather dragged from home in chains by the Bashi-Bazouks, lashed, and imprisoned on the charge of treason. The Christian missionaries in Macedonia believe that Miss Stone's capture was the work of the Sarafoff committee, and it well illustrates the length its elusive guerrilla chief will go to in order to obtain money to prosecute his work. Sarafoff has now joined hands with the conservative element, and it looks as if his committee might precipitate a conflagration involving, perhaps, Turkey, Russia, and Austria.

In Mr. A. R. Dugmore's account of his experience with a family of chickadees, there is marvelous evidence of the quick friendship and confidence that can be established between man and birds. Mr. Dugmore's wonderful camera shows this family of young birds being fed by the mother on the writer's knee, and the old birds perched on the bulb of his camera apparatus while it was held in his hand.

Eleanor Hoyt, in "Romances of New Americans," tells of the comedies and tragedies that can be seen at Ellis Island in the midst of the disembarking immigrants; David Graham Phillips tells of "The Men Who Made the Steel Trust," and especially of the early years of Carnegie and Phipps, when during and just after the war the two were running a modest forge in Pittsburg; Frederick T. Hill discusses "A Lawyer's Duty with a Bad Case," and there are some highly amusing "Remarks" from the witty after-dinner speaker, Simeon Ford, whose humorous addresses are to be published in book form.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

WE have quoted in the "Leading Articles of the Month" from Mr. W. W. Wheatly's description of the transit facilities of New York, present and prospective, in the May *World's Work*. An extensively illustrated feature deals with the Louisiana Purchase of Jefferson, which is the subject of an article in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS this month, the *World's Work* approaching the subject from the point of view of illustrating photographically the tremendous development to which Jefferson's great purchase has come in the twentieth century.

Lieutenant-Commander Albert Gleaves contributes a brief article on "The Naval Strength of the Powers," showing the advance in the past year made by the leading nations toward superior naval equipment and efficiency. He says that if the basis of comparison be tonnage, the list of powers, in order of strength, now is England, France, Russia, the United States, Germany, Italy, and Japan; if, on the other hand, it be tons of displacement per mile of seacoast, the order will be entirely changed, as follows: Germany, Italy, France, Japan, England, Russia, the United States.

In "Building Towns to Order," Mr. H. H. Lewis describes the methods of suburban promoters of the class that supply free railroad tickets, sandwiches, and a brass band. He says that not by any means all of the schemes for suburban communities are successful, even in the favored district around congested Manhattan Island, as he has found at least five undoubted failures within a radius of fifteen miles from New York. In "The Business 'Engineer,'" Mr. Raymond Stevens tells of the scientific methods of reorganizing industries to make them most efficient, and of a manufacturer who increased his business by five hundred thousand dollars and his profits by only eight dollars, until he was taught by an expert how to make money.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

MANY of the May magazines print some tribute to Emerson, apropos of the celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of the philosopher's birth. The *Atlantic* begins with an essay by the Rev. George A. Gordon, "Emerson as a Religious Influence." Mr. Gordon thinks that Emerson will always stand among the greater religious forces in the nineteenth century, because of the lesson he brought to those who could understand him, to look at all reality immediately at first hand. His fundamental influence was this war against second-hand politics, art, philosophy, and religion.

In a sensible article on "The Evolution of the Trained Nurse," Mary Moss reminds us that whereas in England the agitation for organized training of nurses was begun in 1825, and the French had as early as 1819 conceived the idea of bringing up all soldiers' orphans to be nurses, in the United States there were no trained nurses before 1873. This writer shows the need of a State examination for nurses which would distinguish between practically trained caretakers or attendants and nurses thoroughly equipped in every branch of their profession. She suggests the forming of central registries or directories in each city, governed by the strictest rules, and managed by the nurses themselves. As the registries are now run by committees, clubs, and hospitals, there is a great lack of cooperation, and some of the best nurses are not registered at all, and can only be had by sending to their homes or boarding-houses. She advises six months' careful instruction, both practical and theoretical, before allowing nurses to enter the hospital wards.

There is a discriminating critical review of "Lady Rose's Daughter" and the novels of Mr. Norris, a further chapter in Mr. Hardy's delightful new novel, "His Daughter First," and other pleasant contributions of fiction and essay. We have reviewed, among the "Leading Articles of the Month," "The Mulatto Factor in the Race Problem," by Alfred Holt Stone, and "The St. Louis Congress of Arts and Sciences," by Prof. Hugo Münsterberg.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE publication of "Lady Rose's Daughter" is the occasion of a highly eulogistic critique of Mrs. Humphry Ward's work as a novelist by Mr. Hamilton W. Mable in the April *North American Review*. The depiction of such a character as Julie Le Breton, says Mr. Mable, required "the very unusual woman who is neither afraid of the passionate side of life nor blind to its tremendous ethical significance." A woman of uncertain moral insight might have stated the problem of such a temperament as that of Julie Le Breton; but only a woman of clear moral insight could have solved it.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE AND CIVILIZATION.

"An American Business Man" takes the novel position that the assertion of the Monroe Doctrine operates as "a bar to civilization" in the Latin-American countries. He would encourage the European powers to step in and suppress disorder and anarchy throughout Central and South America. He especially applauds the course of Germany in the Venezuelan matter, and declares that until the United States assumes the responsibility of policing all those countries, we cannot, with any show of dignity or good faith, say to Europe, "Hands off."

THE POLITICAL ECONOMIST AND THE LABOR PROBLEM.

Professor Hollander, of the Johns Hopkins University, contributes a well-considered estimate of the service rendered by economic science in the solution of the labor question, taking the ground that the political economist, by virtue of his purpose and method, may be expected to attain the largest and most intelligent grasp of the labor question, and that he should be regarded by both the workingman and the employer as the person best qualified to express an authoritative opinion, even on the practical phases of the question. In other words, we must resort to the expert in all human affairs,—in ailments of the body politic as well as in disorders of the physical system.

THE CHINESE NEGOTIATIONS.

Dr. Gilbert Reid writes on "The Unsatisfactory Outcome of the Chinese Negotiations," maintaining that, under the pretext of preserving the integrity of China, a real blow has been struck at the sovereign independence of the empire. The restrictions imposed by the powers make China less able to govern herself than she was before. In conclusion, Dr. Reid declares that "the negotiations have failed, judged either as a policy of superior force, tending to frighten the people from a repetition of hostilities, or as a policy of magnanimity, intended to transform a nation of foreign haters into confiding friends."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Benjamin Taylor writes on "Shipping and Subsidies," laboring to controvert Mr. Cramp's recent assertion that British maritime supremacy has been built up on a system of subsidies. Mark Twain concludes his series of controversial articles on Christian Science; Mr. Lloyd Sanders contributes an instructive article on "The Sultan and the Caliphate;" several distinguished painters pay tribute to the memory of the artist Twachtman; M. Charlemagne Bracq sets forth "The French Side of the Newfoundland Difficulty;" and Mr. C. H. Stevenson describes the work of the United States Fish Commission. We have quoted elsewhere from Mr. Erastus Wiman's article on Canada's commercial independence.

THE ARENA.

THE Hon. Samuel M. Jones, who has just been reflected mayor of Toledo, writes in the April *Arena* on the advantages of a simpler manner of living for the American people. He says:

"It is perfectly clear to me that in the development of a pure democracy we have much to learn about the value and importance of simple living. In the social philosophy that fills the air to-day, I am constantly impressed with the thought that there is altogether too much importance attached to the stomach. Again and again it is dinned into my ears, 'A man must eat.' While admitting the truth of this statement, I must add that it will be well for a man to remember that it is probable more human life is destroyed by overeating than by starvation. Of the truth of this proposition I do not think any careful observer can have a doubt. Probably a hundred people are made sick or plant the seeds of disease within themselves by overeating or improper eating for every one that is injured by fasting."

A STUDY IN ADVERTISING.

Mr. Henry C. Sheaffer begins an interesting article on advertising with the statement, based on the excellent authority of Mr. Charles Austin Bates, that the amount of money yearly spent for advertising in the United States is about \$600,000,000,—a sum equal to the value of the annual corn crop, or nearly twice the value of the wheat crop, more than six times the value of the pig-iron production in a year, and nearly three times the annual gold production. In the matter of magazine advertising, Mr. Sheaffer easily shows that page advertisements in the leading magazines are distributed at far less cost to the advertiser than the cost of distributing the cheapest kind of circulars—"with the additional advantage that the magazine is read by every member of the family, and is preserved for months or years, while most of the circulars would probably be thrown into the waste-basket unread."

Notwithstanding the great advantages that the magazines offer, Mr. Sheaffer estimates that there are not more than one thousand general advertisers in the whole country—an astonishingly small proportion of the total number of firms and corporations engaged in advertiseable lines of business.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

IN the April number of *Guntton's* there is a vigorous defense of the tariff system against the attacks of the pessimists who are constantly asserting that the tariff is handicapping our manufactures. In reply to the complaint that prices are abnormally inflated, the writer maintains that the tendency of prices in most lines of manufacture is distinctly downward, and that this is due to the steadying influence of the great corporations.

"If ever there was a time when the people of a country should refuse to listen to the preachers of pessimism, and turn a deaf ear to schemes for political experiments, that time is now. No policy ever so completely justified its friends, no prosperity ever so bewildered enemies, as the experience of the last five years."

LEGAL STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE UNITED STATES.

Edith M. Hadley, LL.B., gives a valuable conspectus of the present status of women under the constitutions and laws of the States. Regarding woman's larger relations to the community, this writer says:

"In Wyoming and Washington, women have served as jurors, which privilege has since been considered illegal and prevented. Most of the States, including New York, always more conservative, have given women a school suffrage; that is, they are allowed to vote for and fill the position of school officers, serve as trustees, and members of the board of education. In Arkansas and Missouri, they may vote to grant licenses for the sale of liquor. In Kansas and Michigan, they have been allowed suffrage in municipal elections, though in the latter State this was subsequently decided to be unconstitutional. In Wyoming, Colorado, Idaho, and Utah, they may take part in the federal elections, so that, as a legal consequence, there would be nothing to prevent a woman from becoming a Senator from these States."

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for April opens with four articles on the crisis in the church, etc. Mr. John Macdonell, C.B., writes a solid article on "South American Republics," from which we have space only to quote the following words spoken by President Diaz, of Mexico, exactly seven years ago:

"Each one of those republics ought, by means of a declaration like that of President Monroe, to proclaim that every attack on the part of a foreign power, with the view of curtailing the territory or the independence of, or of altering the institutions of, any one of the republics of America, would be considered by the nation making the declaration as an attack on itself, provided that the nation directly attacked or threatened in such manner bespoke the aid of the other nations opportunely. In this manner the doctrine now called by the name of Monroe would become the doctrine of America in the fullest sense of the word, and, though originating in the United States, would belong to the international law of the continent."

Mr. Somers Somerset has a short paper on the same paper on the same subject, in which he anticipates that, Monroe Doctrine notwithstanding, South America will be to the European powers in the present century what Africa was in the last.

THE SHORTEST AND BEST GHOST STORY.

Mr. Herbert Paul contributes one of his admirable literary articles, dealing with the novels of Thomas Love Peacock. From "Nightmare Abbey" he quotes what he calls the best and shortest ghost story in the English language. It is told by a clergyman, hence the opening sentence:

"I once saw a ghost myself, in my study, which is the last place where any one but a ghost would look for me. I had not been into it for three months, and was going to consult Tillotson, when on opening the door I saw a venerable figure in a flannel dressing-gown sitting in my arm-chair and reading my Jeremy Taylor. It vanished in a moment, and so did I; and what it was or what it wanted I have never been able to ascertain."

BACK TO THE LAND.

Lady Warwick in a brief paper describes her experiences with a contingent of laborers brought from the Salvation Army colony at Hadleigh Farm for the purpose of carrying out some gardening alterations. Her experience justified the experiment, and she suggests that "several agriculturists might combine to pool their labor demands, and thus establish a small colony

from Hadleigh in their neighborhood. Such a colony, as I can testify, would be under good discipline, and well-behaved. They are neither loafers nor drunkards, but respectable workingmen. Employers who want labor need not bother themselves as to the precise religious or psychological means taken in making the wastrel a good worker. They will soon find out whether they can obtain what they want,—men who can hoe and dig, and some of whom are skilled manual and farm laborers, ready to work with a plow and reaper. The work at Hadleigh is not limited to farm labor. There is a brick-field which employs a number of men, and those who own brick-fields might also do worse than employ some of the Hadleigh brick-makers. In these ways, the farm colony might be extended in various branches throughout the country."

CONTINENTAL DUELING.

R. C. Bachofen von Echt describes "The Duel in Germany and Austria." The essence of the military duel he puts as follows:

"In Austria, an officer who refuses a duel or does not challenge in the case of an insult must leave the army with ignominy, and is degraded from his rank just in the same way as in Germany. But if he kills or wounds his adversary in a duel, he is punished and imprisoned in a fortress.

"A striking illustration of the dilemma in which Austrian gentlemen may find themselves may be seen in the following episode: Mr. von O., who is a lawyer and an officer in the reserve, and who wrote, some years ago, a book against dueling, was recently prosecuted for having challenged another man to a duel. He was condemned to one month's ordinary imprisonment. He conducted his own defense, and pleaded in a splendid speech that, although he was an opponent of dueling, he was compelled to issue this challenge under pain of losing his military rank. The month's imprisonment, as we have seen, entails the loss of army rank; therefore, whether he challenged his insulter or refrained from doing so, he was compelled to lose his rank as an officer in the reserve."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Sir Alexander Miller writes on the Irish land laws, Mr. Keir Hardie on the Independent Labor party, Mr. W. H. Mallock on "The Gospel of Mr. F. W. H. Myers," and Sir Robert Hunter on the present position of the licensing question.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for April opens with a violent attack by "S. C. G." on the army articles lately published in the *London Times*, which the writer describes as "nebulous nonsense." As for the auxiliary forces, he admits that the *Times* contributor is in the main right, and proposes to deal with the problem in a later article.

FOR MUNICIPAL TRADING.

Mr. Robert Donald contributes one of his authoritative papers on "The Case for Municipal Trading." Dealing with the allegations of corruption, he points out that the opponents of municipal trading never see the taint of corruption in the presence of representatives of the drink trade on the town councils or the magisterial bench.

"Nor do we find the enemies of municipal trading

condemning contractors who are found scamping work. They see no conflict of interest in the presence of councillors on the board of a local tramway or electric-lighting company. In fact, the chief aim of a company which owns electric-light, tramway, gas, or any other local service is to induce members to take an interest in the concern or become directors. We find that the National Telephone Company has influential aldermen or councillors on its local boards in some towns, and the same system is practised by most other large companies, including the British Electric Traction Company, which, through its directors and officials, carries on an uncompromising attack on municipal trading."

The charge that municipal trading is carried on at a loss is shown by Mr. Donald to rest largely upon a confusion of ideas, the loss on baths (which are sanitary measures) and public works, which are not municipal trading, being set off against the profits on real municipal trading.

CHURCH VIEWS ON DISESTABLISHMENT.

The Ven. Oscar D. Watkins argues that churchmen should work for disestablishment.

"When disestablishment is carefully considered apart from disendowment, its terrors are but small. There would be no formal repudiation by the state of the faith of the Church, for there is no formal acceptance of it on the statute book.

"But now we come to the *crux*. When disestablishment is pressed upon the Church by her enemies, what they mainly mean is disendowment, and on the subject of disendowment there is bound to be the gravest difference of opinion."

The income of the Church of England, capitalized, he estimates, is £120,455,082.

"If the Church were to receive, on disestablishment, two-thirds of the ancient endowments and the actual value of the recent benefactions, the figures would work out thus:

"Two-thirds capital value of ancient endowments	£82,087,505
"Actual value of benefactions since 1708	6,368,685
"Total.....	£88,456,190 "

THE NATURAL ENEMY.

"*Patria quis Exul*" writes on "Our Relations with Germany." His article is mainly an attack on the pro-German articles published lately in the *Empire Review*.

"The German brain is a great asset in the world. Let us admire it for what it gives us. But, politically, let us beware of Germany. On few parts of the globe can she be of much use to us, whereas we are almost everywhere of great use to her. Till her fleet is ready, Germany cannot do without us. And when it is ready, she may 'do for us.' If we cannot come to terms with Russia, we must rely upon ourselves,—that is, upon our fleet, which must be invincible. But on Germany there can be no reliance. Her star is in the ascendant; in point of aggregate intelligence, she is the most vital nation of the world; she is ambitious, envious, and overbearing. She is still in many ways half a century behind us. A study of inner Germany reveals a picture of extraordinary brilliancy, intellect, power, and endeavor compressed into a massive medieval frame which seems strangely out of place and impairs the light. But in time the light will come, and Germans will be freemen. We have much to learn from them even now, and have no reason to abuse them. Germany

has nothing to give us; we can give her all. Her fate lies largely in our destiny."

SOUTH AFRICA.—NATIVE LABOR.

There is a joint article on the vexed problem of native labor in South Africa by Mr. A. F. Fox, Mr. John Macdonell, C.B., and Mr. Hugh E. Seeböhm which will rejoice the friends of equal rights for all men, black and white. They protest against forced labor in any form, and point out that taxation to that end is not only unjust, but also unprofitable.

"The principle of taxing the natives to compel them to work is dangerous, irreconcilable with English traditions, liable to produce abuses, and a precedent likely to be mischievous. It may also be ineffectual. No reasonable hut or poll tax is likely to be sufficient to keep natives at work for more than a short time. If 'labor' taxes are to be effective for this purpose, they will have to be levied on a scale that would be grossly oppressive and would probably lead to widespread disaffection."

THE KAISER ON CHRIST AND HIMSELF.

If any one takes the Kaiser and his theology seriously, he may read Professor Harnack's "The Kaiser on Christ and Revelation," translated from the *Preussische Jahrbücher*. Following is Professor Harnack's testimony to the fact that the Kaiser actually does not claim to be infallible!

"There is no suspicion of authoritative decisions,—the whole letter breathes the spirit of liberty. For the writer is alive to the fact that in matters so delicate and sacred there is no room for behests; and he further recognizes that theology cannot shirk these questions, but that they must be threshed out most thoroughly, with courage and freedom. He hands them over to theological science.

"More fascinating still is the effect produced by the determination, the straightforwardness, and the warmth with which the Kaiser takes up his position in the controversy. What he has written is his very own, comes from his heart. He sets it forth just as he thinks and feels it, and he has jotted it down like one who is giving an account of the matter to his own self, omitting none of the little tokens of his own feeling, of his own personal experience. He feels his soul is bound up in Christ, and he will not speak of religion without bearing witness to and praising him."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

A WRITER in the *Fortnightly* for April signing himself "Vates" is of opinion that the policy of the German Emperor is dominated almost entirely by his dread of what will happen when Francis Joseph dies, and by way of preparing for the inevitable, he has made friends with the Sultan, he has courted the Magyars, and has practically secured the support of the Roumanians. He is now busy strengthening his fleet, for warships will probably be needed should Italy be disposed to insist upon adding Trieste and the Dalmatian littoral to the Italian Kingdom. The writer urges:

"As a matter of racial distribution, there is no doubt that the coast of Trieste is predominantly Italian. Therefore, should a distribution and rearrangement of territory become inevitable, from every point of view it is right that our weight should be thrown into the scale

of giving Trieste, at least, to Italy, and generally to assist her in the balancing."

MILITARY OLD-AGE PENSIONS.

Mr. Sidney Low makes a novel suggestion which is not likely to be adopted. He wants at the same time to reform the British army and to solve the old-age pensions system.

"The feature of the scheme would be its intimate association with a national old-age pension fund. Popular opinion demands the establishment of such a fund, and there is general agreement that it is in many ways desirable. But most of the projects which have been put forward have broken down owing to the difficulty of selecting the annuitants. To grant a pension to everybody, on attaining a certain age, would involve colossal and superfluous expense; to discriminate, on the ground either of poverty or of merit, is difficult, and might be impracticable, besides being somewhat unfair and highly invidious. But the reserve would supply an easy, a workable, and a perfectly just method of selection. The old-age pension might be regarded as deferred pay for military service rendered in this force. Any man who had completed his term in the First and Second Reserves, and had obtained his papers of discharge, showing that he had passed the proper tests of efficiency, would be entitled, on attaining the age of sixty, to draw a weekly payment from the state for the remainder of his life."

Persons willing but physically unfit to go through this training would gain their pension by serving as regimental clerks, storekeepers, etc. The idea is ingenious. But it means universal service of a kind or no universal old-age pensions.

A CRITICAL COURT OF HONOR.

Mr. William Archer pleads for the trial of cases between captious critics and aggrieved authors before a court of honor.

"How," it might be asked, 'are litigious persons to be compelled to submit their grievances to this board, which can possess no legal status or jurisdiction, rather than to the ordinary courts, which have power to award and exact damages?' There can, of course, be no compulsion in the matter; but (always supposing the board to have acquired prestige) we may be sure that a plaintiff who had refused to submit his case to its arbitration would come into the law courts under a heavy handicap. Again, the award of the board could have no binding power over a catankerous complainant whose case had gone against him. It would still be open to him to carry his grievance into the law courts. But who can doubt that he would think twice and three times about doing so when it was known that a jury of experts, in which men of his own craft were adequately represented, had declared him to have no just ground of action?"

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is a short poem by Mr. Yeats. Mr. Churton Collins writes to prove that Shakespeare was familiar with Greek tragedy. There is an article by Mr. W. Garrott Brown entitled "The Foe of Compromise," which is quite brilliant in its way, and is written in a remarkable, unconventionalized style very uncommon in monthly reviews, but we make no attempt to deal with it here. It is one of those papers which every one ought to read and no one to summarize.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

MR. LIONEL HOLLAND, in his article "Where Two Empires Meet," in the *National Review* for April, suggests the settlement of the Siamese question as follows:

"Our purpose would be attained were the guarantee of the Anglo-French convention of 1896 so enlarged as to include the whole dominions of Siam. Thus, France and England would mutually contract not to acquire any special privilege or advantage, nor to enter with an armed force, without the consent of the other power, within any part of the Siamese Kingdom. Such an extension over the whole of Siam of the guarantee of 1896 would imply little sacrifice on the side of Great Britain. The expansionists of Singapore would indeed be obliged to contract their day-dreams; and we might have to acquiesce in some infringement of the practical monopoly of trade which we enjoy in the Siamese dependencies of the Malay Peninsula."

THE STAGE,—BY AN ACTRESS.

Perhaps the most interesting article in the number for the general reader is Miss Ellaline Terriss' on "The Stage as a Profession." Like most people who have succeeded, Miss Terriss is convinced that if you have talent you will succeed. She warns the amateur against inferior "teachers of elocution."

"And the theatrical agent who puts the enthusiast on his books at a fee and then sends him to some elocutionary friend to receive instruction,—beware of him also."

As to the much-discussed "morals of the theater," Miss Terriss says:

"The condition of the theater is absolutely that of any other community, and I cannot recall a single instance of the downfall of any young girl *because* of her connection with the theater, and I have acted continuously in London for sixteen years. If a girl is flighty and silly, that she will be no matter where she goes; and so, if you are a parent or guardian, have no fears on this score. If trouble ever comes, don't make the theater the excuse, but be very sure that in nearly every case the same would have happened had the playhouse never

been entered. And do not jump at hasty conclusions because actresses (and I mean actresses, not people who make the theater a shop-window for themselves, and by foolish behavior bring discredit on a very large number of women) perhaps go about unchaperoned, and in a more open manner than is usual in society. It is in many cases a necessity that they should do so, and there are comradeships between working men and working women which are nothing more than sincere friendships, born of sympathy and respect, and the pleasure of which can never be known outside the artist's life, and so never understood by those who have not to earn their living."

THE LABOR QUESTION AGAIN.

Mr. F. D. P. Chaplin approves of Asiatic labor.

"To the Boer, the Asiatic will do no harm. Nor will the native in any way suffer. Even if on the mines all natives were replaced by Asiatics, the demand for labor would still be amply sufficient to provide occupation for all the natives obtainable. Nor, again, should the skilled workman have any cause of complaint, since it must clearly be one of the conditions regulating the importation of Asiatics that they are strictly limited to such work as is now performed by natives. As a class, indeed, the skilled workman will gain, since for every seven natives or Asiatics available one skilled white man can be profitably employed at a high rate of pay. The advent of two hundred thousand Chinese or Indians will, in fact, mean the advent of a white population of the very best class."

"Why, it is asked, should South Africa rush into difficulties from which the United States and Australia have for years been trying to extricate themselves? For these fears there is in reality but little foundation. In view of the experience to be gained from California, Australia, Canada, and Borneo (where Chinese are now successfully employed on the mines), it is surely not beyond the wit of man to devise regulations which may receive the force of law, rendering it impossible for Asiatics to enter the country save under indenture, or to engage or be employed elsewhere than on the mines."

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

THE *Revue des Deux Mondes* for March contains several notable articles.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu explains the dangers which in his opinion France runs from the persistent anti-clerical policy of the Combes ministry. For it is not merely a question of a domestic measure directed against monks and nuns; it vitally concerns France's foreign policy. The influence of France abroad has hitherto been powerfully supported by her traditional protectorate over Catholics both in the East and in the far East. But obviously, if the issue between the French Government and the Vatican were to amount to an open breach, this protectorate would be withdrawn from France. Whether it would be conferred upon Germany is doubtful, though the Kaiser might make a strong bid for the succession. Italy, too, would like it, but would probably not be willing to pay the necessary price to the Vatican.

THE DUCHESS OF PORTSMOUTH.

MM. Lemoine and Lichtenberger have collaborated in two articles dealing with Louise de Kéroualle, that extraordinary woman who was created by Charles II. Duchess of Portsmouth—"the Protestant mistress," as she called herself, putting her head out of the carriage-window when the London mob was saluting her with brickbats. The writers have had the advantage of seeing the Duke of Richmond's papers at Goodwood, together with certain unpublished muniments in France, with the result that they have produced a remarkable picture of this amazing woman and the part she played in the sordid politics of the period.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Among other articles may be mentioned the continuation of M. Ernest Daudet's series on the Princess Lieven, including her return to Paris from London; M. Benoist's editing of the correspondence of M. Thiers,

covering the eventful period from May, 1871, to September, 1878; and the reminiscences of Comte de Moty of that delegation which conducted the foreign relations of France from Tours and Bordeaux in 1870 and 1871, during the Siege of Paris.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE *Nouvelle Revue* tends to become more general in character every month. Perhaps the two most interesting articles are those which concern the London unemployed and the housing of the poor problem. The one entitled "The Unemployed" gives a careful analysis of the various blue-books and other publications dealing with this terrible and distressing problem. The article is apparently written entirely from the point of view of proving the decadence of the British nation.

THE HOUSING PROBLEM IN EUROPE.

Far more thoughtful and worthy of respect is the article concerning the housing of the working classes. The writer begins by giving some figures concerning the number of workers in Paris. In the French capital, 258,000 families occupy only one room each. Hitherto, the state seems to have hardly made any attempt to deal with the problem of overcrowding, but many private firms have taken the matter in hand, and insist on seeing that their employees are properly lodged in salubrious and airy dwellings. Fourteen years ago was founded the "French Society of Cheap Dwellings,"—in other words, a great building society, which has exercised a very salutary effect on the housing of the French working classes, and which has even been able to influence the passing of certain laws. Yet there are at the present moment in France 200,000 houses which have no windows, because, incredible as it may seem, there is still a French window and door tax!

Following on this startling fact, the writer describes at great length, and very intelligently, all that has been done in England for the housing of the working classes during the last sixty years. He pays a high tribute to Port Sunlight, and to Mr. Cadbury's model villages. In Germany, the housing of the working classes is only now beginning to attract attention. In Berlin, hundreds of families inhabit only one room each, and too often this room is situated in a dark and damp basement; some one hundred thousand workers live underground. The Krupp works have set an excellent example, the workmen's colonies established in connection with the works being admirably built, and the rents being very moderate. The Prussian Government some few years ago attacked the problem in the mining district of Spandau. In Holland, the state has also taken up the matter, and at The Hague, the worker, whether man or woman, can hire a pleasant, healthy room for the small sum of 62½ cents a week.

CHINESE REFORM PROPAGANDA.

Those interested in Chinese matters will find the account of the reformer Chang Chi Tung of value. This remarkable Chinaman is the head of what may be called the European party in China. He would like to see his country really reformed, and he spreads his views by means of little pamphlets, printed at his own expense, and distributed by the million through the Celestial Empire. One of these pamphlets, entitled "Learn," drew down on him the violent enmity of the Dowager-Empress, and he was indeed at one time con-

demned to death; but now he has been restored to his former dignities, and he is governor of two large provinces. The French writer analyzes the most important of Chang Chi Tung's manifestoes; in it he has the courage to declare that his beloved country ought to imitate Japan, and it is his fervent wish to see the Chinese poor really educated; in fact, he goes so far as to say that there should be in China a hundred thousand free schools where those who are too poor to pay can hope to be educated for nothing.

REVUE DE PARIS.

IN the *Revue de Paris* for March there is a thoughtful article on the late South African war viewed from the practical soldier's point of view. The writer is in no sense inclined to minimize the difficulties which met the English commanders, but he severely criticises the lack of technical knowledge of the ordinary British officer, while paying him a great tribute as regards personal dash and courage. The French tactician believes that in future wars the personality of the actual combatant and also of the non-commissioned officer will play a far greater rôle than has hitherto been the case, and he quotes with approval von Lindenau, who declares that the individuality of the soldier is not nearly enough exploited by his chiefs.

Another article, by an anonymous writer, attempts to describe what should be France's navy in case of a conflict with England, and the present state of the French navy is regarded as deplorable.

Strannik, the Russian writer, contributes a valuable paper on Wladimir Korolenko, a writer whose work is very much thought of in his own country, though as yet he does not seem to be known elsewhere. His stories, which deal with the Russian peasantry, are profoundly sad, and, indeed, hopeless in tone, and this is perhaps one reason why they have not been received with the same favor by non-Russian readers.

Judith Gautier, continuing her recollections, gives a vivid word picture of Gustave Doré, whom she declares remained boyish to the end. "His childish-looking pink-and-white face, his thin mustache, and long fair hair brushed off his forehead concealed a witty, vivacious personality. He loved practical jokes, and enjoyed nothing more than playing the clown."

NAPOLEON AT THE COUNCIL TABLE.

Those who are never tired of reading about the great Napoleon may learn something new of his many-sided personality in a curious paper dealing with his relations with the Council of State, for, as the writer truly says, it is a great mistake to think that Napoleon was never happy unless taking the field. He very much enjoyed what we should call a cabinet meeting, and those who were privileged to take part in these gatherings have put it on record that when dealing with those whom he trusted he was quite capable of taking advice, and of giving way even on a point which he had very much at heart. Some of his talk on these occasions is not without a certain native wit. As is well known, he was equally interested in the greatest as in the smallest matters, and when at one time it was suggested that every town should have a small prison, he observed: "Every inhabitant should make a point of seeing that the prison is comfortable and salubrious, for the day may come when he will be himself personally interested in the question." Concerning the word-

ing of certain penal laws, he declared that "penal laws should be written in a lapidary style; they should be as concise as is the Decalogue." Napoleon took the most fervent interest in everything that concerned religion; he was anxious to play in France the part played by Henry VIII. in England; that is, he desired to found a Gallican Church, and to destroy the power of the Papacy.

LA REVUE.

"**L**A REVUE" for March opens with a budget of unpublished letters of Challemeil-Lacour, and proceeds, somewhat unprofitably, to discuss whether or not divorce should be possible at the wish of one party. There is great divergence between the contributors to this symposium, and, apparently, few of the writers have any particular reasons for their opinions beyond their personal sentiments. M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu says that the proposal to allow divorce at the demand of one party would be to destroy marriage, to the great injury of the wife, and afterward of the children. On the other hand, M. Alfred Bruneau is quite positive that "liberty should be rendered to the innocent galley-slaves of bad marriages." Mme. Alphonse Daudet retorts with "horror" at the suggestion, and M. Gossez has as his ideal "The Republic of Plato; love and union free."

THE REHABILITATION OF THE DONKEY.

M. Henri Coupin contributes an admirable article on the intelligence of domestic animals. He says that after the dog, the ass is the most intelligent of domestic animals; and the proof of this is that his confidence in the judgment of his master is very limited. The ass is superior to the horse in that he is capable of associating two ideas, comparing alternatives, and deciding which is best for himself. He is even capable of showing his appreciation of music. An ass of Chartres was in the habit of paying visits to the Chateau of Guerville whenever music was going on. The lady who owned the chateau had an excellent voice, and whenever she began to sing, the ass used to approach the windows and listen with sustained attention. One day, he even burst into the room in order to show his appreciation.

The pig is another maligned animal, inasmuch as he is, when possible, one of the cleanest of animals. The pig will deliberately make his bed, fetching straw from outside his sty when possible. Pigs have been seen shaking apple trees in order to bring down fruit. Compared with the ass and the pig, the cow is a stupid beast, though bulls have on occasion been seen simulating death. Sheep are also among the non-intelligents, but, like most stupid things, they are susceptible of vanity. However, even the sheep in some things excels his owner, for while human beings prefer to fight their quarrels rather than arbitrate, an intelligent ram often prevents fighting among the other members of the flock, assuming, in M. Coupin's words, "the efficacious rôle of arbitrator, which he fulfilled, to the great joy of the flock."

A SOCIALIST SYMPOSIUM.

The symposium in the second March number deals with socialism. Three questions were put to the contributors: 1. "Do you recognize as the economic aim of socialism the transformation of a capitalist society into a régime where property will become collective as regards means of exploitation, and will be individual only as regards objects of personal use?" Replies to this

question were received from M. Vandervelde, Eugene Debs, Mr. Hyndman, and Mr. Sidney Webb, all in the affirmative. 2. "Do you think that the end can be achieved only by violence?" To this question, most answers were in the negative. 3. "What should be the Socialist tactics in Parliament?" On this question there is dissension.

Dr. Félix Regnault writes on psychical gymnastics, and insists upon the enormous power which the will, if exerted, may oppose to physical pain. The Indian fakir who drives long needles into his body without drawing blood suffers no pain so long as he exerts the will; but if he neglects to exert his will, he suffers, and blood flows. The punishment inflicted among the Dervishes on thieves was amputation of the forearm, the stump being thrust into boiling oil in order to stop the bleeding. During this operation, the faces of the victims were entirely impassive.

THE MAKING OF A FRENCH REVIEW.

The second number of *La Revue* for March contains a very interesting retrospective article dealing with the twelve years which have elapsed since M. Finot took over the editorship. *La Revue*, then entitled *Revue des Revues*, was founded in 1890, and at the end of 1891 had only forty-seven subscribers. At the beginning of 1892, the number had fallen to twenty-three. It was an article on "Russians and Germans," written by M. Finot, in 1892, which first drew public attention to *La Revue*. In 1893, the 23 subscribers became 1,300; in 1894, 2,200; in 1895, 3,900; in 1896, 5,200; in 1897, 6,800, and so on, thus after twelve years attaining a success and a reputation which other French publications take half a century to attain.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE interest in the Abbé Loisy's book, written, it will be remembered, in refutation of Professor Harnack's "Essence of Christianity," and withdrawn from circulation in deference to the condemnation by Cardinal Richard, finds expression in the Italian reviews, both the *Civiltà Cattolica* and the *Nuova Parola* reviewing it from diametrically opposite standpoints. To the Jesuit *Civiltà*, Loisy's book, "*L'Evangile et l'Eglise*," seems scarcely less acceptable than that of Harnack; it describes it as full of "manifest errors" and of statements contrary to the faith, and the author himself as having "gone over to the enemy, at least objectively." To the *Nuova Parola*, on the other hand, the Abbé Loisy appears as "one of the most inspired and pious and cultivated priests in the ranks of the Church," and as worthy to rank, for genius and erudition, with St. Augustine and St. Thomas. His book, both for its erudition and its breadth of view, the writer regards as the most epoch-making volume of our time.

The interest of the *Nuova Antologia* for March lies in its literary and artistic articles. Professor Chiappelli discusses the pros and cons of a proposition which is exciting artistic circles in Florence,—whether, namely, a copy of Michael Angelo's great statue of David should be placed on the original site in the Piazza della Signoria.

G. Tarozzi draws out a long and elaborate contrast between the paganism of Nietzsche and the paganism of Carducci, wholly to the advantage of the latter. They hold in common their enthusiastic appreciation

of ancient pagan forms, but their consciences have developed on diametrically opposite lines.

A critical and biographical sketch is given of Alinda Brunamonti, poetess and art critic, who died in 1899. Believers in the higher education of women will be interested to learn that Signora Brunamonti's father, a professor at Perugia, was so disappointed at having no sons that he had his little daughter educated in all respects as though she were a boy. She was even dressed in boy's clothes until the age of eight. The result was to make her one of the most learned and accomplished women of her day.

The *Rivista Internazionale* continues to be one of the best of the Italian reviews for the serious discussion of social problems. In the February number, the first place is given to a practical summary, from the pen of L. C. di Chiusano, of the difficulties of the housing of the working classes in its moral, economic, and hygienic aspects. The author seems to favor municipal building and control.

THE DUTCH MAGAZINES.

PASSING the novel of G. van Hulzen, "In Lofty Regions," with which *De Gids* opens, we come to a remarkably readable critique of another novel; this is "Jörn Uhl," by Gustav Franssen, which has lately appeared in Germany. Franssen was a pastor, but, like some other ministers, he appears to have seen a greater field of usefulness in literature, and has produced this book. It is not a book of sensational mysteries, or a sex novel, or, in fact, a book of up-to-date theories or passions; its good qualities consist in its being devoid of all that, and in being an entrancing study of life of the ordinary kind. The book has had a tremendous success, and many writers have coupled the name of Franssen with that of Dickens. A book to be turned into English this, surely!

An article by Dr. Byvanck on P. C. Boutens is the first of a series on "Poets,"—not necessarily spring poets because it begins in a time approaching that season; on the contrary, the subject of this article is among the first of poets. The name of Dr. Byvanck is a guarantee that the article is learned and thorough.

The diary of a visit to Tripoli, in March of 1901, is a good account of this African province, and gives yet another idea of the place from the point of view of a Dutch traveler.

Onze Eeuw goes literally from grave to gay. The first article in the current issue is an essay on statistical physics, dealing with deep facts, experiments, and theories; further on is an equally learned essay of quite an opposite character, "Humor and Literature." Humor is not intended merely to amuse; it has the other and probably higher task of instructing. It serves to increase the importance of the serious observations of writers as well as to force home a truth more effectively than grave exhortations can do. Humor is to be found in the tragedies of Shakespeare, in the Psalms (where the most serious matters are touched on), in the sermons of Luther. Most great writers, however deep their subjects may be generally, go in for the humorous also.

Vragen des Tijds contains four articles, which is one above the usual number. The two which most interest foreigners are those on agricultural boards (written with the usual thoroughness of Dr. Bruinsma, an expert on agricultural matters), and on the law relating

to accidents. The new law on the subject of accidents to work-people contains certain provisions that require careful study on the part of those who have to carry it into effect, and the writer takes the opportunity to point them out.

Elsevier has an entertaining article on dolls. Generally speaking, there is not much that is new in ancient dolls, but the writer contrives to say a good deal that is not generally known about old Dutch dolls, while the illustrations are as interesting as the text. The article is based on the exhibition of dolls and toys that took place in Amsterdam in January of this year, and it must have been a treat for grown-ups as well as for the little ones, judging from the description. Old dolls and new dolls—all were represented; there was the North Holland peasant woman; the lady of 1855, with skirts rather too short and other garments too long; the imitation Red Indians; a doll that belonged to the daughter of the great Huygens; another (with a movable head) that was the property of an estimable lady who played with it nearly two centuries ago; the model of a Venetian lacemaker; another of a Russian country-house, with furniture and doll inhabitants, and other playthings too numerous to mention. Other contents of this magazine include a continuation of the sketch of Dutch social life in former days and a description of a country retreat built nearly two hundred years ago.

SCANDINAVIAN MAGAZINES.

BRITTANY is suffering a severe famine owing to the failure of her sardine fishery, and the French papers are full of heartrending accounts of the bitter trials and privations of the unhappy victims. The Stockholm magazine, *Varia*, gives in its February number a charmingly poetical description of Brittany's stoical sons of the sea and their characteristics. The article is written by a Swedish lady recently returned from a sojourn among these interesting "loups de mer," and is illustrated with some extremely pretty photographs.

The nursing home in Drammen, Norway, which recently attained its twenty-fifth year, is sketched in *Nylande* (No. 5). The institution was founded on March 15, 1878, and was then confined to one small rented room and the care of one little baby. Its foundress was a Miss Svenda Holst, a petted child of fortune, the daughter of a factory-owner named Svend Holst. She was a lively, much-fêted, trouble-free young lady, greatly given to sporting amusements, a very unusual trait in those days. The death of an extremely dear young friend gave, however, a more serious turn to her thoughts, and opened her eyes to the many sorrows of life and the evils that needed remedy. The nursing home appears to have been her first important philanthropic effort. A year after it was started, thirteen children had been taken charge of. The house became too small, and in the autumn of 1879 another was bought for the purpose by herself and a goldsmith (now dead) named O. Hoshre. Miss Holst then betook herself to Germany, there to study the subject of nursing homes thoroughly. Meanwhile, her family of other people's children went on increasing fast, and in 1891 the present home was bought,—a fine large, solid building, with healthy, airy rooms well adapted for their purpose. About one hundred and seventy-six children have been cared for here, leaving at about the age of eleven.

THE SPRING OUTPUT OF FICTION.

HISTORICAL NOVELS AND STORIES OF ADVENTURE.

The spring output of fiction is little more than a third of that at Christmas, but within these narrower limits historical romances and tales of adventure still easily maintain their numerical superiority. Recent months have brought forth no single work of this nature of dominant importance or success; but, on the other hand, there is no lack of well-written interesting tales picturing humanity in other times or under unusual and romantic conditions.

Worthy of first mention in this category is "The Captain," by Churchill Williams (Lothrop), who a year ago achieved considerable success with his first book, "J. Devlin—Boss." His later novel is an attempt to present a study in fiction form of conditions in the border States at the outbreak of the Civil War and during the early years of the conflict. Of chief interest to the maturer class of readers will be the excellent picture given of Grant, the unnamed but easily recognizable hero of the book.

Two other novels treating of the same much-exploited period are "The Master of Warlock" (Lothrop), by George Cary Eggleston, and "A Virginia Girl in the Civil War" (Appleton), which purports to be the "record of the actual experiences of the wife of a Confederate officer" during the great struggle, collected and edited by Myrta Lockett Avery, to whom they were related at a later date. Mrs. Avery's book is valuable as the contribution of an eye-witness of the events described, and it bears the earmarks of first-hand knowledge.

Also written from the Southern point of view is "Before the Dawn" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), the new story by Joseph A. Altsheler, author of "In Hostile Red" and other popular romances. The scene of the novel is Richmond just previous to its surrender, and a number of the leaders of the Confederacy play important parts in the story.

Virginia is a favorite and oft-worked field of the romancers, but in the latest story, "Children of Destiny" (Bobbs-Merrill), Miss Molly Elliot Seawell shows that its ore has not yet been exhausted. It is the Virginia of eighty years ago of which she here treats, in calmer manner than customary in historical novels, and with much skill in character-drawing and description.

Likewise Southern in character, but of widely different nature from the foregoing, is George Cram Cook's novel, "Roderick Taliaferro" (Macmillan). It is the story of a young Southerner who scorned to submit to the federal Government at the close of the Civil War, and who therefore proceeded to Mexico to enlist in the service of the unhappy Maximilian. Not a moment's pause is there in the rush of adventures from the first to the last page.

The scene of Mrs. Amelia E. Barr's latest novel, "The Song of a Single Note" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is New York during the last four years of the Revolution; but history and geography, and everything, indeed, is made secondary to the all-absorbing theme of love, which is here treated in the good old-fashioned manner of the late Charlotte M. Yonge and Miss Muloch and other writers of a former generation. The same may be said in regard to Mrs. Barr's second new story, "Thyra Varrick" (J. F. Taylor); but in the intervals of love-

making the author manages to convey considerable information about Scotland at the time of the Young Pretender.

We have been treated in superabundance, of late, to romances dealing with the person of Aaron Burr, but in "The Stirrup Cup" (Appleton), J. Aubrey Tyson nevertheless has succeeded in producing a fresh, pretty tale about the much-bewritten "boy hero of Saratoga." The story, which is short, tells of Burr's successful courtship, during the later years of the Revolution, of the pretty widow, Theodosia Prevost, who had been set the task of bringing him, the young colonel, to her feet, for the purpose of extracting information from him for her English friends.

Equally American in spirit and treatment is Mr. Carter Goodloe's stirring romance, "Calvert of Strathore" (Scribners), although the scene of the story is France just previous to the Revolution. A large number of historical personages, American as well as French, are introduced to the reader.

"Under the Rose" (Bobbs-Merrill), on the other hand, the new venture of Frederic Isham, author of "The Strollers," relates the adventures of maid and knight in motley at a time when there cannot be said to have been either America or Americans,—namely, during the troublous times of the Emperor Charles V. The action plays mainly about the gay court of Francis I. of France; in its wealth of surprises and stirring adventures, it is a worthy rival of "The Helmet of Navarre."

The novels of Agnes and Egerton Castle are always frankly of the romantic, but never of the swashbuckler order. Their latest story, "The Star Dreamer" (Stokes), is an English tale of the time of George IV., and its interest lies more in the interplay of the various characters

of the book on each other, and less in thrilling incidents, than is commonly the case in the writings of these authors.

In "The Triumph of Count Ostermann" (Henry Holt), Mr. Graham Hope has woven a romantic tale about the person of the German, Heinrich Ostermann, who enlisted in the service of Russia and rose to be foreign minister under Peter the



EGERTON CASTLE.

Great. The story gives a trustworthy picture of the Russia of that day.

Of late years, the chief aim of Mr. Rider Haggard seems to have been to persuade city dwellers, willy-nilly, to return to country life and occupations, a desideratum which he has sought to bring about by precept and example. But there still occasionally issues from his Norfolk home a thrilling romance to remind us that the author of "She" has not entirely abandoned his first love. The latest output of his facile pen is "Pearl Maiden" (Longmans), a tale of Jerusalem mainly at the time of the Emperor Domitian. A prominent part is

played in the story by the interesting Jewish sect of Essenes.

Considering the perennial interest attaching to Old Testament times, it is remarkable that so few novelists have made use of this period of history as a setting for romance. "By the Ramparts of Jezreel" (Longmans) is an entertaining and instructive story of the reign of Jehoram and Jesebel, and of their downfall at the hands of Jehu.

A NEW NOVEL FROM A. S. HARDY.

It has been many years since anything has come from the pen of Mr. Arthur Sherburne Hardy, author of those delightful stories, "Passe Rose" and "But Yet a Woman." The many readers who learned to admire him through these novels hail with immense pleasure the advent of a new story, "His Daughter First" (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), which Mr. Hardy has found time to write in the midst of his diplomatic duties as our minister to Persia, and, more recently, minister to Spain. "His Daughter First" is a keen, fairly balanced character study of a half-dozen New Yorkers, and a delightfully readable story withal. In Mr. Hardy's quiet, high-bred, and sensitive attitude toward life and people one is reminded of Mr. Henry James, even if there is none of the baffling, though fascinating, intricacies of style that distinguish the author of "Daisy Miller." And if Mr. Hardy's book is essentially a story of gentleness written by a gentleman, it is also a story of very human characters, drawn by a man whose refinement costs him no strength or truth. Jack Temple, the clean-cut, successful aristocrat of Wall Street; his daughter, full of eternally feminine inconsistencies; the gentlewoman that Temple loves; Heald, the promoter, and Mrs. Fraser, the abrupt and self-sufficient cosmopolitan dowager, are live and in-



ARTHUR SHERBURNE HARDY.

teresting people created by no inconsiderable artist in fiction. And what a relief, in this year of our Lord, and of adventure stories, to get one's dramatic sensations in this quiet, certain atmosphere of Mr. Hardy's genius!

NOVELS OF SERIOUS IMPORT.

Easily the most discussed book of the present season is "Lady Rose's Daughter" (Harpers), by Mrs. Humphry Ward, the well-known English authoress. Anything by the author of "Robert Elsemere," of course, is sure to attract attention, but in the present instance there



MRS. HUMPHRY WARD.

has been a second cause for the widespread interest in the book. Several recondite persons early discovered that Mrs. Ward had obtained the suggestion for her story ready-made from the "Mémoires" of Mlle. de Lespinasse, whose relation to Mme. du Deffand in real life was the same as that of Julie Le Breton to Lady Henry in fiction. This appropriation has aroused much comment and some criticism, which is chiefly valuable in drawing attention to an excellent novel, for in her latest story of English high life Mrs. Ward has gained a plane of objectivity which she had hitherto failed to achieve.

Probably the last novel which we shall have from the pen of the late Emile Zola is "Truth," which recently appeared with the imprint of John Lane. No more appropriate literary testament could the defender of Dreyfus have left to the world than this book, in which he arraigns those elements in French civilization that he holds responsible for the nation's moral deterioration, and in which he makes a plea for the reorganization of society on a rationalistic basis. The story is that of Dreyfus placed in clerico-educational circles, not in the army, as it is the Roman Catholic Church which the great realist looks upon as primarily guilty in this affair, as in many others. The book is didactic, but nevertheless intensely interesting and of moment to all concerned with problems of education.

In "Ruderick Clowd" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), Josiah Flynt continues his striking studies of the criminal classes, to the delineation of which he has devoted his life. This is the life-story of a "successful" thief, and the unstated but clearly demonstrated thesis of the book is the responsibility of society for the existence of those who prey upon them.

"What Manner of Man" (Bobbs-Merrill), by a new writer, Edna Kenton, recalls in general manner,

"Gwenn," that deservedly popular story of fifteen years ago. The relation of the selfish, absorbed artist to the innocent, ingenuous peasant girl is the same in each case; but in the later story the problem is worked out in a northern clime and in a manner more congenial to a public which demands the satisfaction of final moral edification, at least.

From the standpoint of the pastor, Mr. Bradley Gilman has told a story in his novel "Ronald Carnaqua" (Macmillan) which recalls in certain aspects Harold Frederic's masterpiece, "The Damnation of Theron Ware." Each is the history of a minister absolutely unsuited, spiritually, to his calling, but the problem is worked out in very different manner by the two authors. Only personal knowledge of the petty jealousies and ambitions of a would-be fashionable congregation could have suggested the well-defined types of Mr. Gilman's story, which, like its predecessor, is American.

There is a moral problem at the base of William Farquhar Payson's novel "The Triumph of Life" (Harpers),—it is the spiritual salvation of the hero of the book, a successful writer who achieves seeming success at the cost of his better nature.

THREE TALES OF MYSTERY.

In "The Filigree Ball" (Bobbs-Merrill), Anna Katherine Greene again succeeds in developing an absorbingly interesting murder plot with her old-time skill, which for a while seemed to have deserted her. The story plays in Washington.

A new writer in the field of mystery is Frances Powell, who makes her début with the book of the suggestive title "The House on the Hudson" (Scribners), which develops the love *motif* more prominently than is customary in detective stories.

There seems to be a divergence of opinion as to whether "The Life Within" (Lothrop), by an anonymous author, shall be attributed to a Christian Scientist or to a clever outsider who has seen the commercial advantages of a novel dealing with the new cult. The scene of the story is Kentucky, and it must be admitted that considerable restraint is manifested in the presentation of Christian Science doctrines and "miracles."

STORIES PICTURING THE LIFE OF LOCALITIES.

In contradistinction to the perennial interest attaching to tales of adventure and fighting is the equally strong though quieter interest aroused by stories depicting the life and character of more or less obscure communities. Of these, the abiding prototype is Mrs. Gaskell's "Cranford," but each season brings forth a number of such studies of provincial life worthy of serious consideration. "Putnam Place" (Harpers), by Grace Lathrop Collins, pictures in quiet, subtle manner the narrow, intense life of a New England village, whose quarrels and loves and jealousies the author renders vividly interesting. Equally successful in the same field is Elmore Elliott Peake in his novel "The Pride of Tellfair" (Harpers), in which he depicts with much insight the life of a small Illinois town. Of somewhat different nature from the foregoing is "Lovey Mary" (Century), the new story by Alice Hegan Rice, author of "Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch," in that it does not pretend to be an exhaustive study of a community, but merely an amusing peep into one corner of Louisville's most obscure quarter. Mrs. Wiggs, with her quaint sayings, reappears in this book, together with other old friends.

In "The Substitute" (Harpers), Will N. Harben continues his studies of North Georgia types, which attracted attention in "Abner Daniel." A story of a quaint religious community in one of the Western States is "Walda" (Harpers), by Mary Holland Kindaid, in which the conflict arises between love and the heroine's clearly defined duty as prophetess of the peculiar sect that frown upon love and marriage.

Three excellent though widely divergent books on Canadian life are "Glengarry School Days" (Revell), by Ralph Connor; "In the Garden of Charity" (Harpers), by Basil King; and "Conjuror's House" (McClure, Phillips & Co.), by Stewart Edward White. In a sense, the first of these is a continuation of "The Man from

Glengarry," in that several of the characters of that story reappear in this one; but, on the other hand, it is a tale of the primitive community from the boy's point of view, rather than from that of grown-ups. Mr. King's novel is radically different from his first book, "Let Not Man Put Asunder," being a picture of the simple fisher-folk of Nova Scotia, against which background is projected a tragic story of love and fidelity and faithlessness. Mr. White's book is the stirring account of a man who defies



STEWART EDWARD WHITE.

the monopoly of the Hudson Bay Company and persists in trading with the Indians regardless of the company's time-honored but no longer legally recognized rights.

In the present category of novels must be reckoned "A Summer in New York" (Henry Holt), by Edward Townsend, author of "Chimmie Fadden," since the story may be regarded as a guide, in fiction form, to the pleasures of the metropolis during the hot season.

Mrs. Henry Dudeney's latest novel, "Robin Brilliant" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), possesses to the full charm of local color and rustic simplicity, being a quiet tale of Sussex, written with much insight into human motives and character, and with a pleasant fillip of humor. Of somewhat similar nature is Elsworth Lawson's story of Yorkshire life, "From the Unvarying Star" (Macmillan), but with a certain justice it may be objected that there is lacking in this novel the restraint which keeps sentiment from becoming oppressive.

STORIES OF THE SEA.

Both Frank Bullen and Joseph Conrad have given us, this year, new stories of the sea; not stories simply about the sea, such as any landlubber of imagination can write, but stories with the smell and sweep of the ocean in them. Mr. Bullen, who is of English birth but American education, first gained popularity with "The Cruise of the Cachalot," which was a simple, straightforward account of a whaling voyage, full of adventure, but without love, or anything else extraneous to the tale. In his recent book, "A Whaleman's Wife" (Appleton), he has introduced the conventional elements of the novel, not even omitting the villain and the disappointed lover. There is, however, no lack of purely pelagic elements. Mr. Conrad's book is a collection of three long

short-stories, and it takes its name from the first and shortest of these, "Youth" (McClure, Phillips & Co.). The tales are all primarily of the sea, although not exclusively so, as a number of the adventures recounted take place on land. There is a charm and power in this collection which go far to justify the extravagant predictions of the author's admirers. Interesting in this connection is the fact that this master of picturesque English was born in Poland, and that he did not leave that country until he went to sea.



JOSEPH CONRAD.

VOLUMES OF SHORT STORIES.

Collections of short stories are said to be, commercially speaking, a drug on the market, and are accepted by publishers only under protest. This accounts for the small number of such collections, and for the fact that they usually bear the name of a well-known author. Mrs. Mary Wilkins-Freeman, or, as she is better known, Miss Mary E. Wilkins, challenges our approval with two separate collections, each containing six stories, mainly of New England setting. In "Six Trees" (Harpers), she weaves the tales in every case about some particular tree, which is made typical of the special phase of life depicted in the story. "The Wind in the Rose-Bush" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), on the other hand, is made up of good old-fashioned ghost stories, which were generally supposed to have gone out of fashion some time ago. They are told, however, with ease and conviction.

There is general agreement that the fairest flower of the genius of Henry James is seen in his short stories, and this contention is sustained by the perusal of his latest collection, "The Better Sort" (Scribners). Needless to say, in the nine stories here brought together the psychological note is dominant, but there is a delicacy and freshness in the volume which go far to compensate for the prolixity of "The Wings of the Dove" and "The Awkward Age."

Of essentially American character, although extremely varied in subject, are the stories gathered together by Arthur Colton under the name of "Tioba" (Henry Holt). Direct, humorous, full of action, they may serve as a delectable antidote to the hyperanalysis of Mr. James. Equally fresh and spontaneous is Sewell Ford's collection of equine stories, "Horses Nine" (Scribners); and in addition, it possesses literary qualities of a high order. In these stories, Mr. Ford has done nine separate times for the horse what Mr. Kipling did so cleverly for the locomotive in his story ".0008."

Mr. Israel Zangwill, author of "Children of the Ghetto," has recently appeared in the guise of poet, and he now bespeaks our suffrage with a collection of striking stories and novelettes bearing the title "The Grey Whig" (Macmillan). Of these, some are old and some new; "The Big Bow Mystery," one of the novelettes, it

may be recalled, was published a number of years ago by an enterprising English periodical, with a prize for the solving of the mystery before the appearance of the last installment.

"Cap'n Titus" (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is a short collection of interrelated tales of New England life, mostly humorous, by Clay Emery. Of more ambitious setting are the two artistic stories by Arthur Cosslett Smith, published under the title of the initial tale, "The Turquoise Cup" (Scribners). The scene of the first story is Venice; that of the second, the desert of Sahara.

SOME UNCLASSIFIED NOVELS.

Readers of novels have awaited with much interest the posthumous story, "The Conquering of Kate" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), of the writer who of late years chose to be known as J. P. Mowbray, although his rightful name was Andrew C. Wheeler and he had long since attained fame as a humorist under the pseudonym Nym Crinkle. Mr. Wheeler's story, which is laid in Franklin County, Pennsylvania, after the Civil War, has the same qualities of rural freshness and love of nature which made popular "Tangled Up in Beulah Land" and "A Journey to Nature."

"Journey's End" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), by Justus Miles Forman, is a story with a glimpse of the stage door in it, and which has enjoyed considerable vogue, despite, or perhaps in virtue of, its flimsy character. Also of slight structure, but quite amusing, is Dr. Weir Mitchell's little volume, "A Comedy of Conscience" (Century), which recounts the tribulations of a spinster lady with an unduly loud warning voice in her breast.

Two books dealing with college life, although, to be sure, in very different ways, are "When Patty Went to College" (Century), by Jean Webster, and "The Chameleon" (McClure, Phillips & Co.), by James Weber Linn. Miss Webster's book is a collection of humorous incidents of girl-student life, each complete in itself, but correlated; while in Mr. Linn's story the college scenes are secondary to the development of the thesis of the book, which is the punishment awaiting him who by nature is incapacitated from speaking the truth. The "Chameleon's" punishment, however, it must be admitted, strikes one as rather severe for the mildness of his "fibs."

"From a Thatched Cottage" (Crowell), by Eleanor G. Hayden, is a successful attempt to depict English country low life in the evolution of a story based upon crime and its effect upon the innocent descendants of the guilty one and his victim. Also dealing with murder, but among the less interesting lower middle class, is "The Stumbling Block" (Barnes), by Edwin Pugh. It is a tale such as George Gissing might have written—with greater carrying power.

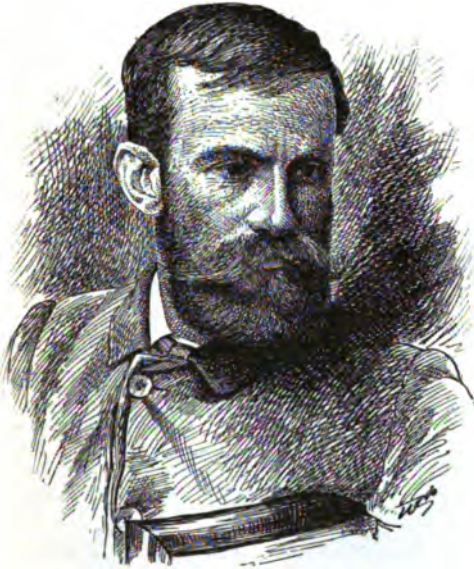
In "The Bishop" (Harpers), that most prolific of contemporary writers, Cyrus Townsend Brady, attempts to picture the West in a series of experiences, amusing and otherwise, grouped about the figure of the church dignitary. Like his other books, it shows inventive fertility and a certain dramatic and pictorial power.

"Veronica" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), by Martha W. Austin, is described by the publishers as a "story of feeling and not a tale of adventure." It is a love story, the scenes of which are laid mostly in Louisiana; but it is the geography of the heart, not that of the State, which the author seeks to teach.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE SEASON.

NATURE-STUDY AND OUT-OF-DOOR LIFE.

A "bird book" that is by no means lacking in the quality of human interest is Mr. William E. D. Scott's "Story of a Bird Lover" (New York: The Outlook Company). Mr. Scott is curator of the department of ornithology of Princeton University. In his house at Princeton, he maintains a laboratory of six rooms, con-



MR. WILLIAM E. D. SCOTT.

taining about five hundred live birds, native and foreign. Mr. Scott has made this collection for the purpose of conducting investigations that may lead to a better understanding of birds in their natural environment and of problems that arise in their out-of-door life. We mention this fact in this connection by way of showing that Mr. Scott's work is of an original and almost unique order, and the glimpses of it that he gives us in his book tend to justify fully the statement made in an introductory note by his publishers that he has done much to bring the life of birds nearer to the life of man, and has established—so to speak—personal relationships with the whole bird kingdom. A graduate of Harvard, where he had been a pupil under Louis Agassiz, Mr. Scott for some years followed the taxidermist's calling; and later, after his connection with Princeton began, he made journeys all over this country studying the life and character of birds in their natural surroundings. The simple story of his life, of which this sympathetic nature-study has been so great a part, makes up the volume before us. We can cordially recommend the book, not only to students of bird life, but to all readers whose interests are in the direction of out-of-door study and observation.

A very complete "Handbook of Birds of the Western United States" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has been compiled by Mrs. Florence Merriam Bailey. This book

does for the Western half of our country what Mr. Frank M. Chapman's handbook has done for the Eastern States. It gives descriptions and biographical sketches of all our Western birds, including all the American species not treated by Chapman, besides those which are common to both sections of the country. Mrs. Bailey has worked in California three years, and has also spent some time in Utah, Arizona, Texas, and New Mexico. The book has over six hundred illustrations, including thirty-two full-page plates from drawings made expressly for it by Louis Agassiz Fuertes. The introduction includes several practical papers, notably one by Mr. Bailey on collecting and preparing birds, nests, and eggs, and suggestions on bird-protection by T. S. Palmer, besides several valuable local lists of birds.

Many of our readers will doubtless recall a charming little book bearing the rather blind title "Mr. Chupes and Miss Jenny" which appeared a year or two ago and was noticed at the time in these pages. This book was the life-story of two robins, and the author, Mrs. Effie Bignell, has been encouraged to write another little volume of bird-lore which she has entitled "My Woodland Intimates" (Baker & Taylor Company). The region in which Mrs. Bignell's bird studies have been made is in eastern New Jersey, although in the present volume occasional excursions are made to the Laurentian Mountains of Canada.

Prof. Harris H. Wilder, of Smith College, has prepared "A Synopsis of Animal Classification" (Holt), which is designed as an aid to students and teachers in zoölogy in our schools and colleges.

"A Prairie Winter," by "An Illinois Girl" (New York: The Outlook Company), is a sort of journal of observations made from day to day, beginning in the autumn and continuing through winter and spring. Some of the facts and inferences here recorded seem inconsequential and irrelevant, but, on the whole, there is much that is suggestive of prairie life out-of-doors in the most inclement seasons, and much that will interest all who have ever lived in the country, whether East or West.

An "Introduction to Botany" has been written by Prof. William Chase Stevens, of the University of Kansas (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). This book is intended for use in high schools, and while it is sufficiently comprehensive to provide a full year's work for such schools as devote that amount of time to the subject, the material has been arranged in such a way that schools devoting less than a year to the study may have a thoroughly symmetrical and adequate introductory course. Special attention is devoted to the study of common flowering plants that may be easily procured during the spring and early summer in almost every locality.

The publication within a few months of each other of two books entirely devoted to hardy plants for gardens and lawns indicates the increased interest that is taken of late in this branch of landscape gardening. Miss Helena Rutherford Ely, in "A Woman's Garden" (Macmillan), which has already reached the third edition, tells how to prepare the soil, lay out the garden and borders, bed and plant the seeds, and arrange for a constant succession of flowers from April to November. The volume is illustrated from photographs taken in the author's garden by Prof. C. F. Chandler. Mr. J.

Wilkinson Elliott's "Plea for Hardy Plants" (Doubleday, Page & Co.) represents a landscape architect's attempt to teach, not the art of landscape gardening, but the need of it. Mr. Elliott directs our attention to the prevalent folly of intrusting the treatment of grounds surrounding costly houses to "the nearest two-dollar-a-day jobbing gardener," although for the designing and planning of the house itself an architect is usually employed. It is Mr. Elliott's conviction that while 50 per cent. of the cost of the better class of houses in this country is expended with the desire of producing beauty, one dollar intelligently spent on the ground will afford more beauty than ten spent on the house, and the attractiveness of the house is greatly enhanced by the beauty and fitness of the grounds. Mr. Elliott makes his points by the aid of good pictures.

An excellent "Woodsmen's Handbook," by Director Graves, of the Yale Forest School, has been issued by the United States Department of Agriculture. The purpose of this book is to give a collection of tables and rules of practical use to lumbermen, foresters, and others interested in the measurement of wood and timber. Only such information as is deemed of immediate practical value to American woodsmen is included. The first volume comprises rules for finding the contents of logs, standing trees, methods of estimating timber, a brief outline of forest working plans, and a description of instruments useful in the woods. It is the author's intention to include in the second volume directions for studying the growth of trees, tables of growth, directions for the study of future production of forests, tables showing the future yield of forests, and so forth.

"Variation in Animals and Plants," by H. M. Vernon, Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford (Holt), is a treatise that can only be understood and appreciated by the experienced naturalist. The botanical side of the subject is treated with less fullness in this work, owing to the author's greater familiarity with animals than with plants, and hence his more thorough acquaintance with the literature of animal life. Scientists will find the chief value of the book, perhaps, in the full accounts that it gives of the author's own researches, although due recognition is given to the work of other investigators.

Of a more popular character is the interesting illustrated volume on "Animals Before Man in North America," by Frederic A. Lucas (Appleton). Owing to his official position as curator of the Division of Comparative Anatomy in the United States Museum, at Washington, Mr. Lucas has had unusual facilities for the study of his favorite subject, and he possesses in an unusual degree the ability to write entertainingly upon scientific topics. The plan of his book involves the treatment of the history of the past by periods. Mr. Lucas has endeavored to sketch the characteristic or more striking features of the life of well-marked epochs, and to tell something of the habits, appearance, and relationships of the more conspicuous animals. In doing this, he calls attention to some of the causes that are believed to have brought about the marked changes that have taken place in the life of our continent and in the world generally, and at the same time imparts some of the varied information that has been obtained from the study of fossils. Some of the localities where fossils are to be found are described, and some account is given of the methods followed in reproducing these animals and interpreting their habits from a study of their bones.

A study of the prehistoric world from an astronomer's point of view is interpreted by Sir Robert Stawell, Bart., of the University of Cambridge, England, in a volume entitled "The Earth's Beginning" (Appleton). This volume treats of the evolution of the earth, the planets, and the sun from the fire-mist. The volume is really made up of lectures given before the Royal Institution of Great Britain and adapted to an audience of young people. It is strictly a popular exposition of the subject, well illustrated, and fitted for supplementary reading in school and college classes.

A capital elementary work covering the whole field of natural science is Prof. Edward S. Holden's "Real Things in Nature" (Macmillan). This work treats, in the successive parts, or books, of astronomy, physics, meteorology, chemistry, geology, zoölogy, botany, the human body, and the early history of mankind. Questions likely to be asked by the average American boy concerning railways, electric lights, the telegraph, telephone, and so forth, are answered in the section on



PROFESSOR EDWARD S. HOLDEN.

physics. In this and the other sections of the book, it is, of course, impossible to give complete or satisfactory explanations in every instance. Professor Holden has endeavored, however, in every case, to make the explanations complete so far as they go. As certain scientific ideas are evidently too difficult to be grasped by young minds, it has seemed wiser to omit such topics altogether. In the department of chemistry, a few fundamental ideas are presented, enforced by a few safe and simple experiments, while the rest of the science is left untouched. The author insists on the fundamental ideas of science and its methods, using the facts chiefly as means of illustrating his mode of thought.

Mr. Francis M. Ware's "First-Hand Bits of Stable Lore" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is a practical book which meets the needs of the amateur horse-buyer and stable owner or manager. It has some excellent chapters on such topics as "The Horse's Education," "Mouths and Manners," "The Foot and Its Treatment,"

"The Saddle-Horse," "The Hunter and His Education," "Riding for Women and Children," "Four-in-Hand Driving," "Coaching and Its Accompaniments," and "Management of a Pack of Hounds." Mr. Ware is well known as the manager of the American Horse Exchange, in New York City, and for many years has been identified with the leading horse-show organizations throughout the country.

Mr. Henry Rankin Poore's book on "Pictorial Composition" (Baker & Taylor Company) is full of suggestions to the amateur photographer and to the student of painting. The man who desires to excel in landscape work, whether with the camera or the brush, will do well to pursue Mr. Poore's chapters on "Balance," "Evolving the Picture," "The Circular Observation of Pictures," "Light and Shade," and so forth.

"The A B C of Photo-Micrography," by W. H. Walmsley (New York: Tennant & Ward, 287 Fourth Avenue), is designed as a practical handbook for beginners. It is perhaps the only elementary treatment of the subject in existence. The writer has taken great pains to explain many of the things a knowledge of which is presupposed in more elaborate works.

Mr. Edward W. Newcomb has written a little book entitled "How to Improve Bad Negatives" (New York: Published by the author at the Bible House). In this little manual, an attempt is made to give the best methods used by photographers in their modern practice, methods which the writer believes will enable any one to turn bad, unprintable negatives into choice ones.

"The Photo-Miniature" continues to be issued monthly (New York: Tennant & Ward, 287 Fourth Avenue). Each number of this publication, as we have explained in former notices, is devoted to some single topic related to the art of photography. In the last number, for example, the "Kallotype Process" is described. Previous numbers are devoted to such topics as "Development Printing Papers," "More about Orthochromatic Photography," "Coloring Photographs," "Photographic Chemicals," "Copying Methods," "Photographing Animals," "Color Photography," "Film Photography," and so forth.

NEW VOLUMES OF BIOGRAPHY.

In Appleton's "Historic Lives" series, a volume on "Horace Greeley" has been contributed by Mr. William Alexander Linn. No other American journalist of his own generation or of this has so interested the American public as did the eccentric editor of the *Tribune*. All the earlier biographies of Greeley were such as the readers of the *Tribune* delighted to read. They were largely anecdotal, and to a certain extent eulogistic; but as estimates of Greeley's career and influence, they were decidedly lacking in the judicial quality. This lack has been fully realized by Mr. Linn, who has written a life of Greeley which differs in a marked degree from any of its predecessors. Mr. Linn seems to have recognized Greeley's shortcomings quite as distinctly as he recognized his merits. In his analysis of the great journalist's conduct during the Civil War, he is unsparing and merciless. His earlier chapters on the founding of the *Tribune* and the sources of the *Tribune's* influence, however, as well as the chapter on the anti-slavery contest, give full credit to Greeley for the preëminent virtues and abilities that he displayed in those years. Yet Mr. Linn feels compelled to say of Greeley's journalistic work as a whole: "His weaknesses throughout his editorial career are almost as

marked as his strength, and a lack of foresight often played havoc with his judgment."

Another eminent American about whom much has been written is William Ellery Channing, the subject of a new biography by the Rev. John White Chadwick (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Students of the anti-slavery conflict are already familiar with Channing's part in that struggle. No biographer could expect to add very much to the general knowledge of that subject. Of more immediate interest, in view of the present tendencies in liberal religion, is Channing's criticism of these tendencies as reviewed by Mr. Chadwick.

Two volumes of "New Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle" now appear under the editorship of Alexander Carlyle, with an introduction by Sir James Crichton-Browne (John Lane). These volumes contain many letters that were rejected by Mr. James Anthony Froude in compiling the three volumes of Mrs. Carlyle's letters and memorials which were published some years ago. The writer of the introduction to this new selection seizes the opportunity to defend the fame of Thomas Carlyle against the assaults that he believes to have been made upon it by Mr. Froude's "Reminiscences." The main purpose of the present publication seems to have been to vindicate the memory of Carlyle against aspersions and insinuations that have passed current since his death in regard to his domestic relations.

"British Political Portraits" is the title of a volume of character sketches of men prominent at the present time in the public affairs of England, by Justin McCarthy (New York: The Outlook Company). Mr. McCarthy has had a long experience in Parliamentary life himself, and writes from intimate personal knowledge of such political leaders as Mr. Balfour, Lord Salisbury, Lord Rosebery, Joseph Chamberlain, John Morley, John Burns, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, John E. Redmond, Sir William Vernon Harcourt, James Bryce, and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. Mr. McCarthy has the journalist's faculty of seizing on those traits in the subjects of his sketches that are most likely to interest the reading public, and the journalist's facility in description.

People with a keen scent for literary sensationalism made much of the recent discovery that Mrs. Humphry Ward, in her novel "Lady Rose's Daughter," very closely paralleled the career of Mlle. de Lespinasse, whose letters were published in translation a year or two ago by the Boston house of Hardy, Pratt & Co. Whoever is interested in tracing the parallelism will find entertainment, if not profit, in perusing this translation—the work of Katharine Prescott Wormeley.

The life of Luigi Alamanni, the Florentine poet who passed many years in exile at the court of France in the sixteenth century, has been written by Henri Hauvette (Paris: Librairie Hachette & Co.). It is by no means inappropriate that a Frenchman should be the biographer of this Italian writer, since it was in France that Alamanni passed the greater part of his life, and at the French court were written or published all the works by which he is now known.

The two most interesting characters of the nineteenth century, according to Mark Twain, are Napoleon and Helen Keller. Miss Keller's remarkable book, "The Story of My Life" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is a record of achievement that can hardly be compared with any human experience—even Napoleon's. When were such difficulties ever so completely mastered in a

brief score of years? This girl, deprived in infancy of sight, hearing, and power of speech, is an educated woman at twenty-three, a graceful and effective writer, a student of literature, and a witty conversationalist. Miss Keller herself cannot tell how all this has been brought about. Much has been due to the skill and tact of her teacher, Miss Sullivan. The publishers



*Affectionately yours
Helen Keller*

have done well to include in the volume the reports and letters of this faithful and efficient instructor, and the cause of blind and deaf-mute education is undoubtedly the gainer by the publication of this material. The editor of the volume, Mr. John Albert Macy, adds an interesting account of Miss Keller's education, including an exposition of her methods of writing, her speech, and other details of a most attractive personality.

WORKS OF REFERENCE.

The eighth volume of "The New International Encyclopædia" (Dodd, Mead & Co.) has now been issued, and it is possible to form some conception of the general characteristics of the work as a whole. Of the special features to which we have alluded in former notices, the department of geography is well maintained in all the volumes that have thus far appeared. A notable illustration of the geographical thoroughness of the work is the elaborate article in the seventh volume on "Europe." This is illustrated by a physical map of Europe on which is shown, for the sake of comparison, a map of the State of Pennsylvania drawn to the same scale. In addition to this map of the physical features of the continent, there is a general map of the political divisions as they are to-day, together with historical

epoch maps showing the political divisions at the time of Charlemagne, about 1500 A.D., at the time of Napoleon's power, in 1812, and after the Congress of Vienna, in 1815. The other geographical articles in the seventh and eighth volumes are developed on similar plans.

The third volume of "The Jewish Encyclopedia" (Funk & Wagnalls Company) completes the letter B and makes a beginning on the letter C. If the work is maintained on this scale throughout, it would seem that more than the twelve volumes announced will be required for its completion. What especially distinguishes this third volume is the remarkable contribution that it makes to biblical science. There are articles on the Bible canon, Bible editions, biblical exegesis, Bible manuscripts, the Bible in Mohammedan literature, Bible translations, and biblical ethnology. It is announced by the publishers that other articles relating to the Bible,—namely, Bible concordances, Bible dictionaries, Bible inspiration, and Bible text,—will be treated in subsequent volumes. Notwithstanding the fact that most of the biblical commentaries of the nineteenth century were written by Christians, it is clearly brought out in the article on Bible exegesis that the Jews were the real founders of this science. The writer concludes his survey of the vast exegetical literature that has been accumulated by the Jews with the regret that the Jewish scholars of the nineteenth century have not maintained the high standard of their predecessors.

A useful volume entitled "Scientific Side-lights" has been compiled by Mr. James C. Fernald (Funk & Wagnalls Company). These side-lights are quotations from eminent writers on scientific subjects, arranged alphabetically and numbered. No digests or summaries are made, but the exact language of the author is given without note or comment. A high degree of skill has been required in the successful compilation of such a work, and the result has fully justified the claim of the publishers that "all the tiresome work has been done for the reader by the editor,—the authors have been selected, the volumes read, the dull parts skipped, and wherever a bright gem was hidden, it has been picked up and set so as to catch the light."

"All the World's Fighting Ships," edited by Fred. T. Jane (New York: Munn & Co.), is an annual giving statistical and graphic information about the world's great navies, together with authoritative articles on naval progress. The book is indispensable for editors and others who would keep pace with the rapid growth of the world's great naval armaments. The author is well known as the originator of the naval war game, now played by all the navies of the world.

The "Atlas of the Geography and History of the Ancient World," edited by John King Lord (Boston: Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co.), is a book that should be of great service to the students in schools and colleges in helping to make clear the relation existing between the geography and the history of the ancient world. The maps that are included in this atlas show the general changes in the political geography and history of the ancient nations. The map of the peoples of antiquity is followed by others showing the rise of the Persian kingdom, the conquests of Alexander, and the governments of his successors. A series of maps show the changes in the political divisions, peoples, and governments that followed in Asia Minor, Greece, and lands about the Ægean; others present similar changes that mark the history of Italy; and the relations of

Rome and Carthage, the conquest of Gaul, Spain, and Germany, as well as the movements of the peoples in Central Europe, are shown in other maps. There are also maps of Egypt and Palestine, and the final map of the book presents the growth of the Roman Empire.

The annual edition of the English "Who's Who," the well-known biographical dictionary which is now in its fifty-fifth year of issue (Macmillan), has so increased in size that much of the statistical matter that formerly occupied the first part of the book has been removed to make room for the second and more important portion containing the biographies. The publishers state that they hope to reissue at a later date the material of this kind that has appeared in earlier editions of "Who's Who."

Mr. Robert Donald's valuable "Municipal Year Book of the United Kingdom" (London: Edward Lloyd, Limited) has been expanded from a volume of five hundred pages to one of nearly seven hundred. This enlargement has been made necessary, it appears, by recent developments in the work of local government in Great Britain. Sections of the book which indicate the greatest progress are those devoted to street railways, electric lights, telephones, and housing. As education is now municipalized in Great Britain, the editor has included in the year book for 1903 a complete digest of the Education Act. All the information and statistics have been thoroughly revised and brought up to date, it is said, and the attempt has been made to cover the whole field of municipal activity and to make the year book a municipal encyclopedia as complete as space will permit. A perusal of the book at once suggests the query why some such volume has not been planned to cover the municipal activities of the United States.

Another annual publication edited by Robert Donald is "The London Manual," now in its seventh year of publication (London: Edward Lloyd, Limited). This book aims to give a complete and popular account of how London is governed in all departments of public service. In the present volume, special attention is given to the subject of locomotion in London, housing, the working class, London's water supply, London's light, London's markets, London's post-office, telephones, and other great municipal problems now under consideration.

The New York State Library's "Comparative Summary and Index of Legislation for 1902" is a minutely classified summary of the new laws passed by all the States, including votes for constitutional amendments and decisions declaring statutes unconstitutional.

One of the useful publications of the American Library Association (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the "Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books," by Alice Bertha Kroeger. This is a manual for libraries, teachers, and students, which makes no pretensions to completeness, but includes in its lists the most useful works in the English language, and, with some exceptions, in other languages. Reference books limited to the use of specialists have been usually omitted.

"A Descriptive Guide to the Best Fiction, British and American," by Ernest A. Baker (Macmillan), includes translations from foreign languages, and contains altogether about forty-five hundred references, with copious indexes and an historical appendix. Some indication of the growing esteem in which American writers are held in Great Britain is afforded by the fact that in the present volume nearly one-quarter of the space given to fiction in the English language is claimed by American authors.

"An Italian and English Dictionary" has been compiled by Prof. Hjalmar Edgren, formerly professor of romance languages in the University of Nebraska, with the assistance of Giuseppe Bico, of the University of Rome, and John L. Gerig, of the University of Nebraska (Holt). This dictionary is based on the foremost recent authorities, and embodies a copious selection of modern words, as well as important obsolete ones, presented in practical and yet etymological form.

The "Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology," edited by Prof. James Mark Baldwin (Macmillan), is completed with the second volume. The general scope of this work has been explained in a former notice. In the prefatory note to the concluding volume, the editor replies to one or two criticisms that have been passed



PROFESSOR J. MARK BALDWIN.

on the work. He shows that, far from slighting Greek and Latin philosophy, a large amount of historical matter on classical thought is presented in this second volume. As to the treatment of biography in the dictionary, the editor's belief is that while no more than the proverbial half-loaf has been granted this department, still it was a case of part of the loaf or no bread. Each volume of this important work consists of about nine hundred octavo pages.

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- Civil-Service Reform Principles in Education, Lucy M. Salmon, EdR.
- Co-Educated Girls, Ten, Two Hundred Years Ago, Mrs. H. M. Plunkett, Scrib.
- College, American, A Weakness in, C. F. Thwing, Lamp.
- Educational Outlook, O. H. Lang, Forum.
- Educators I Have Known, J. M. Greenwood, EdR.
- English, Teaching of, E. K. Broadus, Ed.
- English Popular Schools, F. W. Smith, Ed.
- Geometry, Psychological and Logical in, J. Dewey, EdR.
- Hour's Work Done by School Children, G. Bellei, EdR.
- Industrial Training in Rural Schools, A. Bayliss, Kind.
- Latin and Greek, Education in, C. Woeste, RGen.
- Literature, American, and the High Schools, J. M. Berdan, Arena.
- Moral Education in Public Schools, W. H. P. Faunce, EdR.
- New York, School No. 1 in, A. R. Dugmore, WW.
- Normal School, Passing of the, W. G. Chambers, Ed.
- Physical Education in the Universities, A. Mosso, Revue, April 1.
- Rome, Public Elementary Schools of, J. F. Reigart, EdR.
- Scholastic Profession, Prospects in the, Corn.
- Seven-Year Course of Study for Ward School Pupils, J. M. Greenwood, Ed.
- Southern College Curriculum, E. M. Banks, Meth.
- Southern Education, The Old and the New in, D. E. Cloyd, AMRE.
- Teaching, Talent Versus Training in, J. M. Rice, Forum.
- Women, Higher Education of, C. de Garmo, EdR.
- Electric Motor, Development and Use of the Small, F. M. Kimball, Eng.
- Electric Traction on Steam Railways, A. D. Adams, CasM.
- Electrical Developments in Russia, T. E. Heenan, CasM.
- Electricity: Alternating Current for Light and Power, C. F. Scott, CasM.
- Electricity, Healing by, J. H. Girdner, Mun.
- Emerson, Ralph Waldo: His Correspondence with Herman Grimm, Atlant.
- Employer's Obligation to Pay a Living Wage, J. A. Ryan, Cath.
- "Encyclopædia Biblica" and the Gospels, A. N. Jannaria, Contem.
- Energetics, Theory of, J. G. Hibben, Mon.
- England: see Great Britain.
- England, Haunted Roads in the West of, R. Carnsew, Temp.
- Ethics, Utilitarian, Domain of, G. L. Roberts, IJE.
- Evangelism, New Era in, D. R. Breed, PTR.
- Expatriation: Right of the American Citizen to Expatriate, G. B. Slaymaker, ALR.
- Fame, Posthumous and Contemporary, Dial, April 1.
- Far East, England and Russia in the, F. A. Ogg, Chaut.
- "Farm Colonies," Minnie J. Reynolds, CLA.
- Farm Colony at Hadleigh, England, Countess of Warwick, NineC.
- Farmer, The New England, H. C. Merwin, Ev.
- Farms, French, A. Girard, Arch.
- Fencing and Fencers, Stage, K. Bellew, O.
- Fencing, Art of, T. Lowther, NatR.
- Ferns, Native, for Shady Places, W. H. Taplin, CLA.
- Financial Affairs, A. D. Noyes, Forum.
- Finland, Situation in, I. A. Hourwich, JPEcon, March.
- Fire Walkers of Fiji, W. Burke, FrL.
- Fish Commission, United States, C. H. Stevenson, NAR.
- Fiske, John, as a Popular Historian, H. M. Stephens, WW.
- Flamingoes in the Bahamas, O.
- Flood, What the Bible Teaches Concerning the, G. F. Wright, Hom.
- Florida, A Ship-Canal Across, Leonora B. Ellis, NatM.
- Flowers, Hardy Border, W. Falconer, CLA.
- Folk-Song: Its Influence Upon Classical Music, L. C. Elson, Int.
- Football, College, Accidents from, E. G. Dexter, EdR.
- Foreign Affairs, A. M. Low, Forum.
- Forest, How to Tell Direction in, and on Prairie, H. Kephart, O.
- Forest, The—IV., On Making Camp, S. E. White, Out.
- Forestry, Railroads and, J. Gifford, WW.
- Fort Riley, Kansas, Great New Camping and Exercise Ground at, L. L. Driggs, Mun.
- Fox, William Copp, the "Saukee Poet," J. L. Wright, Era.
- France:
- Agricultural Associations, E. de Ghélin, RGen.
- André, General, Ministry of, E. Mayer, BU.
- Nancy, The "Good Shepherd" at, L. J. Maxse, NatR.
- National Assembly, American Precedents in the, H. E. Bourne, AHR.
- Press, The French, E. Pierret, Refs, March 1.
- Fur Seal as an International Issue, G. A. Clark, and D. S. Jordan, Int.
- Garden and Park, E. Schoen, Crafts.
- Garden, Next Summer's, E. E. Rexford, Lipp.
- Garden, Water, A Beginner's, C. F. Barber, CLA.
- Gardening, Market, in Vacant Lots, Jane A. Stewart, CLA.
- Gardens, English Pleasure, A. C. David, Arch.
- Gas, Natural,—the Ideal Fuel, J. T. Murphy, Cath.
- Geometry, Foundations of, P. Carus, Mon.
- Germany:
- Austria, Germany and, 1898-1900, G. Goyau, RDM, March 15.
- German-American "Most Favored Nation" Relations, G. M. Fisk, JPEcon, March.
- Navy, Evolution of the, E. Lockroy, RDM, April 1.
- Policy of Emperor William, Fort.
- Political and Social Methods, German, W. von Schierbrand, WW.
- Golf Ball, Flight of a, F. Broadbent, Str.
- Golf: Why It Has Improved, H. Hilton, O.
- Goodwin, N. C., J. E. McCann, FrL.
- Gorky, Maxime, G. Savitch, Revue, March 15.
- Gospel Miracles and Modern Thought, J. B. Thomas, Hom.
- Granger Acts, Effects of the, C. R. Detrick, JPEcon, March.
- Great Britain: see also South Africa.
- Army Corps, Six, H. Cust, NatR.

- Army: The Times and the Parliamentary Critics, Contem.
By-Elections and Liberal Prospects, J. Shirley, West.
Churchmen and Disestablishment, O. D. Watkins, Contem.
Corn-Growing in British Countries, E. J. Dyer, NineC.
Education Crisis, J. Bourdeau, RDM, March 15.
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England, Depopulated, W. Stevens, LeisH.
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Labor Party, Independent, J. K. Hardie, NineC.
Liberal Eclipse, J. S. Mills, Fort.
Liberalism and Labor, H. J. Darnton-Fraser, West.
Licensing Question, Position of the, R. Hunter, NineC.
Municipal Trading, The Case for, R. Donald, Contem.
Naval Base, New, and Russian Designs, K. Blind, West.
Old Age Pensions and Military Service, S. Low, Fort.
Railway Monopoly at Work, F. Stopford, NatR.
War Office: Past, Present, and to Come, A. Griffiths, Fort.
Hale House Farm: An Experiment with Boys, G. W. Lee, NEng.
Hamlet, Prince of Denmark, A. E. Gibson, Arena.
Havemeyer, Henry Osborne, R. N. Burnett, Cos.
Hawaii, Coffee Culture in, J. L. McClelland, Over, March.
Health Made and Preserved by Daily Exercise, B. MacFadden, Cos.
Henequen—the Yucatan Fiber, E. H. Thompson, NatGM.
Henry I's Writ Regarding the Local Courts, G. B. Adams, AHR.
"Henry VIII," A. F. Pollard's, G. Smith, NAR.
Heredit in Royalty, Mental and Moral—IX., F. A. Woods, Pops.
"History of the American People," Woodrow Wilson's, J. J. Tigert, Meth.
Home Life: More Beauty for All, Caroline L. Hunt, Chaut.
Horse, Prijevalski Wild, E. R. Sanborn, Pear.
Hotbeds, How to Manage, P. O'Mara, CLA.
Housing, Improved, for Wage Earners, F. G. Ford, SocS.
Housing of the Working Classes, L. Jadot, Nou, March 15.
Hughes, Hugh Price, W. Harrison, Meth.
Human Life, Present Estimate of the Value of, R. Eucken, Forum.
Ignorance, The Honorable Points of, S. M. Crothers, Atlant.
Immigrants, Our: Whence Come They? W. E. Gordon, WW.
Immigration, Large Foreign, Dangers in, J. B. Bishop, Int.
India, To, with a Sketch-Book, L. R. Hill, PMM.
Indian Baskets, Nevada, and Their Makers, Clara MacNaughton, OutW.
Industrial Conditions: Are We Really Prosperous? Gunt.
Industrial System, American, Shortcomings of the, G. N. Barnes, CasM.
Interpretation, A Generic Method of, A. Roeder, NC.
Interstate Streams, Rights to, R. P. Teale, JPEcon, March.
Ireland: Connought Homes, Emily Lawless, MonR.
Ireland, Parties and Politics in, T. McCall, West.
Irish Farmer, Hope for the, H. Plunkett, AMRR.
Irish Historian of the Seventeenth Century, T. J. Shahan, ACQR.
Iron Ore Mines of Biscay, B. H. Brough, CasM.
Irrigation Act, Importance of the, C. E. Wantland, Gunt.
Italy: Bologna-Florence Railway, E. de Gaetani, RasN, March 1.
Italy, Municipalization of the Public Services in, A. Majorana, RSoc, March.
James, Henry, Short Stories by, M. Schuyler, Lamp.
Japan, Modern, Pessimistic Literature of, Revue, April 1.
Japan, The New Woman in, E. W. Clement, AJS, March.
Japanese Law and Jurisprudence, R. Masujima, ALR.
Jefferson, Thomas, as a Lawyer, E. L. Didier, GBag.
Jerusalem, New, Deep Foundation of the, H. C. Hay, NC.
Jerusalem, Quarry-Caves of, C. A. White, PopS.
Jesus Christ Versus His Apostles, W. C. Wilkinson, Hom.
Jews in Palestine, Religious Life of, E. W. G. Masterman, Bib.
"John Inglesant," MonR.
"John Inglesant," The Author of, Dial, March 16.
Johnson, Andrew, Recollections of, J. M. Scovel, NatM.
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Judges, Criminal, in England, E. B. Bowen-Rowlands, PMM.
Judicature, Federal, Century of—IV., Van V. Veeder, GBag.
Jumping (on Horseback), M. V. Wynter, Bad.
Kant's Analytic and Synthetic Judgments, J. H. Hyslop, Mon.
Keats, John, S. A. Link, Meth.
Kendall, George Wilkins, G. F. Mellen, Meth.
Kindergarten:
Dull Child, Prof. Earl Barnes on the Training of the, Jenny B. Merrill, KindR.
Feeble-Minded, Education of the, J. B. Richards, KindR.
Froebel, Friedrich, Albertine Wetter, KindR.
Intervals, Games for, Katherine Beebe, KindR.
Paper Cutting, Something New in, Caroline D. Aborn, KindR.
Pennsylvania Kindergartens, Mrs. L. P. Wilson, Kind.
Pittsburg, Work in, Georgia Allison, KindR.
Purpose of the Kindergarten, Florence A. Kellogg, KindR.
King, President Henry Churchill, J. H. Ross, Ed.
Kingston, Rhode Island, P. K. Taylor, NEng.
Komatsu, Prince of Japan, J. H. Longford, NatR.
Labor Department in Industrial Establishments, Working of a, C. U. Carpenter, Eng.
Labor Question, Political Economy and the, J. H. Hollander, NAR.
Labor: The Waterbury Injunction, Gunt.
Lace Industry, Clementine Black, MonR.
Laestrygona, Land of the, F. Mathew, Mac.
Lafayette's Last Visit to America, T. Stanson, Lipp.
Landscape Gardening, J. Reinhard, Crafts.
Law, International: Its Place in American Jurisprudence, J. B. Scott, GBag.
Lawn Tennis, Masters of, Miss T. Lowther, Bad.
Lemons, American, Growing, W. S. Harwood, WW.
Leo XIII., Pope, F. Paronelli, FrL.
Leo XIII. and His Counselors, E. Philippe, BU.
Letter E, Significance of the, B. Sparhawk, Mind.
Life After Death, F. Harrison, NineC.
Life Insurance in New England, H. H. Putnam, NEng.
Life-Satisfaction, On, W. Karapetoff, AJS, March.
Lincoln (Abraham) Literature, Outline of, Lina B. Reed, Dial, March 16.
Literary Frauds, Curious, E. W. Mayo, Era.
Literature, English: Why It Is Dying, W. M. Lightbody, West.
Literature, Life Outdoors and Its Effect Upon, Mabel O. Wright, Crit.
Living, Simpler, A Plea for, S. M. Jones, Arena.
Lloyds, the Great Marine Insurance Company, C. Roberts, WW.
Loans, Stored Goods as Collateral for, A. M. Read, BankNY.
London Fountains, F. M. Holmes, Cass.
London, Unemployed of, H. Dagan, Nou, March 1.
Longfellow, Henry W., Letters of, Harp.
Louisville, Kentucky, W. S. Bodley, NatM.
Lutheran Church, Obligations of Other Communions to the, P. Anstadt, Luth.
Lyon, Col. Matthew, Incidents in the Life of, J. F. McLaughlin, Cent.
Macedonian Claimants, W. Miller, Contem.
McTaggart, John McT. E., Ethical Principles Maintained by, G. E. Moore, LJE.
Magical Illusions, Sensational—II, Str.
Magellan's Straits, Through, A. H. Goddard, Cass.
Maintenon, Madame de, Mrs. Chapman, Fort.
Malaria: Its Relation to Agriculture and Other Industries of the South, G. W. Herrick, Pops.
Malaya, Human Tree-Dwellers of, C. Whitney, O.
Malta, W. Knight, Fort.
Man, The Making of, G. Macloskie, Hom.
Mankind in the Making—VI., H. G. Wells, Cos; Fort.
Man's Place in the Universe: A Reply, H. H. Turner, Fort.
Markham, Edwin, Sketch of, C. B. Patterson, Mind.
Marriage, A True and a False Philosophy of, NC.
Mary Magdalen: Who Was She? H. Pope, ACQR.
Masters of Their Craft, A. Kirk, McCl.
Mazzini, The Message of, B. O. Flower, Arena.
Medicine as a Profession, G. F. Shears, Cos.
Mennonites and Dunkers in Pennsylvania, E. W. Hocker, Era.
Metal Cutting with the New Tool Steels, O. Smith, Eng.
Methodist Church, Thank-Offering of the, E. M. Mills, WW.
Methodist Hymnology, W. F. Tillett, Meth.
Mexican Girls, Some, Amanda Mathews, Over, March.
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Mine Accounting, General Principles of, E. Jacobs, Eng.
Mine, Modern Gold, A Day at a, E. Mayo, Pear.
Missions:
Bible in the Missionary Meeting, Belle M. Brain, MisR.
Bible, Translations of the, A. E. Colton, MisH.
Burma, Christian Missions in, T. Ellis, MisR.
China, Missionary Methods in, T. Richard, MisR.
Education, Higher, and Permanent Evangelization, J. L. Barton, MisH.
India, Christian Occupation of, H. P. Beach, MisR.
Italy, Religious Outlook in, J. G. Gray, MisR.
Japan, Union and Federation in, J. D. Davis, MisH.
Kongo, Among the Mongos of the, MisR.
Madras Decennial Conference, G. H. Rouse, MisR.
Siam and Laos, Movement Toward Self-Support in, A. J. Brown, MisR.
Tibet, On the Frontiers of, J. Johnston, MisR.
Monroe Doctrine, Application of the, by Europe, R. S. Guernsey, Gunt.
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Monroe, James: His Declaration of the Monroe Doctrine, A. H. Lewis, Ev.
Monterey Before the Gringos Came, R. L. Sandwick, Over, March.
Mormonism, Economic Aspects of, R. T. Ely, Harp.
Morris, William, Elizabeth Luther Cary's Study of, Irene Sargent, Crafts.
Mosquitoes, Warfare Against, L. O. Howard, CLA.

- Municipal Programme, An American, C. R. Woodruff, PSQ.
 Municipal Trading in England, R. Donald, Contem.
 Musical Celebrities, Modern, H. Klein, Cent.
 Myers, F. W. H., Gospel of, W. H. Mallock, NineC.
 Napoleon, Example of, D. A. Merrick, ACQR.
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 Napoleon, The Outwitted of, H. W. Wilson, Corn.
 Napoleon, The Young—IV., Viscount Wolseley, Cos; PMM.
 Natural Religion, Problem of, J. Royce, Int.
 Nature, Books About, H. C. Merwin, Scrib.
 Navy, The New American—VI., J. D. Long, Out.
 Negro and Public Office, J. B. Bishop, Int.
 New England Farmer, H. C. Merwin, Ev.
 New England Gas and Coke Company, A. D. Adams, JPEcon.
 New Testament, Interpretation of the, H. Gunkel, Mon.
 New York City:
 Beggars of New York, J. J. Goodwin, Mun.
 Dutch Founding of New York—III., T. A. Janvier, Harp.
 Flat-Dwellers of New York, A. B. Paine, WW.
 Jerome Versus Crime—I., H. Davis, Pear.
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 School No. 1 ("New Citizens for the Republic"), A. R. Dugmore, WW.
 New York, Elections in, 1774, C. Becker, PSQ, March.
 New Zealand—Political, Social, and Religious, J. M. Peebles, Arena.
 Newfoundland Difficulty, French Side of the, J. C. Bracq, NAR.
 Newspaper, English Illustrated Weekly, J. M. Bulloch, Lamp.
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 Nile Dams and Reservoir, B. Baker, PopS.
 Oarsman, University, Making of a, J. Rogers, Jr., O.
 Ohio, A Century of the State of, M. Halstead, AMRR.
 Old Testament Traditions, Early, Study of, Sarah A. Emerson, Bib.
 Opera, New Régime for, L. Reamer, AMRR.
 Operatic Season, Lessons of the, J. Sohn, Forum.
 Operatic Stage, Beauty on the, F. Dean, Mun.
 Order in the New-Church Doctrines, J. Whitehead, NC.
 Onida—An Estimate, F. T. Cooper, Bkman.
 Oyster, An, of the Kills, C. F. Stansbury, O.
 Pacific Coast, Early English Voyages to the—VI., OutW.
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 Paris, Living in, on an Income of \$3,000, F. Mazade, Arch.
 Paris: The Passing of the Maison Dorée, S. Demey, Mac.
 Parliamentary Power, Decline in, H. W. Massingham, Int.
 Pardee, Gov. George C., C. Alberti, NatM.
 Paul's Doctrine of Justification, Legalism in, G. Vos, PTR.
 Peter's Thought of the Cross, R. B. Peery, Luth.
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 Photography:
 Children, Portraiture of, R. Lee, CDR.
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 Hands in Portraiture, F. C. Lambert, WPM.
 Journalistic and Rush Photography, W. H. Cooper, CDR.
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 Portraiture Indoors and Out, J. V. Woodruff, CDR.
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 Tree-Tops, Photographing in the, W. L. Finley, CLA.
 Peacock, Thomas Love, Novels of, H. Paul, NineC.
 Pineapples, How to Grow, W. Mann, CLA.
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 Plant Table, A Home-Made, Hattie L. Knight, CLA.
 Pneumatic Tube Service, E. A. Fordyce, CasM.
 Polar Expedition of Prince A. of Savoy, G. Belgivjoro, RasN, March 16.
 Political Babel, The, C. Schubert, IJE.
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 Polynesians, Poetry of the, C. W. Stewart, Over, March.
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 Portugal, Rise of, J. P. de Guzman, EM, March.
 Power Plant, Practical Economy in the, W. H. Booth, Eng.
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 Princes, Marriageable, F. Cunliffe-Owen, Mun.
 Property in Land, Origin of, G. T. Lapsley, AHR.
 Psalm 19: 1-6: An Interpretation, H. Gunkel, Bib.
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 Railroad President, Day's Work of a, F. N. Barksdale, WW.
 Railway Merger, The First, E. D. Berry, Ev.
 Raindrop, Romance of a, Cham.
 Rainsford, Rev. W. S.: A Preacher's Story of His Work, Out.
 Reality in Both Worlds, J. B. Keene, NC.
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 Reindeer in Alaska, G. H. Grosvenor, NatGM.
 Religion, Attitude of Teachers of Philosophy Towards, J. Royce, IJE.
 Religion, Natural, Problem of, J. Royce, Int.
 Religion, Philosophy, and Science, C. G. Shaw, Meth.
 Religious Education, Modern Conception of, J. Dewey, Kind.
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 Prophecy of Russia, W. Littlefield, Crit.
 Women in Russia, J. Burns, West.
 Rustic Work, Points on, W. C. Egan, CLA.
 Sacrifice Among Primitive Semites, S. I. Curtiss, Bib.
 St. Augustine and Rousseau, Confessions of, J. McCabe, Crit.
 St. Petersburg, Capital of All the Russias, E. Noble, Chaut.
 St. Vincent, Eruption of the Soufrière of, in 1812, NatGM.
 Salamander, Giant, Habits of the, A. M. Reese, PopS.
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 Scotland, Local Government in, Mabel Atkinson, PSQ, March.
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 Shakespeare and the Geneva Bible, Rev. Dr. Carter, LeisH.
 Shakespeare, Medical Knowledge of, J. Knott, West.
 Shakespeare, William: Had He Read the Greek Tragedies? J. C. Collins, Fort.
 Shakespearean Representations, P. Fitzgerald, Gent.
 Shakespeare's Working Classes, E. Crosby, Crafts.
 Sharp, William: A Literary Wanderer, J. Macleay, YM.
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 South, Effects of Malaria in the, G. W. Herrick, PopS.
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 Southern Cotton-Mill Communities, Leonora B. Ellis, AJS.
 Southern Pulpit, The Inevitable in the, M. T. Plyler, Meth.
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 Spiritualism and Its Representatives, B. O. Flower, Mind.
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 Stabats, The Two—II., The Dolorosa, H. T. Henry, ACQR.
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 Standard Oil Company, History of the—VI., The Defeat of the Pennsylvania, Ida M. Tarbell, McCl.
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 Steamship Trust, The So-Called, J. D. J. Kelley, Cent.
 Stevenson, Robert Louis: The Dramatist, A. W. Piner, Crit.
 Stock and Produce Exchanges, C. A. Conant, Atlant.
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 Sussex (England) Valley in Spring, W. Hyde, PMM.

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 Turtles: Some Queer Things That They Do, CLA.

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 Workingmen, Compensation for Accidents to, in Belgium, A. Julin, Refs, March 1.
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 Yacht, British Royal, R. A. Freeman, Cass.
 Young Men's Christian Association, R. Stevens, WW.
 Zangwill, Israel, as I Know Him, G. B. Burgin, YW.

Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.	Ed. Education, Boston.	NC. New-Church Review, Boston.
AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y.	EdR. Educational Review, N. Y.	NEng. New England Magazine, Boston.
AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.	Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y.	NineC. Nineteenth Century, London.
AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago.	Era. Philadelphia.	NAR. North American Review, N. Y.
ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis.	EM. España Moderna, Madrid.	Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.	Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y.	NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome.
AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.	Fort. Fortnightly Review, London.	OC. Open Court, Chicago.
ANat. American Naturalist, Boston.	Forum. Forum, N. Y.	O. Outing, N. Y.
AQ. American Quarterly, Boston.	FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.	OutW. Outlook, N. Y.
AngA. Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.	Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London.	Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.	GBag. Green Bag, Boston.	PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y.	Gunt. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.	Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
Arena. Arena, N. Y.	Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y.	Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y.
AA. Art Amateur, N. Y.	Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn.	PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y.
AI. Art Interchange, N. Y.	Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y.	PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
AJ. Art Journal, London.	IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila.	PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn.
Atlant. Atlantic Monthly, Boston.	Int. International Quarterly, Burlington, Vt.	PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
Bad. Badminton, London.	JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.	PTR. Princeton Theological Review, Phila.
BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London.	JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.	QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.	Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.	QR. Quarterly Review, London.
Bib. Biblical World, Chicago.	KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.	RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.	LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.	Refs. Réforme Sociale, Paris.
BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.	Lamp. Lamp, N. Y.	RRL. Review of Reviews, London.
Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.	LeisH. Leisure Hour, London.	RRM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
BL. Book-Lover, N. Y.	Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.	Revue. Revue, Paris.
Bkman. Bookman, N. Y.	LQ. London Quarterly Review, London.	RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago.	Long. Longman's Magazine, London.	RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels.
CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y.	Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.	RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris.
Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto.	McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y.	RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London.	Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London.	RSoc. Revue Socialiste, Paris.
CasM. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.	MA. Magazine of Art, London.	Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
Cath. Catholic World, N. Y.	Meth. Methodist Quarterly, Nashville.	San. Sanitarian, N. Y.
Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y.	MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y.	School. School Review, Chicago.
Cham. Chambers' Journal, Edinburgh.	Mind. Mind, N. Y.	Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
Chaut. Chautauquan, Springfield, O.	MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston.	SR. Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Contem. Contemporary Review, London.	MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y.	SocS. Social Service, N. Y.
Corn. Cornhill, London.	Mon. Monist, Chicago.	Str. Strand Magazine, London.
Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y.	MonR. Monthly Review, London.	Temp. Temple Bar, London.
CLA. Country Life in America, N. Y.	MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y.	USM. United Service Magazine, London.
Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y.	Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.	West. Westminster Review, London.
Crit. Critic, N. Y.	Mus. Music, Chicago.	WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.	NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.	WW. World's Work, N. Y.
Dial. Dial, Chicago.	NatM. National Magazine, Boston.	Yale. Yale Review, New Haven.
Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin.	NatR. National Review, London.	YM. Young Man, London.
Edin. Edinburgh Review, London.		YW. Young Woman, London.

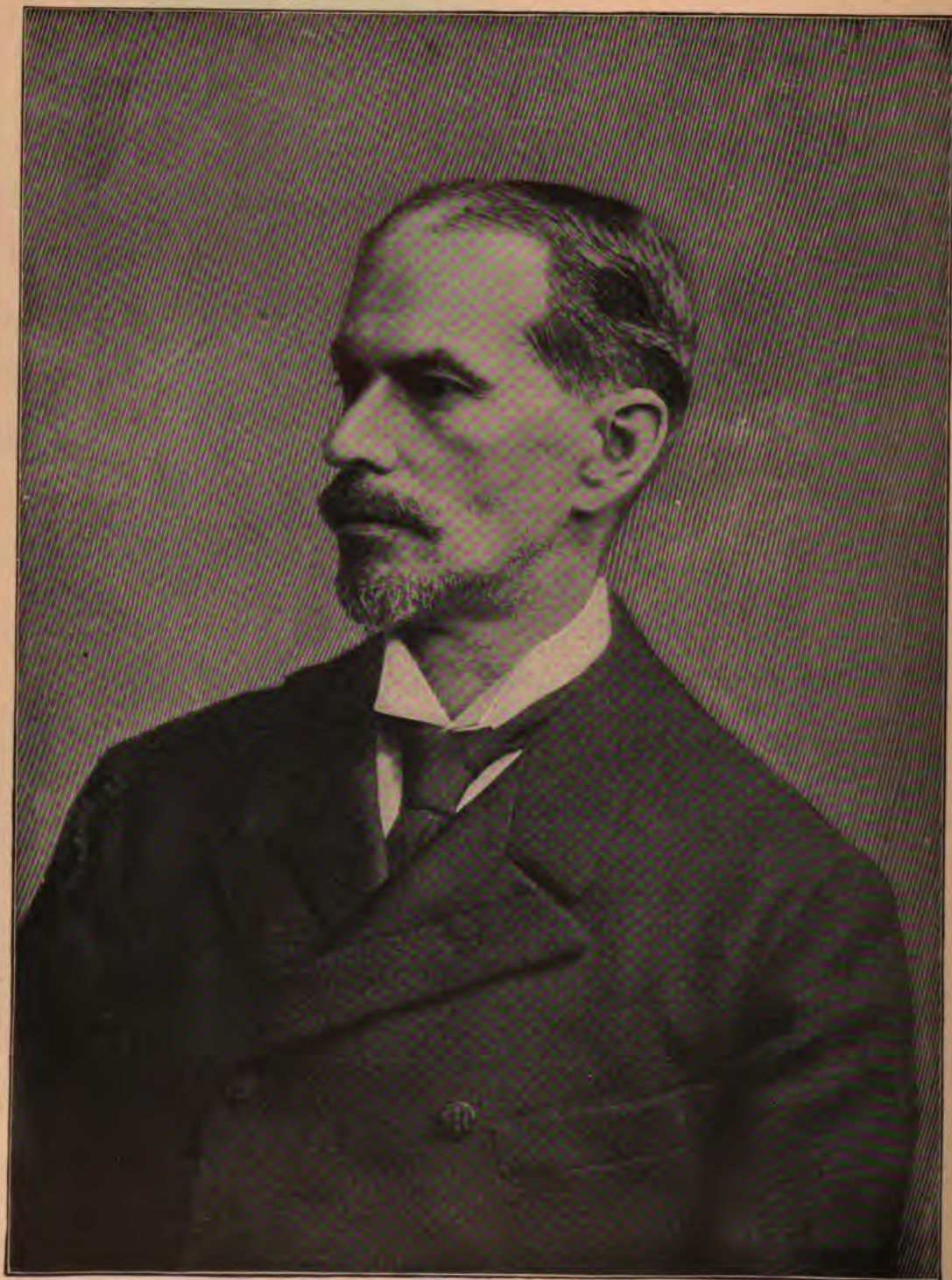
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M. PAUL LESSAR.

(The distinguished ambassador of Russia at Peking, now arranging for the evacuation of Manchuria, though said to be suffering from a fatal malady.)

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Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*A Serene
Summer In
Prospect.*

Next summer will find us in the thick of a Presidential campaign, with an immense world's fair as a public diversion. In short, 1904 promises to be a year of exceptional activity and interest, from the international as well as from the national standpoint. The mild season of the present year, on the contrary, brings the prospect of unusual quiet and serenity for the people of the United States, and of a very welcome atmosphere of peace and repose for Europe and the world at large. There was an effort, early last month, to create excitement about the actions of Russia in Manchuria; but, as we shall set forth in more detail, the alarm was both false and foolish. The disturbed condition of Macedonia is, indeed, a very real and grievous matter, but it is not now likely to involve either the Great Powers or the Balkan states in a serious war during the present season. The rivalry of the powers in the Persian Gulf is not a new affair, although it was freshly illustrated last month by English outbursts against Russia. It will all end, doubtless, in some entirely sensible arrangement by which everybody, under proper conditions, may have commercial access to Persian ports. European sovereigns and rulers have notably furthered good relations between the powers by their recent journeys and visits of courtesy. The eagerness with which British and European investors took up England's new South African loan, subscribing many times over for the amount offered, indicated not only the strength and vigor of the financial situation in general, but is also to be taken as a mark of confidence in the prospect of enduring peace among the nations. The passage of the Irish land bill to its second reading by an almost unanimous vote of Parliament is a further mark, from the internal point of view, both of British financial power to meet great problems and of almost unprecedented domestic harmony. A whole book could be written to show in how many ways the settlement of the

Venezuelan question—the final details of which were arranged only last month—is to be regarded as marking a new era of progress in the methods of dealing with disputes between nations.

*The
Labor
Situation.*

The newspapers here at home, last month, were full of reports and rumors of general uneasiness in the world of labor; but when these were analyzed and sifted to their simple elements there was much less occasion for anxiety than appeared upon the surface. The tide of wage-betterment always rises tardily. The country has been enjoying a period of unprecedented prosperity. The good prices that all sorts of products have obtained has meant an increase in the cost of living. This must be met by an increase in the amount for which the laborer sells his services, or else prosperity has no advantage for him except that it brings him regular work. Many incidental circumstances connected with this large movement for wage-readjustment are deplorable in their manifestations of bad judgment and wrong feeling. But the movement as a whole is natural enough, and what it calls for is wise effort at all points to mitigate its evils. Herein lies the great advantage of the wage-scale system, under which committees of workmen in a given trade meet representatives of capital, as often as once a year, to consider all new conditions that affect the industry, and to make fresh adjustment, if necessary, of wages and conditions affecting employment.

*Recent
Strikes.*

For the most part, the recent general advance in wages throughout the United States has been secured without protracted strikes. The lessons of the coal strike had their good effect, alike upon men and masters. The Great Northern Railway, last month, furnished one of the few danger points in the field of transportation industries, but by the middle of May it became certain enough that

the controverted problems would be solved without a tie-up of the Great Northern system,—an event which would be almost equally bad for all the interests concerned. In New York and vicinity, the fresh labor troubles that attracted attention last month were not those chiefly involving skilled workers, but were in the field of common toil, where organization is a new thing. For example, the Italian excavators working on the new underground railroad system struck to enforce conditions of hours and pay which, in the best opinion of the community, were not reasonable. There were teamsters' strikes in New York and various other places, to the end that building operations and other enterprises were prostrated through shortage of materials. On general principles, such strikes were not destined to be successful, principally because common labor is already so well paid that available reserves can be collected from smaller towns and the country districts when necessary.

Unskilled Labor and Union Methods. Thus, the contractors who are pushing the underground railroad system,—and who still declare their intention to complete it and put considerable parts of it to use before the end of this year,—gave their gangs of workmen a brief period in which to reflect, and then calmly gave notice that work would be resumed on a given day with

new men unless the old ones put in an appearance. The strike melted away without much result, indeed, except to show the community that teamsters' unions, excavators' unions, and other organizations of men who have no skilled trade, but are performing common labor that requires little special training or knowledge, are not very effective organizations. They are far from being formidable in the conduct of strikes. Under peculiar circumstances, in England especially, dock laborers and 'longshoremen, although not members of a skilled craft, have been able, through organization, to enforce better conditions. But their problems had some characteristics that made them peculiar. In general, unskilled labor cannot force the market by unions and strike methods.

Strikes in the Building Trades.

The most chronic and vexatious of the labor troubles affecting American towns and cities during the present season have been those of the building industries. In these trades, unionism seems to have gone well-nigh daft. Its exactions have become so tyrannical that the best friends of organized labor have well-nigh lost patience. Thus, in New



QUEEN OF THE MAY.—From the *Herald* (New York).

York, for many weeks past, immense building operations aggregating scores of millions of dollars have been completely tied up through the fact that the carpenters happened to be organized in two rival unions,—namely, the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, and the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners. It is putting it mildly to say that the behavior of these unions has been idiotic. It has been much worse than idiotic, because it has prevented thousands of wholly innocent men in other trades from earning their daily bread. Speaking in general, the demands of the building trades have been marked by ignorance and shortsightedness, and it is hard to escape the conviction that these unions must be extremely unfortunate in the quality of the leadership to which they submit. The weather of the present season has been the finest for building operations that New York and vicinity have known for many years. The spring opened very early, and the weather has been marvelously fair and favorable. Yet carpenters, masons, plumbers, roofers, and kindred craftsmen of many brotherhoods have been walking the streets all the season, harming themselves and everybody else.

*Employers
Organizing
in Self-
Defense.*

The one ray of hope in the whole business is that final remedies are sometimes adopted through the sheer fact that things have become desperate and unendurable. The anthracite miners, in their long fight, had some permanent principles at stake. They meant to strike just this once and never again. They fondly hoped to bring a group of uncommonly stupid and arrogant employers to adopt the simple principles of conference and agreement. But the building trades of New York and other cities are not striking to secure any principles whatever. They have simply been conducting themselves in such a way as to sacrifice all public sympathy, and to be regarded as nuisances. As an inevitable result, there has been coming about a widespread organization of contractors, dealers in building materials, and many other business men and employers, who propose to force a remedy. Let us hope this facing of organized labor by organized capital may bring about a complete abolition of strikes in the building trades, and the substitution therefor of permanent joint committees which will at stated intervals decide all questions at issue.

*Let Strikes
Be Abolished!*

In the transportation business, and in the building industries, the public has an exceptional stake, and it can no longer tolerate the strike methods. For that matter, strikes are fast becoming as obso-

lete a mode of regulating wages and securing the welfare of workmen as are wars in the establishment of just relations between the governments and peoples of the earth. When one looks beneath the surface, it becomes fortunately evident, in this country, that the strong tendency is toward the use of reasonable and conciliatory methods. The agency of such bodies as the Civic Federation, quietly exerting their influence for industrial peace, is steadily bringing about the hoped-for period when labor wars will be at an end. Mr. Carnegie, in a very felicitous speech, on May 7, as president of the British Iron and Steel Institute, urged the advantage of a closer partnership relation between employers and men, and pointed out the value of sliding-scale wage arrangements and analogous devices. A week later, Mr. Oscar S. Straus, as president of the American Social Science Association, made a notable address on industrial peace, at Boston. In many manufacturing industries, it has been found possible to justify high wages by bringing about a remarkable increase in the efficiency of labor. One of the great difficulties in the building trades, as in less skilled employments, is the tendency of unionism to keep everything on a dead level, and not only to prevent the exceptionally able man from deriving any advantage from rendering valuable services, but to bring the average of efficiency down somewhere near the level of the comparatively slow and ineffective workman. This is not in accordance with the American spirit; and although remedies are not easy, some way must be found to give incentive to mechanics and ordinary workingmen to improve results both in quantity and quality.

*The State
as Model
Employer.*

It is to be noted incidentally that the New York State Court of Appeals has declared the eight-hour law of 1897 unconstitutional. This law required contractors doing public work to allow their men of all grades an eight-hour day, regardless of prevailing customs. The court refuses to admit this distinction between work done for the public and work for a private employer. Two or three other laws intended to compel the State to set the example of a model employer have also been declared null and void by the courts of New York. There is much to be said in favor of eight-hour laws and kindred statutes, but it is doubtful if they have anywhere accomplished all that their advocates had expected of them. The movement for moderate or short hours has advanced so far now that its further progress must depend, not upon legislation, but rather upon the free play of economic forces.

The labor leaders have been giving undue attention to the labor stipulations in public contracts. Thus, for a long time they prevented favorable action upon the franchise by which the Pennsylvania Railroad gains underground access to New York because they insisted upon putting into the contract certain requirements touching wages and hours of labor in the construction of the tunnel. Ultimately, the railroad company prevailed, and the franchise goes into effect without clauses hampering the freedom of the company to deal like other employers with its employees. In our opinion, this is entirely reasonable under the circumstances.

Foreigners as Our Common Laborers. The common labor of the country is performed to an increasing extent by recent immigrants from non-English-speaking countries. In New York and the region round about, the greater part of the common laborers are Italians from the south of Italy, and Sicily. They are willing workers, though physically inferior on their first arrival. They improve rapidly under American conditions, but they are at present paid all that they earn, if not more. The abundance of work, with large pay and comparatively easy conditions, is bringing a tremendous influx of Europeans to our shores this season. The year 1903 will probably surpass all preceding years in the volume of immigration. More than ninety thousand foreigners arrived in March, more than one hundred thousand in April, and the May arrivals maintained their high relative rate. The Italians continue to hold the numerical lead, the Austro-Hungarians come next, and then come the Russians, principally Jews. The Scandinavians and the Germans follow a long ways behind. The Irish are arriving in larger numbers than last year, but they are few as compared with the swarms of Italians.

What of the Anglo-Saxon Race?

In the face of invasions like these from eastern and southern Europe, the talk of Anglo-Saxonism begins to lose its relevancy. The plain fact is that in our great industrial centers, like New York,

Chicago, St. Louis, Pittsburg, Cleveland, Milwaukee, and others, a very small minority of the population is of pure old Anglo-American stock. But American ideals and institutions are not disappearing; the assimilative power of American life is truly amazing. The children of the Italians, like those of the Scandinavians, become Americanized with buoyant eagerness and whole-souled patriotism. They adopt the English language with entire ease, and without any prejudices. The physical inferiority of the Italian immigrants does not appear to be inherent and racial, for it tends to disappear very rapidly indeed. The American-born children of the thrifty and well-to-do Italian immigrants grow to be much taller and better-favored than their parents. That self-complacent impression,—prevailing until lately in England, and to a considerable extent among Americans of the old stock,—that the other peoples of the world are far below the English-speaking men in all the really desirable attributes, physical and moral, has received not a few rude shocks of late. Some recent English writers, for instance, have been showing their own countrymen that army-recruiting statistics prove the average Englishman to-day to be in a worse physical state than the average man of any of the great countries of the



CAST UP BY THE SEA.

(Apropos of Italian labor troubles in New York, and of the attempt to blow up the Umbria last month.)

COLUMBIA: "I think it about time I extinguished that fuse before it does any more damage."—From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

European Continent. The discerning traveler nowadays who visits the crowded districts of London and the great English industrial towns, finds the undersized, ill-favored, and miserable elements of humankind visible in larger proportions than anywhere on the Continent.

*The
Perfectibility
of Man.*

Yet comparisons of this kind prove nothing of permanent importance. In England, the process of urbanization has gone very much further than in any other country. Conditions that can readily be explained account for a generation or two of decline in stature and physical condition among the town-dwellers and factory operatives. It is perfectly reasonable to believe, on the other hand, that improved arts of living,—as applied both to the public and the private scheme of existence of the people in the great English towns,—will henceforth result in a steady improvement of the average type of men and women. There is, in short, a good deal of ground for the belief that the general conditions surrounding the lives of common people throughout the civilized world are greatly improving, and that Englishmen, Frenchmen, Germans, Russians, Italians, and Austrians, as well as Americans, are all to show the good effects of increased popular intelligence, of progress in economic conditions, and of the appliance of scientific knowledge to social well-being. The valuable thing about our Anglo-American heritage lies not so much in physical stock as in ideals and institutions. But it is now manifest that men of all nations may, and do, come here and adopt these ideals and institutions quite as completely as if their ancestors had colonized Virginia or Massachusetts almost three centuries ago.

*The
War Against
Consumption.*

Everywhere throughout the civilized world, the health conditions of the people are now regarded as matters of governmental activity. Indeed, it might now be said that universal education and the public health are fast becoming the first concerns of statesmanship. Elsewhere we publish in this number a series of articles showing the remarkable progress that has lately been made, chiefly under public auspices, in the devising of new and hopeful methods for the treatment of our typical national disease, tuberculosis. The tenement-house administration of New York and our other great cities is directing itself to the object of providing as much fresh air and sunlight as possible in the homes of the people. The street and cleansing departments are providing smooth pavements, and well-swept and sprinkled streets, to the end of getting rid of irritating and germ-

laden dust. The water-supply departments are not content, any longer, to provide an abundance of their needful commodity, but constantly employ bacteriologists to make sure that the drinking supplies are free from the germs of typhoid and other diseases. The school administration not only provides daily rations of the "three R's," but constantly inspects the health of the children, with a view to preventing epidemics, to saving children's eyes, and so on. The proper physical development of the child will henceforth more and more be regarded by the public schools as quite as much their proper concern as the instruction of the youthful mind. The best authorities now hold that the ravages of consumption can be made to disappear through the use of proper precautions against the spread of tuberculosis germs, and, further, through the use of the right measures for the prevention and the cure of the disease in individual cases. These right measures have to do chiefly with the mode of living. The whole thing may be summed up in the one dictum,—plenty of fresh air. How to make applications of the dictum in a given case is, of course, a matter for careful study. It is believed that fresh hope and encouragement may come to thousands through a reading of the suggestive articles published in this number of the REVIEW.

*The
Landmarks of
Our History.*

It does not follow, on the other hand, because we continue to show a marvelous power of assimilation,—whereby the child of the European immigrant becomes wholly American in sympathy and point of view,—that Americans should value lightly the memory of their beginnings, or should feel no high sense of pride in the pioneers who founded our original communities, and to whose courage and faith we owe the very existence of that something we call "Americanism," which has this power to assimilate and transform. The more rapidly, indeed, the new-comers swarm to these shores, the higher should we build all the precious landmarks of our country's history. And so we should welcome and dignify every anniversary occasion, and every suitable opportunity that presents itself, to teach the facts and enforce the lessons of American history. There is much food for reflection in the fact that at the present time, in the city of New York, there are thousands of children of Italian laborers and of Russian Jews who are not only ardent admirers of Washington and the early heroes of the republic, but are anxious to learn everything they can about local scenes and objects that have historical significance. Thus, a considerable amount of attention has just been very worthily bestowed



THE CITY THAT STUYVESANT GOVERNED.—NEW YORK TWO HUNDRED AND FIFTY YEARS AGO.

upon the fact that two hundred and fifty years ago last month the first charter was granted to what is now the municipality of New York. It was then the Dutch village of New Amsterdam, with only two or three hundred homes and a thousand or twelve hundred people. This first charter was modeled upon that of the city of old Amsterdam.

Some
New York
Anniversaries. There are few surviving marks of early New York; but, fortunately, there are a good many maps and engravings to show us what it looked like. And there has for some years been on foot an earnest movement, largely due to the clear-sightedness and patriotism of a number of intelligent women, for the marking and preservation of all local buildings and spots that have his-

toric importance, and also for the teaching of local history, through object-lessons, to the rising generation. This preservation of historic memories is of itself one of the best means for the making of real Americans out of the thousands and millions of strangers who come to our shores in the great ships that have made the North Atlantic a familiar highway, whereas in the early decades of the seventeenth century it was still a strange and perilous ocean across which a few colonists were beginning to fight their way. It was in 1609 that Henry Hudson, sailing in the famous *Half Moon*, discovered Manhattan Island and the noble river that bears his name. But two years earlier than that, the first permanent American settlement had been made on another noble river, the James, of Vir-



THE STADT HUYS.—NEW YORK'S CITY HALL OF THE EARLY PERIOD.

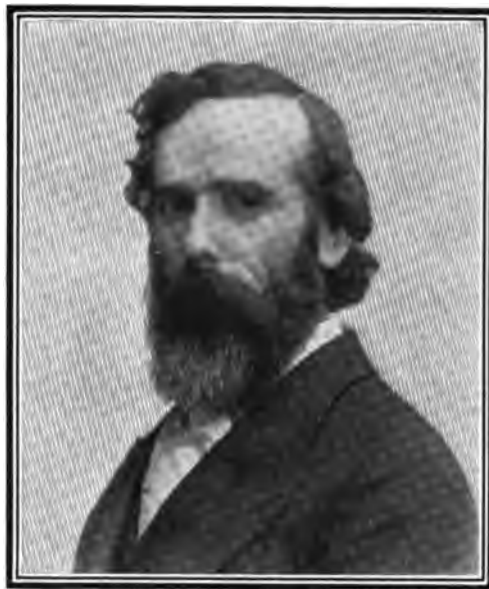
ginia, by Captain John Smith and his associates. We are reminded of this historical date in a very practical fashion by the fact that the Legislature of Virginia, which has just adjourned, has made a preliminary appropriation of two hundred thousand dollars to aid in the holding of a tercentenary celebration and exposition in 1907. The interest of the whole country is desired and expected for so meritorious an undertaking.

*A Sensible
Way to Cele-
brate.*

The programme for celebrating the two-hundred-and-fiftieth birthday of New York City was planned to run through the entire closing week of May. It had assumed a very quiet but wholly novel and commendable form. Lectures, and the exhibition of stereopticon views, made up this programme for the most part. Tuesday, May 26, was set for the special day of the celebration, with Secretary Root and Gen. James Grant Wilson as the chief speakers, at the City Hall. But in many public schools and public halls, as well, also, as in parks and open squares, it was arranged to give historical lectures splendidly illustrated by stereopticon views, in making and multiplying which the city of New York had expended perhaps twenty thousand dollars. Dr. Leipziger, who has done so much to bring the schools and the people close together by the wonderful system of free lectures he has developed under the auspices of the public-school system, is to be largely credited with the manner in which the city's quarter-millennial birthday has been turned to the uses of instruction as well as of entertainment. Anybody could have suggested the expenditure of fifty thousand dollars on fireworks. The stereopticon project is much cheaper, and a thousand times more entertaining and profitable. Furthermore, the historical lantern slides can be used for years to come in teaching local history to school children.

*A Hudson
Tercenary.*

New York's next great celebration is to occur when, in September, 1909, the celebration of the discovery of the Hudson by the navigator whose name the river bears is to be observed. Three hundred years will have elapsed. The approach of that anniversary is likely to be used as an incentive for certain desirable public improvements. By that time the great driveway at the foot of the new Palisades Park should be opened, and a bridge should be thrown across the Spuyten Duyvil Creek,—to connect the northern end of Manhattan Island with the mainland, and to continue the Riverside Drive,—with small public parks at either end of the bridge. The movement for celebrating what is called the Hudson Ter-



DR. H. M. LEIPZIGER.

(Supervisor of New York's free-lecture system.)

centenary was inaugurated last month by a number of prominent citizens. This occasion will also, doubtless, be improved by the zealous teachers of local history.

*A Chicago
Centennial.*

Most Americans will have been surprised at the announcement of a Chicago centennial celebration to be held in September of the present year. Chicago was still a very minute village when, in 1833, it became incorporated, and the Pottawattomie Indians of the vicinity sold out their lands to the Government; but Fort Dearborn dates from the year 1804, and it seems that John Kinzie, the original pioneer, had settled on the site of Chicago in the previous year, with several associates, as Indian traders. Thus, the permanent settlement of Chicago dates properly from the year 1803, and a centennial observance in the present year is appropriate. The celebration is to be merely a local affair, with pageants and tournaments, rowing regattas, yacht races, sham naval battles, and the like. What will be most instructive, however, to the school children of Chicago will be the reproduction on the lake front of old Fort Dearborn, with an Indian village inhabited by several hundreds of Ojibways, Pottawattomies, and Menominees, all of whom it is proposed to bring to Chicago from Canada for the occasion. The Chicago committee would do well to take some hints also from last week's celebrations in New York.

The Ohio Celebration. The Ohio celebration was anticipated in our April number by an article from the pen of Mr. Halstead. The precise date of Ohio's admission will never be agreed upon, because any one of a series of events occurring within a range of a few months might be regarded as effecting the transition from the condition of a Territory to that of a State. It was for purposes of convenience that the great centennial celebration at Chillicothe was fixed for May 20 and the days immediately following. Many conditions were combined to make Ohio one of the greatest of the sisterhood of American commonwealths. A favorable climate and rich soil, noble forests, ample rainfall, the Ohio River on the south, the lake system on the north,—all these made Ohio a desirable field for settlement after the Revolutionary War. Population began to pour in apace just a hundred years ago, at the time of the admission of the State. Traffic down the Mississippi River gave a great outlet for the farm produce of southern Ohio in the first half of the nineteenth century. The immense development of traffic on the Great Lakes in the latter half of the century enormously stimulated the development of the cities and tributary country of northern Ohio, while manufacturing grew apace throughout the State and provided local markets, which enhanced the prosperity of the enviroing farms.

The Virginia Tercentenary. As to the Jamestown exposition, to which we have referred, it will not be convenient to hold it on the precise site of the original settlement, and a location has been chosen at the mouth of the James River, on Sewell's Point, opposite Hampton, and



GEN. FITZHUGH LEE.

(President of the Jamestown Exposition.)

not far from Norfolk and Newport News. This being a great terminal point for railway traffic, and the most advantageous rendezvous for shipping on the Atlantic seaboard, there is good opportunity for a very fitting and attractive celebration. It is hoped that the Government will concentrate its naval forces as largely as possible in the Hampton Roads in 1907, and that the maritime features of the exposition may be given unusual prominence. If the Jamestown exposition should be developed upon special lines of this kind, and should not aim to rival large world's fairs in their industrial, mechanical, and general exhibits, there would seem to be no reason why it should not be entirely successful. Its historical and patriotic character should be kept to the forefront in every possible way. Aspects of colonial life and pioneering endeavor should be made prominent. Everything worth seeing in the region round about, moreover, should be regarded as a part of the exposition; and facilities for cheap



OLD JAMESTOWN, FROM AN EARLY PRINT.



From "The Georgian Period."

BERKELEY, ON THE JAMES RIVER, BIRTHPLACE OF WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

travel by water should be developed to the utmost. Thus, the trip to Richmond on the beautiful James River should be regarded as an essential part of the exposition.

*The James,—
an Historic
River.* The historic interest of this noble river is unsurpassed in the United States. The Hudson has great dignity and picturesque beauty, and there is much on its shores both of historical and contemporary interest; but it must yield the palm to the James for abiding associations that appeal to the pride and the imagination of the patriotic American. It is strange, indeed, that the Chesapeake Bay, and the great estuaries of the Potomac, the York, and the James rivers, are not more frequented by our traveling public. There are thousands

of Americans who have visited the Rhine for hundreds who have sailed on the James between Richmond and Old Point Comfort. A number of the most famous of the old colonial mansions are still standing, and plainly visible from the decks of the steamboats. Just now, for example, it is worth while to note, among these houses, the one called "Berkeley," which was the birthplace of William Henry Harrison, who afterward became the most distinguished of the early citizens of Ohio, a State which a few days ago celebrated, at Chillicothe, the one-hundredth anniversary of its admission to the Union. This Berkeley estate, like others on the James River, has now accumulated almost three hundred years of historic interest and association. Westover, an estate not far from Berkeley, was the home



These illustrations (reduced) are from "The Georgian Period."

SHIRLEY MANSION, ON THE JAMES RIVER, VIRGINIA.

WESTOVER, ON THE JAMES.
(See next page.)



THE OLD BRANDON HOUSE.

of the famous Col. William Byrd, who built the present house—beloved of all students of our colonial architecture—nearly two hundred years ago. Shirley, which had been an estate known by that name for a hundred years before it passed into the hands of the Carter family, almost two centuries ago, still belongs to the Carters, and like Westover and other houses, remains as a proof of the elegance of Virginian colonial life in the century that preceded the Revolution. And it has a later interest as being the birthplace of the mother of Robert E. Lee. At Brandon, another of these notable James River homesteads, are hanging numerous old portraits that belonged to Col. William Byrd two centuries ago.

Nowhere else, in short, is there so much to remind us of the beginnings ^{In} "Tide-water Virginia." of our country as in what is known as "tide-water Virginia;" and if the Jamestown celebration can be made an occasion for teaching the new generation of Americans the value of our early history, and can incite in them a fresh zeal for the marking and preservation of all sites and objects of historical interest, a very useful end will have been accomplished. Excepting for the ruins of the old church, little remains to show where Jamestown once stood; but within two or three years the Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities has succeeded in discovering numerous old tombstones. Its excavations, still in progress, will certainly bring to light much else in that neighborhood. Williamsburg, lying on higher ground, several miles back from the James River, became the legatee when Jamestown was abandoned. And Williamsburg itself, with its venerable William and Mary College, remains the quaintest town to be found in all the original thirteen States. When the country was celebrating the centennial anniversary of the Louisiana Purchase, a month ago, William and Mary College could justly point with pride to the fact that Jefferson and Monroe, the two most prominent of our statesmen in that great achievement, were both graduates of the venerable school. Thus, the visitor to the Jamestown exposition should



MAIN BUILDING OF WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE.

be taken to visit Williamsburg, as well as to the site of old Jamestown; and it should be made easy for him also to visit Yorktown, where Cornwallis surrendered to Washington, and other points of note, colonial and Revolutionary.

Contemporary Progress at Hampton Roads. In sight from the exposition grounds is Newport News and the wonderful shipyards there, where a number of great battleships are now under construction. These yards should be open to visitors as an essential part of the exposition. Also in plain sight is the water front of the old Virginia town of Hampton, with its Hampton Institute, for the training of young negroes and Indians, which has been so successful in new methods of education that it has become famous the world over. Toward the end of April, there was dedicated at the Hampton Institute the fine new library building erected as a memorial to the late Collis P. Huntington, who had been a benefactor of the school, and whose business enterprise had created the neighboring Newport News shipyards. Adjacent to Hampton, at Old Point Comfort, is Fortress Monroe, one of the principal seaboard-defense stations of the United States army,—a venerable post which the United States Government is now extending and improving. It would be both feasible and proper that the Government should, during the period of the Jamestown exposition, somewhat increase the garrison at Fortress Monroe, and accord to visitors an unusual freedom to see what a military establishment is like; to examine coast-defense guns, to witness daily drills, and thus to have a glimpse of the life and work of the army. If, then, the exposition managers are wise, they will endeavor to annex everything on the waters and coasts of Virginia that has historical association, or that relates to present-day interest, whether at Norfolk, Newport News, Hampton, Fortress Monroe, or elsewhere.

The Legislature at Richmond. The recent session of the Virginia Legislature, which made appropriation for the Jamestown exposition, had been in session a long time, by reason of an extraordinary amount of business necessitated by the new constitution. The provisions of the constitution relating to corporations, taxation, and a great many other important subjects required extensive revision of the statutes. The work seems, upon the whole, to have been well carried out. Incidentally, one of the enactments of the recent session provided for the placing in the rotunda of the Capitol at Washington a statue of Robert E. Lee. It will be remembered that the States are authorized to be represented at



THE JEFFERSON STATUE AT RICHMOND.

(Mr. Edward V. Valentine, sculptor.)

the Capitol by two of their most distinguished sons. Virginia has now decided upon Washington and Lee as her representatives.

Lee's Statue for the Capitol. Virginia's contribution of great men to the constructive period of the republic was, of course, unparalleled.

To every one must occur promptly the names of Washington, Jefferson, Marshall, and Madison. But the heart of Virginia goes out to Robert E. Lee as to no other man the State has ever produced. The selection of Lee for the rotunda at Washington caused some discussion, because there were those who felt that it might be misunderstood and criticised in the North; and they preferred that the name of Lee should not now be made a subject of controversy. It seemed to many, indeed, who have no prejudices, and who revere the character of Robert E. Lee, that the thirteen original States should be represented in the rotunda at Washington, not by their later heroes, but by earlier men, eminent in the form-



THE STATUE OF ROBERT E. LEE AT HIS TOMB, AT LEXINGTON, VA.

ing of the Union. But there can be no just ground for finding fault with Virginia's choice. It would be a mistake to assume that the Virginian devotion to the memory of Robert E. Lee, which amounts almost to idolatry, is wholly or chiefly political in its nature and motive. It is not so much that Lee personates a movement or a cause, for he was not an original promoter or advocate of the secession movement. His place in the hearts of the men who knew him, and of their descendants, has to do with his personality and character. The tradition of Lee is that of a Christian gentleman of such rare blending of personal courage and genius for leadership with the most beautiful qualities of temperament and private character as to make him the very flower of American manhood. Robert E. Lee is regarded, in short, as the ultimate and final personal expression of the highest and finest ideals of public and private life that two centuries of Virginia civilization had evolved.

*Virginia's
Sculptor.*

It is for reasons of this sort that the Virginians wish to place a statue of Lee by the side of that of Washington in the rotunda of the national capitol. In making this selection, there is no thought in Virginia either of belittling the greatness of Jefferson, on the one hand, or of giving offense, on the other, by recalling the terrible strife of forty years ago. Virginia has the good fortune to possess a sculptor equal to the work of designing the Lee statue. Mr. Edward Virginius Valentine knew Lee intimately, and made ample studies and notes while the great general was still living, as president of what is now known as Wash-

ington and Lee University, after the close of the war. What is probably the finest recumbent statue in America marks the tomb of Lee, which adjoins the chapel of the university, at Lexington, and Mr. Valentine is the sculptor who created this masterly monument. We may be assured, therefore, of a notable Lee statue for the galaxy of great Americans in the nation's Capitol.



MR. EDWARD V. VALENTINE.

The meeting of the Southern Education Conference at Richmond brought together a larger number of the educational leaders of the Southern States than has attended any of the preceding yearly conferences, and it was regarded by those in attendance as not only profitable, but inspiring. The conference was presided over by Mr. Robert C. Ogden, of New York, who, against his own preferences, is continued from year to year as presiding officer by the unanimous insistence of the Southern gentlemen who constitute the great majority of the membership. The object of the conference is not pedagogical in a technical sense. Its aim is to promote efficiency in school work all along the line, and to bring all educational agencies together in a spirit of harmony and coöperation. It proposes to aid in the practical working out

*A Conference
at Richmond.*

of the idea of a true education of all the sons and daughters of the people, to fit them for their proper places as citizens, as economic producers, and as members of self-respecting and well-conducted households. The body was welcomed in an appropriate speech by Governor Montague, of Virginia, who well characterized the conference as having come, "not to dogmatize, but to coöperate." Hopeful reports were given by members from the Southern States regarding progress during the past year in the educational field, and many special addresses, of great significance as well as of eloquence and power, made up the programmes of a conference that lasted several days at Richmond, and that spent another day in visiting the University of Virginia, at Charlottesville. A large number of people—perhaps two hundred, all told—attended the sessions from the North and the East. These were made welcome in the conference, and they brought back glowing accounts of the kindness and hospitality of Richmond. Among those who spoke in the conference, besides the presiding officer, were Prof. Francis G. Peabody, of Cambridge; Mr. St. Clair McKelway, of the Brooklyn *Eagle*; Professor Bailey, of Cornell University, the distinguished authority on agriculture and nature-study; Superintendent Stetson, head of the educational department of the State of Maine, and Dr. Lyman Abbott. These addresses from Northern visitors were listened to with appreciation; but the conference was practical, and it relied upon the Southern leaders of education for most of its discussions.

What It All Means.

No points of disagreement arose, for the simple reason, as Mr. Ogden plainly set forth, that the range of vital principles and policies upon which all intelligent and understanding minds might readily agree was wide enough to furnish a field within which practical work could be carried on for a long time. In particular, the conference has developed no differences of opinion upon race problems. It adheres to the policy that every Southern State has deliberately adopted, of providing equally for the education of all the children, regardless of race. It is the great desire of the conference, as well as of the Southern Education Board and the General Education Board, to aid in vitalizing this programme of universal education; that is to say, to bring about the building of better schoolhouses, the training of better teachers, the adoption everywhere of local taxation for school purposes, the consolidation of school districts so as to provide country schools of high grade and ample facilities, and the rapid adoption in all schools of the

principles of manual training, industrial education, and nature-study. It would have the schools deal with those matters, both of principle and of fact, that belong to agriculture, to house-keeping, and to successful life in rural communities. This REVIEW has again and again proclaimed that we are on the eve of great progress in these directions, and that our country schools, from North to South, and from East to West, must be made over again on a new and better plan. Mr. Stetson, of Maine, is just as much an apostle of this kind of improved country school as are any of the Southern education leaders. One reason, however, why the matter is attracting so much attention in the South is because their country schools are so far behindhand that some kind of reconstruction is inevitable. Hence the opportunity to reconstruct on advanced lines.



CHANCELLOR KIRKLAND.
(Of Vanderbilt University
Nashville.)



DR. WALTER B. HILL.
(Chancellor of the University of Georgia.)

Those who
On Negro Education and Other Themes. care much about the problems of negro education, and have been solicitous lest the South should come

short of its full duty, ought to read and study the address made at the conference at Richmond by Chancellor Hill, of the University of Georgia. Dr. Hill is a gentleman who weighs his words and knows his ground. His speech recognized with the utmost frankness the value of the kind of educational work for the negroes carried on by men like Mr. Booker Washington. Referring to the stages of progress in the South for the negroes, Dr. Hill spoke aptly of the "Uncle Tom's Cabin" period before the war, of the reconstruction period when Uncle Tom had no cabin at all, and of the period that may fairly be looked forward to with Uncle Tom in a cabin of his own. This sound thinker and able speaker asserted with unanswerable logic that the negro at the present day is in the South, rather than

in the North or some place else, because the South offers him better treatment and better opportunities than are elsewhere available for him. A great address on the work of the teacher was given by Chancellor Kirkland, of Vanderbilt University, at Nashville, Tenn. And, indeed, a long list of Southern educators spoke as men of breadth and vigor,—capable not merely of carrying on the routine work of the schools, but, as statesmen, ready to reconstruct old commonwealths on modern patterns.

*The Suffrage
Agitation.*

There has of late been an attempt to revive an agitation against the new suffrage arrangements of the South ; but this attempt has proved too feeble and futile to be seriously harmful. Too much tolerance altogether has been shown to a certain type of negro agitator. Some of these platform speakers are men of talent, and we may as well assume that most of them are fairly sincere ; but their denunciations of the South are useless, and merit rebuke. Sensible men judge practical affairs in their relations. Thus, the present political status of the negro is to be compared with that which preceded it. Most of the Southern States have, indeed, now given effect to systems that legally disfranchise a great mass of negroes who were theoretically entitled to vote. But, practically, those negroes had been disfranchised for twenty-five years. The new system is of incalculable value to the negro because it involves a deliberate avowal by the ruling race that the negro is to have the same political rights as the white man. It may be very slow work for the negro race to attain such a position as respects education and property that a majority of its men can secure enrollment as voters. But, anyhow, the remedy does not henceforth lie in talking politics and making agitation, but in acquiring manifest fitness by industry, thrift, and study. The negroes, in vast majority, are simply the agricultural laborers of the South. It is only a few years since the agricultural laborers of England were admitted to the franchise. At the present moment, agricultural laborers, and even skilled workmen, in Germany are at a great disadvantage in politics. Considering their ignorance and their thriftlessness, the negroes of the

South have all the political influence that they ought to have. The thing to be careful about is that the door of opportunity be not shut. Now, the plain fact is that the chance to work and to earn money is exceedingly good for the Southern negroes, and that their treatment by their white neighbors is upon the whole not oppressive or intolerable. Since the white men of the South are, of their own accord, determined to see that negro children have opportunities for education, the negro race has its work plainly cut out for it, and all its leaders ought to be sensible enough to dwell upon the hopeful side of the situation.

*Mr. Carnegie
and Booker
Washington.*

Mr. Booker Washington, who has the mind of a statesman, does not encourage the negro to find fault, but tells him to improve his opportunities and to rely upon his own endeavors. A high tribute was paid to Mr. Washington, several weeks ago, by Mr. Andrew Carnegie, in a letter which designated him as the true leader of his race, and which offered to Mr. William H. Baldwin, Jr., of New York, as a leading trustee of the Tuskegee Institute, six hundred thousand dollars for the endowment fund, a portion of this being intended to provide for the salary and maintenance of Mr. Washington himself, the founder and head of this remarkable institution. Tuskegee now has an endowment fund of a round million dollars. Its work is so large and diverse that more than a hundred thousand dollars a year must be raised to carry it on, the endowment yielding about one-half the necessary revenue. Thus, Mr. Carnegie's gift will not relieve the many friends and supporters of Tuskegee from the need of continuing their support.



THE HUNTINGTON MEMORIAL LIBRARY AT HAMPTON.

*Washington
as an
Orator.*

The necessity, meanwhile, of raising money for carrying on Tuskegee Institute has played no small part in the development of the personality and power of Mr. Booker Washington; while, on the other hand, it has had much to do with the education of the North regarding race problems and conditions in the South. Mr. Washington was not, to begin with, like some other members of his race, a person of fluency, or of fondness for public speech. He was diffident, awkward, and of few words. But since he was doing real things, had convictions, and was obliged to get money in order to achieve results, he became a public speaker from the sheer necessities of the case. A great cause dependent upon public support will bring out the power of public utterance as nothing else will. It was this, perhaps, as much as anything else, that developed General Armstrong, the gifted and lamented founder of Hampton, and made him one of the great speakers of the country. In like manner, Mr. Booker Washington has now grown to the maturity of his power as an orator, and ranks with the very foremost in this land. Many members of the Richmond conference, having gone down the James River by the courtesy of their Virginia friends, remained at Old Point Comfort to attend a two days' meeting at Hampton,—the first day being devoted, among other things, to the dedication of the new Huntington Memorial Library, and the second to brief addresses by members of the graduating class, and by former graduates and visitors. Of all these addresses, the most remarkable were two made by Mr. Booker Washington. In one of them he paid his tribute to Mr. Huntington as a benefactor both of Hampton and of Tuskegee; in the other, he addressed himself to a great negro audience, many white people also being present, on the position of the negro race, and the duties and opportunities of young men and women graduating from institutions like Hampton. These speeches were infused with a wisdom, an eloquence, and a clearness of vision that justified the opinion Mr. Carnegie had expressed about Booker Washington only a few days before.

*Some
New England
Notes.*

In New Hampshire, the towns and cities, last month, for the first time in half a century, voted on the question whether or not they would allow the sale of liquor to be licensed. There are eleven cities in New Hampshire, and all of them voted by good majorities in favor of license. Of the towns into which the State at large is divided, it seems that about one-third voted in favor of license and two-thirds against it. Thus, under

the local-option arrangement, the greater part of the rural area of the State will be without saloons, while all the populous places will have them. In Vermont, even of those ninety towns which on the general referendum voted in favor of doing away with the old prohibitory system, only about seventy-five have now decided for themselves to license saloons. In Maine, there are indications of a much more strict enforcement of the prohibitory law than heretofore. A downright enforcement of the Maine law might lead to the adoption of the local-option methods now entered upon by New Hampshire and Vermont. The recent legislatures of Rhode Island and Connecticut have been less under the domination of bosses, and less responsive to the demands of corporation interests, than for many years past. A healthy tone of independence seems to be asserting itself in New England politics. Governor Bates, of Massachusetts, has been distinguishing himself by a series of veto messages so logical and conclusive as to have carried everything before them.

*New York's
Legislative
Year.*

As the New York legislative session proceeded during the winter and spring, comment was made in these pages upon important measures under consideration. Now that the Legislature has adjourned, it may be in order to remind our readers of a few important topics. The one-hundred-million-dollar canal improvement project was duly passed, and will be submitted for ratification by vote of the people next autumn. The new excise tax adds 50 per cent. to the cost of liquor licenses, half of the proceeds to go to the State and half to local communities. Governor Odell's mortgage-tax measure failed to pass. All projects for unifying the State's dual education system, an outline of which was given in our April number, failed for this year, and a committee is to study the subject and make a future report. The Legislature rolled up large appropriation bills, amounting in the aggregate to about twenty-three million dollars. The governor has a right to go through such bills and veto items here and there; and he spent the month after the Legislature adjourned in pruning down the money grants, for the purpose of bringing expenditures to the level of assured income. There was a good deal of apprehension lest this year's Legislature should lay itself open to the charge of being unusually susceptible to lobby influences. Now that the session can be reviewed, however, there does not seem to be much tangible ground for accusation. A few objectionable bills in the interest of street-railway corporations were enacted, while several that were adverse to cor-

porations were defeated. For example, Commissioner Robert Grier Monroe, of New York City, supported by Mayor Low and the city government, sought legislative authority for the establishment of a municipal lighting plant as a means of defending the public against the extortions of the great combination of gas and electric lighting interests. This measure, however, was defeated. Among measures relating to New York City are to be noted the bills authorizing the great terminal improvements of the New York Central and Pennsylvania railroads.

*The
Franchise
Tax.*

Governor Odell failed to secure his proposed modification of the famous Ford franchise-tax law, which the street-railroad, gas, and electric companies had been successfully fighting in the courts. But, although the Legislature did not come to the rescue of the franchise tax, the final Court of Appeals has now reversed the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, and has declared the original bill to be constitutional and valid. This measure was duly discussed in our pages during the administration of Governor Roosevelt. It calls for the taxation of the franchises of such corporations as street railroads and gas companies at their market value, just as if they were so much real estate. As originally introduced, the franchise-tax bill would have left the work of assessment to the local officers. But the bill was amended so as to create a special State board to fix the assessed valuation of franchises. Whereupon the corporations based their opposition to the law on the removal from local assessors of their alleged constitutional right to fix taxable values. The Court of Appeals now decides that it was permissible for the Legislature to provide as it chose for the assessment of this new form of taxable property. The back taxes due in New York City alone from the franchise corporations amount to about fifteen million dollars. The New York Court of Appeals being unanimous, it is not to be supposed that there is any chance for the disappointed corporations to secure a reversal from the Supreme Court of the United States.

*Tammany
versus
Fusion.*

The work of the Low administration of the affairs of New York City seems to grow steadily in public favor. Preliminary steps have been taken by the Citizens' Union, the Republican party, the anti-Tammany Democratic organizations, and other local reform bodies of a political nature to wage another fusion campaign against Tammany Hall for the election of a mayor and a city ticket in the autumn of the present year. Candidates are not being

much talked about, yet it seems likely that Mayor Low will be asked to head the fusion ticket for a second time. In all its public services and general conditions, New York is now better off than it has been for many years. Its population continues to grow, and the Board of Health estimates that there has been an increase of a quarter of a million since the taking of the census of 1900. The city has now a population of approximately three million seven hundred thousand. This great population was never so prosperous before; there is work for everybody, and wages are probably higher, on the average, than in any other large community in the world. All skilled laborers working in the building trades receive from twenty-four to thirty dollars, or more, a week, working only eight hours a day. With the good economic conditions that prevail, and with a municipal administration devoted in good faith to the best welfare of all the people, there ought not this year to be a slump back to Tam-



Photo by De Youngs, New York.

CHARLES F. MURPHY, HEAD OF TAMMANY HALL.

many government. Yet nobody can tell what is going to happen, and Tammany is now unquestionably reorganized, with Richard Croker no longer in power behind the scenes. Charles F. Murphy is the head of Tammany, not merely with nominal authority, but with a formal power more complete than has ever been accorded to anybody before. Heretofore, the Tammany leaders

like Croker have at times preferred to exercise their autocratic power without too much open and avowed responsibility. But Boss Murphy not only holds the power, but openly accepts the responsibility. This new man has adopted methods of conciliation, and at present Tammany is unusually harmonious. It ought to be able, therefore, to make a strong fight this fall.



GOVERNOR PENNYPACKER.

*Boss Rule
and a Free
Press in
Pennsylvania.*

There was given to the public, last month, a long statement of political conditions and methods in Philadelphia, in the form of a review covering the past four years. It was issued by the managers of the Municipal League. It is a scathing description and analysis of the evil methods pursued in what the reformers consider the most scandalously corrupt of all great cities. The government of the city of Philadelphia has not been wholly distinct in influence and character from the government of the State of Pennsylvania. Republican boss rule has dominated the affairs of City and State alike. One of the most extraordinary achievements of this boss domination has been the passage by the recent Legislature of a new law directed against the newspapers, intended to suppress political cartoons, and to restrain the press from extreme criticism of the acts of officials. Undoubtedly, some of the Philadelphia newspapers—one in particular—have gone far in the virulence of their attacks upon the high officers of Philadelphia and the State of Pennsylvania. But the provocation to

these forms of newspaper attack has been great; and, furthermore, the ordinary libel laws have been available, with a judiciary made up largely of men owing their positions to the very personages most frequently assailed by the press. The new enactment is ascribed to the personal influence of Governor Pennypacker himself; who, in giving it his signature, made a long public defense of it that has excited the derision of newspapers throughout the entire country. Criticism of public officers in the United States is in no particular danger of doing any harm. It is sometimes excessive, and sometimes seriously unjust. But it is wholesome and necessary that there should be great freedom in the discussion of public men and measures. Philadelphia newspapers proceeded at once, after the signing of the act, to publish cartoons holding up Governor Pennypacker to public ridicule and contempt, in direct violation of the law, with the express purpose of defying him to proceed against them under his own pet measure.

*Things Good
and Bad at
St. Louis.*

The ceremonies at St. Louis, in commemoration of the Louisiana Purchase, were of a notable character, as befitted so important an anniversary. President Roosevelt and ex-President Cleveland made well-prepared addresses, and were received in St. Louis with every mark of honor and attention, and with public ovations free from any show of partisanship. The address of M. Jusserand, the French ambassador, and of Señor Ojeda, the Spanish minister, were gratifying evidences of the present friendly international relationships that our country enjoys. The States were well represented by their governors and prominent officials. It is the general testimony that preparations for the exposition of next year are further advanced than has been customary with great fairs a year before their opening. It was also, however, demonstrated by the celebrations that St. Louis will have to make serious efforts to supply the lack of sufficient hotel accommodation. Meanwhile, St. Louis and Missouri had been occupied through April by astounding disclosures regarding bribery and corruption in the State Legislature. Under the leadership of Circuit Attorney Folk, who exposed municipal boodling in St. Louis, the misdeeds of recent legislatures have been coming to light,—with confessions and indictments following one another in startling succession. Not to go into details here, it is only to be said that such humiliating disclosures, instead of proving our hopeless political condition in this country, are, on the contrary, evidence that there is power in the body politic to throw off its maladies.

*In Chicago
and
the Northwest.*

In Chicago, the public matter of most interest last month was the passage by the Legislature of the long-contested bill to give the Chicago municipality the right to purchase and own the street-railway system, the franchises being about to expire. It is scarcely likely that municipal ownership will be adopted; yet the city ought to have the power to enter upon such a policy in order to be in position to make proper terms in the re-granting of franchises. From Minneapolis comes the news of the conviction of ex-Mayor Ames, and his sentence to six years of imprisonment on the well-known charges of corrupt and venal conduct in office which had resulted in his flight from the city, and in connection with which various other officials had been indicted and punished. In general, reports from Minnesota are to the effect that the new primary-election system, which, at its first trial, had surprised everybody by giving Ames the Republican mayoralty nomination, has of late been resulting in an improved type of candidates for office. Governor LaFollette, of Wisconsin, however, has not yet succeeded in securing the passage of his long-demanded primary-election law, although he has risen to power upon that particular issue and it was prominent in the election of the recent Legislature. The two houses of the Legislature have taken different views of the primary question, and the subject goes over. Railroad-rate legislation seems also to have failed of passage, it being Governor LaFollette's proposition that his proposed new scheme of taxing the railroads should be accompanied by a law preventing the railroads from raising their rates in order to meet new tax burdens.

*The President
in the
National
Parks.*

The President's visit to California, after leaving the Louisiana Purchase Celebration at St. Louis, took him through Kansas, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona. Mr. Roosevelt has always been an object of Kansas enthusiasm, and he still holds the hearts of the people of the "Sunflower State." Nothing could have surpassed the welcome he was given in Denver, Pueblo, and wherever in Colorado there was a chance to greet him. In New Mexico, he was surrounded by Rough Riders, and his old friends seemed to include the entire population. He encouraged the New Mexicans to believe that a little more irrigation would bring about that growth which would entitle them to admission to the Union. His visit to the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, like that in April to the Yellowstone Park, and the one later, in May, to the Yosemite, was so carried out as not merely to give the President himself some

pleasure and recreation, but also to impress the country profoundly with the wonder of these great public reservations. The nation will be incited to their better preservation, and thousands of Americans who have not seen them will have had their attention and interest so stimulated as to lead them to visit the natural objects of beauty and grandeur with which nature has so richly endowed our Western country. Mr. Roosevelt himself carries into all his travels, whatever their specific object, an ever alert intelligence and a capacity for seeing things freshly and with well-directed enthusiasm. Thus, the Presidential journey will have had many excellent and far-reaching results.

*On the
Pacific Coast.*

It would be impossible, in a brief space, to give any detailed notion of the President's California days, lasting nearly two weeks, last month, and crowded full of sightseeing, speechmaking, and hospitalities. He reviewed the annual floral parade at Los Angeles, preached the gospel of irrigation, urged the preservation of the big redwood trees, visited the University of California and also Leland Stanford University, helped to dedicate at San Francisco a noble monument in honor of the victory at Manila, and, among many speeches, made a particularly impressive one upon our position in the Pacific, the expansion of our Oriental trade, and our destiny as the foremost of the powers legitimately entitled to dominate for peace and commerce the greatest of the oceans. The four days preceding May 19 were spent in the Yosemite Valley region, where the President was accompanied by John Muir, the famous naturalist, who is an authority on that region. The itinerary provided for visits to the States of Oregon and Washington, with various short pauses on a return journey through Montana, Idaho, Utah, Wyoming, Iowa, and Illinois. If no deviations be made from the programme, the Presidential party will reach Washington on the evening of Friday, June 5.

*Presidential
Politics.*

Only in a remote and indirect way can the President's travels be regarded as having a political bearing. They have, however, so clearly demonstrated his strength in the West with the people of all parties and classes that even in their secret whisperings the politicians no longer think of attempting to prevent his renomination next year. No other Republican candidate for the Presidency is now under consideration. What the Democrats will do for a candidate is as far from being settled as ever. It is plain, however, that during the past month the one Democrat who



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HON. GROVER CLEVELAND AND HIS SON, RICHARD FOLSOM CLEVELAND.

(As photographed last month on the porch of Mr. Cleveland's home, at Princeton, N. J.)

has been far more conspicuous than any other in the public eye is ex-President Cleveland. In the political cartoons of the past month, no other personage has figured nearly so often as he. In the political editorials of the daily press, no other name has been so often mentioned. Repeated attempts have been made to get Mr. Cleveland to say whether or not he would under any circumstances be a candidate. He has not, however, thought it needful to satisfy the curiosity of his questioners.

*Mr. Cleveland
and the
Democrats.*

Certainly, Mr. Cleveland has never at any time stood higher in the esteem of the American public than to-day. His health is excellent, and his outlook upon affairs is unquestionably broader, calmer, and more philosophical than at any former period. At the time of the next Presidential inauguration, he will be just sixty-eight years old. He has lived a quiet and retired life at Princeton, N. J., since the end of his second term as President, six years ago. He is a trustee of Prince-

ton University, and is much interested in the work of that great institution. The so-called third-term tradition, which is sometimes spoken of as having the force of unwritten law, owes its force simply to the feeling that successive re-elections might too greatly intrench a strong executive in the exercise of power. It has very little relevance except as to consecutive terms. Thus, the third-term argument would probably not weigh for very much against Mr. Cleveland's chances. But the opposition of Mr. Bryan and his friends would be so intense that it does not now seem possible to nominate Mr. Cleveland in a Democratic convention where, as for a long time past, the rule will still hold that the successful candidate must secure a two-thirds vote. Among other names frequently mentioned for the Democratic nomination, is to be noted that of ex-Governor Francis, of Missouri, president of the exposition; Judge Parker, of New York; Mr. Olney, of Massachusetts, and Mr. Edward M. Shepard, of New York, are still on the list.

Affairs at Washington. President Roosevelt will return to a comparatively quiet and unexciting situation at Washington. In the Post-Office Department he will find a good deal of ferment, due to an investigation that Postmaster-General Payne is carrying on of certain alleged minor abuses having considerable ramifications and pertaining chiefly to the period of the war with Spain. It takes much vigilance to keep the governmental departments free from scandals. There are no indications of serious frauds or peculations, but it is none the less needful that the Post-Office Department should be purged of those petty extravagances, irregularities, and abuses that are especially prone to grow up under such conditions as existed during the Spanish-American War and immediately after it. The dull season at Washington will not last as long as usual, for the new Congress is to convene early in November, rather than in December, in order to have ample time to deal effectively with the currency question.

Currency and Business. While the general business of the country is remarkably good, there has been much evidence for some time past of dullness and timidity in banking, financial, and investment circles; and this, doubtless, is due in some appreciable measure to the failure of the last Congress to deal in one way or another with the currency question. The business of the country has outgrown the present national banking law, and our monetary system is not equal to the demands upon it. Senators Aldrich, Allison, Spooner, and Platt

(of Connecticut) have been in conference at Hot Springs, Va., as a committee representing the Republican majority of the Senate, in the endeavor to draft the outlines of a financial measure that can be introduced in the special session, which, it is expected, will be called for November 9. The unfavorable effect produced in the railway and corporation world by the Northern Securities decision has not disappeared. A subsequent modification, however, by virtue of which the Northern Securities Company has been allowed to receive and pay dividends pending its appeal to the Supreme Court, has relieved it of immediate embarrassment. The case will be advanced to a prompt hearing when the Supreme Court opens its fall session, in October. There has been a hearing before the Interstate Commerce Commission on the charges of an illegal combination to fix the prices of anthracite coal on the part of the coal-carrying roads of Pennsylvania. The attempts of the companies to deny the existence of such a combination have been far from convincing.

"Rock Island" and the Railway Combinations. Although the combination movement has been somewhat set back by adverse legal and financial conditions, a very large railway deal was consummated last month. This was the acquisition of the St. Louis & San Francisco Railroad by the Rock Island system. The Rock Island, with branches now building or soon to be acquired, will control fifteen thousand miles of railway, extending from Chicago and St. Louis southwestward. It has entered, furthermore, by the purchase of a half interest in several lines belonging to the Southern Pacific system, into relations that promise a large measure of stability in railroad rates throughout Texas and the Southwest at large. To those who approve of the economic reasoning set forth in the recent Northern Securities decision, all this suppression of actual and potential railroad competition in the Southwest is highly objectionable, even if not illegal. But such reasoning is entirely obsolete and fallacious. The merging of Southwestern systems and the harmonizing of traffic interests is the best thing that could happen, not merely to investors in railway securities, but also to the people who have to patronize the roads. The primary object for which railroads are chartered in the Southwest, as elsewhere, is to provide public highways. Transportation is a public function, and as such is subject to direct and severe public control. It is not to be regulated by competition, as some of the United States judges seem to suppose. On the contrary, such competition is an unmitigated evil. It is fast disappearing.

*Crops,
Trade, and
Prosperity.*

The weather last month was not altogether favorable for crops; yet it was too early to make predictions, and the winter wheat, in any case, was expected to make a large yield. There was great excitement in trade circles last month about cotton, which reached almost unprecedented high prices, due to a demand in the chief cotton markets which ran into wild speculation on reports of a widespread shortage in the world's cotton production. In general, the imports into the United States during the spring have been considerably larger than usual, while the exports have been smaller. This is due chiefly to the extraordinary consumption of the American market. Our iron and steel industries, working at high pressure, have not been able to supply the home demand, and thus there has been unusually large importation from abroad. If times here should grow comparatively dull, it would be entirely possible for the United States Steel Corporation and other large producers to compete favorably in the outside markets of the world and to export their products very heavily. Upon the whole, business conditions remain favorable, and there is no apparent ground for fear of sharp reaction, unless there should be widespread crop failures, insane speculation, or a further mischievous development of labor troubles.

*Distress of
the Silver-
Standard
Countries.*

Far greater than the need of the United States to rehabilitate its currency system is the need of the silver-using commercial countries to establish a par of exchange with the gold-standard countries. The trade conditions of the world are now overwhelmingly dominated by the great nations that do business on a gold basis. The silver countries like Mexico and China, wherever they come into trade relations with the outside world, have to translate their values into the terms of gold. With silver fluctuating but tending downward, an extremely difficult situation has presented itself to the governments and to the merchants of the silver countries in their dealings with the outside world. China has found it disastrously expensive to collect indemnity money from her people on a silver basis and then pay the great powers in terms of high-priced gold. (The United States, tardily followed by England, has agreed to accept silver.) Mexican railroads have had to collect fares in silver dollars and then to pay interest on bonds in the United States in gold, with the Mexican silver dollar bringing only about thirty-eight cents. After much expert study, we have settled the problem for the Philippine Islands by the plan of limiting the amount of silver money, is-



HON. HUGH H. HANNA.

(Chairman of the Commission on the Standard of Exchange.)

suing it on government account, and giving it a fixed arbitrary exchange value,—namely, that of two silver dollars for one of gold. What we have really done in the Philippines is to establish gold as a standard and measure of value, while giving the people silver as the ordinary medium of circulation.

*Our
Commission,
and the Gen-
eral Outlook.*

Something of this kind will probably have to be done for all silver-using countries that are to keep and develop their international trade. In order to help bring this about, the United States Government, on request of Mexico and China, has appointed a commission of experts to visit foreign governments and confer on the whole subject. Mr. Hugh H. Hanna, of Indianapolis, long identified with the American sound-money movement; Prof. J. W. Jenks, of Cornell, and Mr. Charles A. Conant, of New York, are the members of this commission. Mr. Conant had an important part in the reconstruction of the money system of the Philippines, and each member of the commission has especial qualifications. Messrs. Conant and Jenks visited Mexico a few weeks ago to confer with the important monetary commission which, under the auspices of Finance Minister Limantour, has been dealing diligently and hopefully with the exchange problem as it re-



Courtesy of "Modern Mexico," New York.

Jaime Gurza, J. D. Casasus, Enrique C. Creel, Vice-Pres., P. Macedo, Pres., Señor Limantour, Jeremiah W. Jenks, Charles A. Conant, Edward Brush.

MEMBERS OF THE MEXICAN MONETARY COMMISSION, AND AMERICAN EXPERTS, RECENTLY IN SESSION AT THE MEXICAN CAPITAL.

lates to our sister republic. Subsequently, Señor Limantour, with other members of the commission, notably Señor Enrique C. Creel, visited New York last month. Messrs. Hanna, Conant, and Jenks, accompanied by Señor Creel, have gone to Europe, where they will confer at London, Paris, Berlin, and several other capitals.

A Mexican Plan Decided Upon. Messrs. Limantour and the accomplished members of the Mexican commission have practically decided on a plan resembling in its essential features our solution of the monetary problem of the Philippines. It is proposed to issue a new coinage of Mexican silver dollars to the extent of \$100,000,000, which will be maintained for exchange purposes at a gold value of 50 cents each. The Mexican Government will support these coins by means of a reserve fund which it will hold of \$25,000,000 in gold. The Mexican silver dollars now outstanding will either go out of circulation or else will pass voluntarily from hand to hand at about their bullion value. The silver situation in India, which was so distressing a few years ago, has been satisfactorily settled for the present by a similar plan of a limited governmental coinage of rupees and the arbitrary maintenance of an exchange rate between silver and gold. What is really on foot is an attempt to put the silver countries on a gold basis.

Will Diaz Have a Seventh Term? If President Diaz should not become a candidate for a seventh term, the distinguished finance minister, Limantour, to whose visit last month at New York

we have just alluded, would seem the natural successor. General Diaz is now seventy-four years old. He would probably render his country a better service by helping to elect a suitable successor, and by giving the prestige of his name and influence to the establishment of another man in the chair of authority, than by remaining in office through his last years. It is well argued by those who hold this view that serious divisions and discords might arise if he died in office, whereas the fruitage of his long administration might be conserved if he should use his present great authority to see that his successor is rightly chosen and firmly established. The reports, however, all point toward another term for General Diaz.

The Venezuelan Affair. It was on May 7 that the Venezuelan protocols were all finally signed at Washington; and thus the question of preferential treatment will go to The Hague, where the United States is to be represented by one of the most distinguished members of its bar, former United States Attorney-General Wayne MacVeagh. In the practical settlement of the claims against Venezuela, the most important thing arranged by the agreements at Washington was that which gave to the United States the appointment of the umpires. Thus, the claims of Germany against Venezuela will first be dealt with by representatives of the two countries, and wherever they disagree the amount or validity of a given claim will be settled by the umpire named by President Roosevelt. This position was offered, last month, to Mr. F. W.

Holls, of New York, whose other engagements would not permit his spending the summer at Caracas. An admirable substitute was at once found in Gen. Henry M. Duffield, of Michigan, who will umpire the German claims. Mr. Ralston, of Washington, has a like appointment for Italian claims, while Mr. Frank C. Partridge, of Vermont, is to umpire British and Dutch claims. Mr. Bowen sailed for Caracas on May 18 to resume his duties as United States minister. The Venezuelan revolutionists are again active, and there were reports, last month, of defeats on the part of President Castro's forces.

Russia and Manchuria.

Russia has held the central place in the attention of the world during the past month for a diversity of reasons. First and foremost has been the question of Manchuria. The time had come for giving effect to the promised evacuation of Manchuria by the Russian forces, and this called for the arrangement of many details with the government of China. The circumstances are such that Russia is entitled to give as much care to all that relates to what is to follow her withdrawal from Manchuria as we were entitled to concern ourselves, through the stipulations of the Platt amendment and otherwise, with what should follow our withdrawal from Cuba. Through British agencies, however, an immense excitement was stirred up, particularly in the United States, on account of the Russo-Chinese negotiations at Peking. The convenient mode of withdrawing at least a part of the Russian troops was by sea, and the incidental massing of soldiers at Newchwang for purposes of transport was hysterically proclaimed in England and America as a reoccupation of Manchuria in violation of agreements. Manchuria is destined to be developed by the Russians. They are expressly permitted to defend their great railway system, and they alone will be the judges of the number of soldiers they may need to keep in Manchuria for that purpose. If England were in Russia's place, she would never dream of withdrawing from Manchuria. Already the essential Russian interests in that region far outweigh those of China.

America's True Policy.

The eminent Russian ambassador at Peking, M. Paul Lessar, is opposed to having Russia now assume responsibility for annexing and administering Manchuria, and he is supported by the most powerful of Russian statesmen, M. de Witte. General Kuropatkin, the war minister, doubtless favors a more aggressive Russian policy. The kind of agitation promoted last month by the British

Government and press, if persisted in, must lead Russia to prompt annexation, in which case the United States would lose her present trade advantages there, unless a special commercial treaty were made with Russia. The administration at Washington would do well to make it as clear as possible that it is no secret member of the Anglo-Japanese anti-Russian alliance. The principal parties in interest are Russia and China. Both are traditional friends of the United States. Our government must cut clear from London in its treatment of these far Eastern questions. A wise and farsighted policy may yet avail to protect our trade interests in the Manchurian country; but the policy of bluffing Russia is certainly neither wise nor farsighted.

The Anti-Jewish Riots at Kishineff.

Another topic which held large space in the newspapers was the somewhat belated news of a terrible anti-Jewish riot on April 19, 20, and 21, in which the Jewish quarter of the Russian city of Kishineff was looted, several scores of Jewish people were killed, and many others maltreated and injured. Great pressure was brought by many associations and organizations of good people, Christians as well as Jews, in the United States, last month, to induce our Department of State to take up this affair officially with Russia. If, indeed, innocent American citizens, lawfully sojourning in Russia, were the victims of a local riot, our government might have some ground for polite inquiry, to be carried on through our ambassador at St. Petersburg. But nobody supposes that any American citizen was harmed in the anti-Jewish riots at Kishineff. This incident was merely one of the worst in the painful history of the mistreatment of Jews by Christians. There is no remedy that the outside world can apply. The slow progress of civilization can alone give security to human rights in an ignorant and prejudiced country. Every nation has its own failings. The American who spends time enough on the Continent of Europe to become familiar with the press soon finds that very little news is reported from the United States except of lynchings, burnings at the stake, labor riots, and extraordinary disasters and crimes. Furthermore, the Europeans regard themselves as concerned in these matters, because of the large numbers of their fellow-countrymen who have emigrated to the United States, where not a few of them are reported as victims of our lawlessness and violence. It is well to remember that in European eyes we are absurd when we undertake to censure other governments on the ground that they neglect or mistreat their own people.



THE PRESIDENTIAL JOURNEY.—PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPEAKING TO THE SCHOOL CHILDREN AT CLAREMONT, LOS ANGELES COUNTY, CALIFORNIA.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From April 20 to May 19, 1903.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

April 21.—The Florida Legislature reflects Stephen R. Mallory (Dem.) to the United States Senate.... John P. Studley (Rep.) is reflected mayor of New Haven, Conn.

April 23.—The New York Legislature adjourns.

April 27.—The United States Supreme Court sustains the clause in the Alabama constitution which disfranchises negroes ... The War Department makes public the report of General Miles on his tour in the Philippines.... Lieut.-Gov. John A. Lee, of Missouri, resigns.

April 28.—The New York Court of Appeals declares the franchise-tax law constitutional and the eight-hour labor law unconstitutional.

May 5.—Robert M. McLane (Dem.) is elected mayor of Baltimore.

May 12.—For the first time in fifty years, the cities and towns of New Hampshire vote on the question of saloon licenses; all of the cities vote for license, and a large majority of the towns for no license.... The Alabama State Republican Executive Committee votes to admit

negroes to participation in the councils of the party.... Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, signs the bill known as the "press-muzzler".... In the United States District Court at San Francisco, the Federal Salt Trust pleads guilty to having violated the provisions of the Sherman anti-trust law.

May 18.—Governor Yates, of Illinois, signs the Chicago traction bill.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

April 20.—Many Jews are murdered and their houses looted in Kishineff, Russia.

April 21.—The British Parliament reassembles.

April 22.—Capt. Alfred Dreyfus addresses a letter to the French minister of war demanding a fresh inquiry into his case.... The German Reichstag passes a government bill prohibiting the use of phosphorus in match-making, because of its injurious effect on the workmen.... Admiral Morin accepts the post of foreign minister for Italy, and Admiral Bettolo becomes minister of marine.... The San Domingo revolutionists succeed in overthrowing the government of President Vasquez

and establishing a provisional government under A. Wos-Gil.

April 23.—The British budget is announced in the House of Commons.

April 30.—The German Reichstag is prorogued....The Natal Parliament opens.

May 6.—The British House of Commons adopts a resolution guaranteeing the Transvaal loan of \$175,000,000.

May 7.—The Irish land bill passes its second reading in the British House of Commons by a vote of 443 to 26.

May 18.—General Petroff succeeds in forming a new Bulgarian cabinet.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

April 21.—The convention embodying the concessions for the construction of the Bagdad Railway is made public....The Spanish Government orders the Sultan of Morocco's custom-house officials to leave Melilla.

April 22.—The Taotai at Shanghai notifies the Bankers' Commission that China has issued instructions for the immediate signing of the indemnity gold bonds.

April 23.—It is announced in the British House of Commons that Great Britain will not participate in the Bagdad Railway scheme.

April 27.—King Edward of England is the guest of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy at Rome.

April 29.—The Japanese foreign office announces that Russia has completely evacuated the province of Shing-King, Manchuria.

May 1.—Turkish troops capture a band of 300 Bulgarians near Nevrokop, European Turkey....King Edward is received by President Loubet in Paris....The British case in the Alaskan boundary dispute is submitted to Ambassador Choate in London, and the case of the United States is delivered to the British ambassador at Washington.

May 2.—Emperor William of Germany is received at Rome.

May 4.—The American, British, and Japanese ministers to China discuss with Prince Ching the Russian demands regarding Manchuria.

May 6.—The Porte addresses a note to the Bulgarian Government, holding it responsible for the outrages committed in Macedonia....Lord Lansdowne declares in the British House of Commons that Great Britain will resist any attempt by any power to establish a naval base or fortified port in the Persian Gulf.

May 7.—Bulgaria returns the Porte's note regarding Macedonian outrages, because of its "offensive terms."

May 8.—The Russians reoccupy Newchwang.

May 11.—The Turkish Government disavows responsibility for the massacre at Monastir.

May 14.—It is announced that President Roosevelt has appointed as umpires in the adjustment of claims against Venezuela: Frank C. Partridge, of Vermont, for British and Dutch claims; Gen. Henry M. Duffield, of Michigan, for German claims; and Jackson H. Ralston, of the District of Columbia, for Italian claims.

May 18.—China declines the proposals of the United States and Japan to open Manchurian towns to foreign trade, on the ground of Russian opposition.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

April 20.—The Reading Coal & Iron Company orders a lockout in two-thirds of its collieries because of the refusal of the men to work nine hours on Saturday.

April 21.—Officials of the United Mine Workers order all coal miners out on strike or locked out to return to work, pending adjustment of grievances by a joint conciliation board....Prof. Charles R. Van Hise is elected president of the University of Wisconsin.

April 22.—Mgr. Denis J. O'Connell is installed as rector of the Catholic University at Washington, D. C....The Southern Educational Conference is opened at Richmond, Va.

April 23.—The British expedition in Somaliland reports a severe defeat, 190 officers and men having been killed in an engagement with the followers of the Mad Mullah....Andrew Carnegie gives \$600,000 for the endowment of Tuskegee Institute, Alabama.

April 25.—The defeat of the Mad Mullah's forces in Somaliland by General Manning's British troops is announced....Andrew Carnegie gives \$1,500,000 for the erection of a Temple of Peace for the Hague Court of Arbitration.

April 29.—Landslides at Turtle Mountain, near Frank, N. W. T., Canada, cause the loss of more than eighty lives.

April 30.—President Roosevelt and ex-President Cleveland make the principal addresses at the dedication of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition buildings at St. Louis....The Ottoman Bank at Salonika, European Turkey, is blown up by dynamite.

May 1.—The new law providing that no child under ten years of age can work in any cotton mill goes into effect throughout South Carolina.

May 10.—Hundreds of houses are destroyed by an incendiary fire at Ottawa, Ont.

May 13.—The Rev. Henry C. King, D.D., is installed as president of Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.

May 14.—The Great Northern Railway and its trainmen reach an agreement, the men getting an increase in wages after modifying some of their demands....A memorial arch for the missionaries of the American Board killed in the Boxer outbreak, in China, is dedicated at Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.

OBITUARY.

April 20.—Col. William R. Arthur, formerly president of the Illinois Central Railroad, 82....James W. Long, president of the Easton (Pa.) National Bank, 87.

April 21.—Col. W. T. Rockwood, of Saratoga, N. Y....Col. A. M. Johnson, of Chattanooga, for many years prominent in public affairs in Tennessee, 73....Milton M. Fisher, of Medway, Mass., a well-known Abolitionist and Free Soil party man, 92.

April 22.—Ex-Gov. Alexander Ramsey, of Minnesota, 88 (see page 674).

April 23.—Mrs. Ellen Sully Fray, of Toledo, Ohio, well-known woman suffragist....N. P. Lovering, of Lyndonville, Vt., for forty-three years general passenger agent for the Passumpsic road, 71.

April 24.—Judge Michael Arnold, of Philadelphia, 63....James Osborne Putnam, ex-minister to Belgium, 85

....Col. William Bailey, of New York, a Western railroad promoter, 67....Anthony J. Thomas, formerly manager for Drexel, Morgan & Co. and identified with many railroads, 77.

April 25.—Mrs. Elizabeth B. Gallaudet, widow of Dr. Gallaudet, the "apostle to the deaf mutes," 79....Mrs. Annie E. Shipman, superintendent of the Foundlings' Home of Chicago, 79.

April 27.—Bishop Frederick William Taylor, of the Episcopal diocese of Quincy, Ill., 50....Commander Julien St. Clair Ogden, a prominent naval engineer, 55.

April 28.—Rev. Dr. George Dana Boardman, the distinguished Philadelphia preacher, author, and lecturer, 75....Gen. Edward Olcott Shephard, a well-known Boston lawyer, 68....Prof. Josiah Willard Gibbs, of Yale University, 64....Irving M. Scott, of San Francisco, builder of the battleship *Oregon*, 66....Gov. De Forest Richards, of Wyoming, 66....Rt. Hon. Robert W. Hanbury, president of the British Board of Agriculture, 58.

April 29.—Paul Belloni Du Chaillu, the American explorer and author, 68....Robson Stuart ("Stuart Robson"), the well-known comedian, 67.

April 30.—Commander Edward Hooker, U.S.N., retired, 81....John Baptiste Ford, of Pittsburg, father of the plate glass industry in this country, 92....Prof. Charles Kastner, principal of the Lowell (Mass.) School of Practical Design, 87.

May 1.—James Wells Champney, the artist, 60....Bishop Randolph S. Foster, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 83....Luigi Arditi, the well-known musical conductor, 81....Gen. Nelson Viall, of Providence, R. I., a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 76.

May 3.—Capt. Edward W. Brady, for twenty-three years a Washington newspaper correspondent, 57.

May 4.—Bishop John Fletcher Hurst, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 69.

May 5.—Judge A. E. Maxwell, of Florida, 83.

May 6.—Col. Asa Philip Stanford, a brother of the late Senator Leland Stanford, 82.

May 7.—George G. Williams, for twenty-five years president of the Chemical Bank, New York, 77....Prof. Thomas Randolph Price, of Columbia University, 64.

May 8.—Mwanga, the former king of Uganda, who had been exiled by the British to the Seychelles IslandsDavid Mills, Justice of the Supreme Court of Canada, 71....Col. W. H. Dewey, a prominent citizen of Idaho, 80.

May 9.—Gardiner Greene Howland, general manager of the New York *Herald*, 68.

May 10.—Derick Fahnestock, the Baltimore banker, 82.

May 12.—Richard Henry Stoddard, poet and essayist, 78....Rev. Dr. Peter Anstadt, of York, Pa., the oldest minister in the General Synod of the Lutheran Church, 83.

May 13.—William Brookfield, of New York, prominent Republican politician, 59....S. E. Middleton, of Duluth, Minn., Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under President Lincoln, 62....Ezra T. Galliland, inventor of many telephone improvements, 56....John Wilson, for many years one of the proprietors of the University Press, Cambridge, 77....Rev. Moses G. Knight, one of the oldest Presbyterian ministers in this country, 84....Col. Garnett Andrews, ex-mayor of Chattanooga and prominent Southern lawyer.

May 14.—Mabini, a former minister in the insurgent Filipino cabinet.

May 16.—Sibyl Sanderson, the well-known opera singer, 89....W. T. Hall, of Chicago, well known as a humorous writer under the name of "Biff Hall," 45.

May 17.—Bishop Thomas Alfred Starkey, of the Episcopal diocese of Newark, N. J., 84.

May 19.—Benjamin F. Jones, Sr., of the Jones & Laughlin Steel Company (Limited), of Pittsburg, 79.



Photo by Gutekunst.

THE LATE DR.
GEORGE DANA BOARDMAN.

THE LATE BISHOP
JOHN F. HURST.

THE LATE BISHOP
RANDOLPH S. FOSTER.

SOME CURRENT CARTOONS.

THE cartoonists have spared President Roosevelt to a considerable extent during the period of his Western travels, but he has not been wholly forgotten. The talented draughtsman who supplies the cartoons for the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, Mr. Godwin, —and of whose brilliant work last month we reproduce three or four specimens,—represents Roosevelt on the Pacific coast bearing aloft the banner of national progress at the moment when the newspapers of the country were commenting upon his remarkable San Francisco speech on American expansion and the control of the Pacific.

Mr. Rogers, of the New York *Herald*, makes an amusing hit apropos of the presence of Messrs. Roosevelt and Cleveland at the St. Louis exercises commemorating the centennial of the Louisiana Purchase. Those who have seen Mansfield play "Beau Brummel" will appreciate this clever adaptation, although, as a matter



"EXCELSIOR!"

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

of fact, there was no rivalry at St. Louis, where Miss Popularity gave equal attention to the man from Princeton and the man from Oyster Bay.



"BRUMMEL" ROOSEVELT: "Ah! who is your fat friend?"—From the *Herald* (New York).



COY.

MISS DEMOCRACY: "Now, dear, give me a sweet kiss and you shall have this stick of candy."
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



"A LITTLE LOUDER, PLEASE."

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).

It would be amusing to present a large number of the cartoons—many of them highly humorous, and none of them malicious—in which the newspapers of the country last month made note of ex President Cleveland's "boom" for next year's Democratic nomination. But our space is limited, and a few must suffice. The three on this page are fairly typical. The one from the *Brooklyn Eagle* expresses the sentiment of many of Mr. Cleveland's old admirers, who look upon him as alone capable of saving the party from its fatal errors.



AWAKENED.—RESCUE OF THE SLEEP-WALKER.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

The great conflict between Pennypacker and the cartoonists was at its height last month, and scores of pictures had been launched at the reactionary governor of Pennsylvania. The one on this page represents Senator Quay as holding up Pennypacker in a vain attempt to muzzle the press in the guise of the people's watchdog. Next month we may take occasion to give the subject special attention.



TRYING TO MUZZLE THE WATCHDOG.

From the *World* (New York).

Mr. Andrew Carnegie does so many interesting things that it is only in a tentative and experimental sense that one may call him "the man of the month,"—for he is likely enough to be still more the man of the next month. Mr. Carnegie was, however, very much in evidence in April and May. The tribute he paid to Booker T. Washington, and his gift to Tuskegee Institute, attracted much attention. His offer to build the various engineers' organizations of New York a million-dollar home is alluded to in the cartoon at the top of this page, and his much more conspicuous gift for what is likely to be called the Temple of Peace at The Hague was a topic of international note. This is to be a gift to the government of Holland in trust for the permanent tribunal for arbitration of disputes between nations. Such an edifice will do much to dignify the results of the great Peace Conference. The sum of \$1,500,000, given by Mr. Carnegie, is to be expended for a court-house and library to be placed at the service of the international tribunal.

In the other cartoon on this page, Uncle Sam is warning John Hay, the Secretary of State, against a precipitate plunge into Chinese waters. The newspapers had



ALADDIN AND HIS WONDERFUL LAMP.

SLAVE OF THE LAMP: "And what task have you next for your servant?"
ALADDIN CARNEGIE: "Build me a million-dollar Engineers' Club."

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

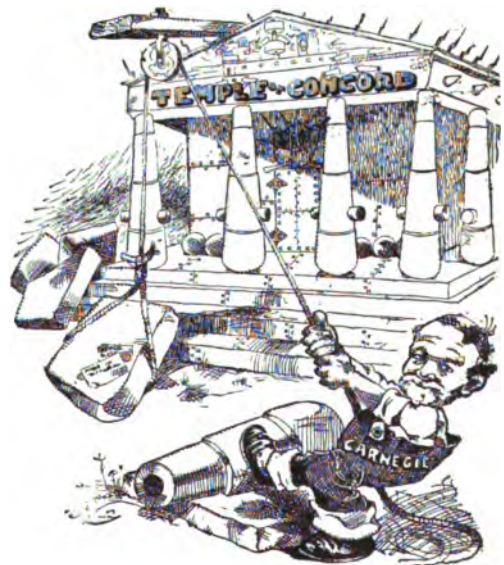
reported Mr. Hay as much wrought up over Russia's position in Manchuria, but Mr. Hay has evidently abstained from plunging.



COME OFF!

THE OLD MAN: "Hi, there, Johnny; that's no swimming-pool! You're making those togs look ridiculous!"

From the *Daily News* (Chicago).



BUILDING THE TEMPLE OF CONCORD AT THE HAGUE.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



Pirie MacDonald, photographer of men, N. Y.

DR. JOHN FINLEY, PRESIDENT-ELECT OF THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

(From a photograph taken especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.)

THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK AND ITS NEW PRESIDENT.

THE election of Dr. John Huston Finley to be president of the College of the City of New York is the event of the month in the educational world. This institution, supported by the city of New York, was established in 1847, and has been doing a large and worthy educational work, but in a conservative and old-fash-

ioned atmosphere that somewhat obscured its achievements and opportunities. Dr. Finley, formerly—at twenty-nine years of age—president of Knox College, Illinois, and now professor of politics at Princeton University, is a young man of thirty-nine, who has the knack of success, and, particularly, proved ability as an educational

organizer and administrator. He is plainly the man to take hold of the college of the metropolitan city, at just the moment when all external conditions are keyed up to a great expansion of its value and reputation if only there is added a vigorous, sane, and open-minded administrator.

In 1847, when the people of New York City voted for the establishment of an institution which should be a college and something of a polytechnic institution as well, the name chosen was the New York Free Academy. A building was constructed on the southeast corner of Lexington Avenue and Twenty-third Street, which is still the home of the College of the City of New York, as it came to be known in 1866. In the middle of the last century, this location was away up town, a mile above the center of population. The beautiful buildings recently designed by Mr. George B. Post for the new home of the college are going up six miles to the north of the old site, at One Hundred and Thirty-eighth Street and Amsterdam Avenue. We reproduce two of the architect's plans, to suggest the magnificent conception and dimensions of the structures which are to mark this new era in the life of the college. These imposing Gothic halls are to cost no less than \$2,600,000, a figure all the more impressive when it is considered that no dormitories are included.

Before 1882, the college was open only to

graduates of New York public schools; but since that date, any resident of New York City over fourteen years of age is eligible to be a student. There are now considerably more than 2,000 students every year, and a great number of successful graduates bear witness to the sterling work of the college. The new build-



GENERAL PLAN OF THE NEW BUILDINGS.

ings allow for 3,000 students, and the number may soon reach 5,000.

With ample funds, an enthusiastic board of trustees, a new home, inspiring in its spaciousness and grace, and such an able administrator as Dr. Finley, it is pretty safe to say that the College of the City of New York will give another interesting example of the rapid evolution of an American school from local into national dignity and reputation.



THE NEW COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.—MAIN BUILDING.

(From the architect's sketch.)

GOVERNOR RAMSEY, OF MINNESOTA.

BY WARREN UPHAM.

TO few men is it granted to have an active participation in the political and social progress of sixty years, like Alexander Ramsey, of Pennsylvania and Minnesota. His earliest public work was in the Presidential campaign of 1840, of "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too." After two terms in Congress from his native State, he came to Minnesota, under appointment by President Taylor, to be its first Territorial governor.

When Minnesota had been admitted to the Union, he was again its governor, from 1860 to 1863, bearing heavy burdens of the Civil War and of a great outbreak and massacre by the Sioux Indians in the southwestern part of the State. During the next twelve years, he was a United States Senator from Minnesota; and from 1879 to 1881, was Secretary of War under President Hayes.

Through all his life, he was a steadfast Whig and Republican, a public-spirited citizen, and a genial and kind neighbor and friend, honored and beloved by all who knew him. Possessing to the last a remarkably good memory, a cheerful temperament, and a lively interest in all current events, he enjoyed generally good health, and continued to attend to public and private business until only a few weeks before his death, in the latter half of his eighty-eighth year. Among the many whose efforts have founded and built up Minnesota, it is not invidious to assign to Governor Ramsey the grand distinction of having been her foremost citizen.

Alexander Ramsey was born near Harrisburg, Pa., September 8, 1815. His father and grandfather were born in Pennsylvania, but more remotely the family was of Scotch ancestry. His father, Thomas Ramsey, was an officer in the War of 1812, and died when Alexander was about ten years old. The mother, Elizabeth Kelker Ramsey, was a descendant of early German settlers of Pennsylvania. After his father's death, Alexander was received into the family of his mother's uncle, Frederick Kelker, a merchant in Harrisburg. In the intervals between school terms, he was employed in the uncle's store, and later as a clerk in the office of the county register of deeds.

In childhood, he was very fond of reading and study. One of his early teachers, Isaac D. Rupp, who afterward became eminent as an historian, often spoke of his former pupil as a boy

of very unusual abilities. At the age of eighteen years, he entered Lafayette College, at Easton, Pa., where he took a partial course. Later, he studied law with the Hon. Hamilton Alricks, of Harrisburg, Pa., and in the law school of the Hon. John Reed, at Carlisle, Pa., and in 1839 was admitted to the practice of law.

The next year, young Ramsey became well known as an efficient worker in the Whig party, which elected Harrison and Tyler. He was chosen as the secretary of the electoral college of Pennsylvania; and in January, 1841, he was elected chief clerk of the House of Representatives of that State.

In the years 1843 to 1847, he represented his district,—Dauphin, Lebanon, and Schuylkill counties,—in Congress, but declined a renomination for a third term. Of this early public service, William H. Barnes wrote: "Mr. Ramsey sustained the character and earned the reputation of a useful rather than merely ornamental member. He was more remarkable for his practical ability and diligent attention to business than for any special efforts at oratorical display."

On September 10, 1845, Mr. Ramsey was married to Miss Anna Earl Jenks, a daughter of the Hon. Michael H. Jenks, a judge in Bucks County, Pa., and a Representative in Congress from 1843 to 1845. By her admirable social qualities, and her constant interest in the public career of her husband in Pennsylvania and Minnesota, and during their terms of residence at the national capital, Mrs. Ramsey contributed in no small degree to his advancement and success.

In 1848, he was chairman of the Whig State Committee during the campaign which elected Gen. Zachary Taylor to the Presidency.

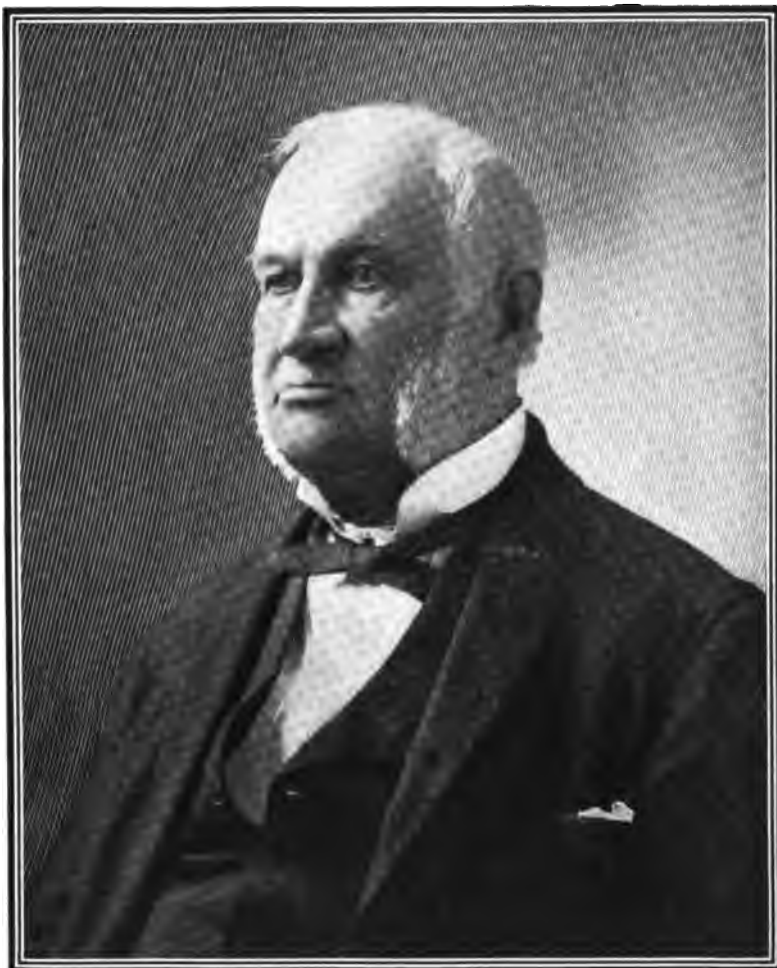
Minnesota was established as a Territory by act of Congress on March 3, 1849, the day preceding President Taylor's inauguration. Within the same month, the President offered to Mr. Ramsey the appointment of governor of this new Territory, which he decided to accept, and his commission was dated April 2, 1849. He arrived in St. Paul, the frontier village designated to be the seat of the Territorial government, on May 27; and on the first day of June, the other Territorial officers having also arrived, he issued a proclamation declaring Minnesota Territory duly organized.

When he came to Minnesota, it was almost wholly an Indian country, its southern half being owned by the Sioux or Dakotas, and its northern half by the Ojibways. Through treaties negotiated by Governor Ramsey and Luke Lea, as commissioners for the federal government, with the Sioux bands in July and August, 1851, at Traverse des Sioux and Mendota, they ceded to the United States a vast prairie region in southern Minnesota, which was thus opened to white settlement.

In the autumn of the same year, Governor Ramsey visited the Red River valley, and at Pembina made a treaty with the Ojibways for the cession of their prairie lands drained by the Red River. The Ojibway treaty, however, was not ratified by the Senate. Its purpose was not attained until twelve years later, when, in October, 1863, a treaty was effected by Alexander Ramsey and Ashley C. Morrill, as United States commissioners, with the Red Lake and Pembina bands of the Ojibways.

The Sioux treaties of 1851 required payments of large sums of money, amounting to nearly \$600,000, to the tribes for their lands; and in connection with its disbursement, under Governor Ramsey's direction as superintendent of Indian affairs in Minnesota, various accusations of injustice and fraud were raised against him. These charges were investigated, in the year 1853, by Willis A. Gorman and Richard M. Young, appointed by President Pierce as United States commissioners for the trial, which was held in St. Paul, commencing on July 6 and ending on October 7. The report of the commission, with testimony of witnesses and accompanying papers, together forming four hundred and thirty-one printed pages, was laid before Congress January 10, 1854. It fully exonerated Governor Ramsey, as former enemies confessed.

Under the Democratic administration of Presi-



THE LATE HON. ALEXANDER RAMSEY.

dent Pierce, Willis A. Gorman was appointed to the governorship of Minnesota Territory, succeeding Ramsey on May 15, 1853. Remaining in St. Paul, which was continuously his home ever after his first coming in 1849, excepting when absent in Washington, the former governor's next important public duties were as mayor, in 1855, of this young city, which had been incorporated in March, 1854.

After Minnesota attained to Statehood, in 1858, Ramsey was the Republican candidate for governor in the first State campaign, but was defeated by the Democratic candidate, Gen. Henry H. Sibley, who became the first governor of the new State. In the next campaign, when Ramsey and Sibley were again candidates, the former was elected governor by an unquestioned majority. He was inaugurated on January 2, 1860. By reelection, he continued in this

position at the head of the State, through the trying early half of the Civil War, until July 10, 1863, when, having been elected to the United States Senate, he resigned the governorship.

Most useful to this State, among all the services rendered to it by Governor Ramsey, was his earnest advocacy, in his second and third annual messages to the Legislature, that the very ample federal grant of two sections of land in each surveyed township, for the establishment of a public-school fund, should be reserved for sale at much higher prices than the \$1.25 per acre of the general government lands. Through his influence, a law was enacted, March 10, 1862, by which the minimum price for sales of the school lands was fixed at \$5 per acre. Under the operation of this law, and of later laws concerning timber and ores on school lands, Minnesota has a larger permanent fund for the support of common schools than any other State, excepting the very large State of Texas. It amounted, at the end of the last fiscal year, July 31, 1902, to \$14,316,000.

Governor Ramsey was an ardent supporter of the Union during the Civil War. In his third annual message, January 9, 1862, he wrote: "When the infamous attack upon Fort Sumter occurred, in April, 1861, I was in the city of Washington, on business connected with the State, and at once called upon the Secretary of War, in company with two of our fellow-citizens in official station, and tendered one thousand men to the Government on the part of Minnesota. I am proud to know that this was the first tender of troops made to the President."

A difficulty more formidable than the supply of regiments to go South, and falling with the suddenness of a lightning-stroke, was the massacre by the Sioux, on August 18, 1862, of several hundred white settlers in southwestern Minnesota. The escaping survivors and refugees, in great numbers, flocked into the older and more eastern settlements. They were cared for under the direction of Governor Ramsey, who also hastily raised troops and dispatched them to the region of the outbreak. About a month after its beginning, the hostile savages were overwhelmingly defeated by General Sibley in the battle of Wood Lake; their white prisoners, about one hundred and fifty women and children, were released; many of the captured Sioux were soon afterward tried, and in December, thirty-eight were executed. In the ensuing frontier campaigns of 1863 and 1864, the Sioux, who had fled into the Dakota Territory, were severely chastised. Thus, Minnesota and her governors bore double burdens during the Civil War,—her share in subduing the Southern re-

billion, and her conflict with Indian foes on the West.

During his two terms in the Senate, ending in 1875, Ramsey was the chairman of important committees for a part or all of the twelve years, including the committees on Revolutionary Claims, Revolutionary Pensions, Territories, and Post-Offices and Post-Roads. He was greatly interested in efforts to secure cheaper international postage, for which he visited France in 1869. The improvement of the Mississippi River, government aid to the Northern Pacific Railroad, and the extension of trade with Manitoba, also occupied much of his attention.

Four years of private life ensued, and were followed by a year and a quarter of further public duty, in 1879 to 1881, as Secretary of War, this seat in the cabinet of President Hayes being occupied by Mr. Ramsey as the successor of the Hon. George W. McCrary, of Iowa.

The only subsequent federal service of Governor Ramsey was during the years 1882 to 1886, on the Utah Commission, of which he was chairman. His wife died November 29, 1884; and his home in St. Paul, built in 1870-72, was afterward under the care of his daughter, Mrs. C. E. Furness. There he passed the later years happily in the discharge of many minor duties, public and private, being a familiar figure in his almost daily visits to the business parts of the city. During many years, he was president of the local Society for the Relief of the Poor, and was well known for many unobtrusive acts of hearty kindness and aid.

During all the period of fifty-four years of his connection with this Territory and State, he was a leading spirit in the Minnesota Historical Society, which was organized in 1849, the first year of the Territory. He was its first president, from 1849 to 1863, when he went to Washington as Senator, and was again its president during the last twelve years of his life.

Inheriting from his Scotch and German ancestry a strong moral nature, Governor Ramsey gave liberally of his means and time for the work of the Presbyterian church in St. Paul, which was founded, in 1855, by the historian, the Rev. Edward D. Neill, called the House of Hope Church. He was a member of its first board of trustees, and continued as a trustee ever afterward, excepting an interval of three years during a part of his first Senatorial term.

He is commemorated by the name of the county which includes St. Paul, the capital of Minnesota; and his life-work is a strong part, like a corner-stone, of the foundation of this great commonwealth. He died at his home, after an illness of a few weeks, on April 22, 1903.

THE WELL-GOVERNED DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

ONE reason why the executive form of government of the District of Columbia is so little known outside of the District is that it is of such recent creation. Its twenty-fifth anniversary comes in the present month of June. It is interesting to note that until 1871 Congress provided no general executive government for the entire District of Columbia. The city of Washington had a government, the city of Georgetown had a government, and, prior to the retrocession of the Virginia side of the District, in 1846, the city of Alexandria had a government, like those of other American cities,—with mayors and councils elected by the people,—while the counties of Washington and Alexandria, comprising those portions of the District outside of the city, had their separate governments, also elected by the people.

Congress had created a judiciary for the District of Columbia in 1801. But the first executive government for the District was the territorial form of government of 1871. It provided a governor, a legislature, a board of public works, a board of health, and a Delegate in Congress. The Delegate in Congress and the lower house of the Legislature were elected by the people. The governor and the other officials were appointed by the President of the United States. There were two governors, Henry D. Cooke, a brother of Jay Cooke, and Alexander R. Shepherd. It was under the territorial form of government that Alexander R. Shepherd, first as the most active member of the Board of Public Works, and afterward as governor, began the improvement of the city of Washington.

In 1874, Congress abolished the territorial form of government, and provided for the temporary government of the District by a commission, which, coöperating with Congress and the citizens of the District, produced the Act of June, 1878, called by the Supreme Court of the United States the Constitution of the District of Columbia, providing, according to its terms, a "permanent form of government" for the District of Columbia. The agreement between the citizens of the District and Congress embodied in this organic act, commonly called the compact of 1878, included the surrender of the suffrage by the citizens and the promise by Congress that thereafter half the expenses of the maintenance and development of the national capital, therefore imposed entirely upon the comparatively few residents of the District of Columbia, should be met by the national government,—which owns more than half the real estate,—the other half

to be paid by the taxpayers of the District. This arrangement has given general satisfaction, and is far superior to anything that went before. For sentimental or other reasons, some of the residents of the District would like to have the suffrage restored. But the good government maintained under the Act of 1878, which has been secured largely by the elimination of partisan politics through the abolition of the suffrage, is in such shining contrast to the bad government of many American cities that the intelligent public opinion of the District is generally opposed to any material change. Public opinion, not being hampered by "the machine," the "boss," or the party organ, is so potential in the District of Columbia as to warrant the claim that it is conspicuously a government by public opinion. In the quarter of a century of the District's present form of government, there has been no charge, even by its enemies, of bribery, blackmail, or other corruption such as seems characteristic of American municipal government, and the results of the work done show that it has been honest and efficient.

The Commissioners of the District of Columbia are the executive government of the national capital. The Congress of the United States, under the Constitution, exercises "exclusive legislation" over the District of Columbia, but neither executive nor judicial functions. The commissioners recommend legislation and appropriations to Congress, and are consulted about all bills and appropriations for the District. The President of the United States is not named in the Constitution in connection with the Federal District, nor has Congress imposed upon him any duty in the government of the District, except to appoint, with the advice and consent of the Senate, the commissioners and the judiciary. The President is not charged by law with any part of the administration of District affairs.

The commissioners are not the successors of the mayors of Washington and Georgetown or the Levy Court of the County of Washington, all elected by the people, and dividing between them the executive function, but of the governors of the District of Columbia, the first executive officers of the entire District, who came into authority when Congress, in 1871, provided, for the first time, an executive government for the entire District of Columbia, the governors, like the commissioners, being appointed by the President of the United States. "The governing and executive body" is what Attorney-General Griggs



HON. HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND.

(President of the Board of Commissioners, District of Columbia.)

termed the commissioners, in an opinion to the President, on April 26, 1898, holding that, according to the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States (Barnes case, '91, U. S. 540), the District of Columbia is a municipal corporation proper, as distinguished from a corporation established as an agency of the government creating it, and that therefore its officers and employees are not officers and employees of the general government of the United States, but of the District of Columbia, so that the President cannot extend the provisions of the Civil Service Act to the District of Columbia government.

The character of the executive government of the District of Columbia is well shown by the comments of the three Washington daily newspapers,—all independent, in politics and otherwise.—on the recent reappointment of the chief executive officer of the District of Columbia, Henry B. F. Macfarland, the president of the Board of Commissioners. Three years ago, President McKinley persuaded Commissioner Macfarland to take this place because of his interest in civic and philanthropic affairs. It was President McKinley's own idea, as he said, for Mr. Macfarland was not a candidate, and at first declined; but finally he accepted, and the appointment met with general approval.

Commissioner Macfarland was not a candidate for reappointment; but President Roosevelt, two months before the term expired, without solicitation from anybody, and without consulting Commissioner Macfarland, nominated him to the Senate, which the next legislative day unanimously confirmed him. This was taken as recognition of the work done for the District and an invitation to continue. The approval of the people was reflected in the unanimous commendation of the newspapers. Such approbation might be given naturally by a partisan organ to one of its own party, but would not be given by an independent press without good reason.

The *Washington Post* said, among other things:

President Roosevelt has paid a distinctively high compliment to Hon. Henry B. F. Macfarland in reappointing him Commissioner of the District of Columbia two months or so before the expiration of his first term. It was assuredly the proper thing to do, and Mr. Roosevelt has disclosed foresight as well as wisdom in doing it.

The *Post* gives its cordial approval to the President's action, and congratulates Commissioner Macfarland upon this notable recognition of the services he has so well rendered to the District.

The *Washington Star* said, in the course of its editorial:

The reappointment of Commissioner Macfarland two months ahead of the expiration of his term is a deserved compliment to that official, whose services during the past three years have warranted the consideration of no other possibility than his continuance in office.

The commissioner has served the District admirably in every respect. Standing for progress, for the proper adjustment of the relations of the District and the federal government, for the material welfare of the people of the capital in every line, he has worked hard throughout his term, both in his administrative capacity and in his representation of the District's interests at the Capitol, and he not only deserves this compliment, but the District is entitled to a continuance of his eminently acceptable and valuable services.

And, finally, the *Washington Times* said:

In his first term as guardian of District interests, Mr. Macfarland amply demonstrated the possession of all those qualities which go to make the successful administrator.

Endowed with courage, insight, energy, and breadth of judgment, his influence on the District Board has been in every way stimulating and helpful. Keenly interested in the city's growth and welfare, and giving an active support to every movement looking to local expansion and improvement, he has been for three years past a notable influence for good in our municipal life, and his continuance in office for another term is cause for the sincerest satisfaction and congratulation.

We heartily applaud the reappointment, and wish the senior commissioner in his new service in the District building a success even more conspicuous—if such a thing be possible—than that which has marked his first and just completed term.



IN THE SAND HILLS OF WESTERN NEBRASKA.

FOREST-MAKING ON BARREN LANDS.

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER.

WITH the spring of 1903, the Government began a forest-making movement that is in many ways the most important ever undertaken. It is the carrying out of plans that have been under consideration for years, and which have had the careful study of the forestry bureau in every detail. It is proposed to solve the serious problem of forest destruction by growing new supplies under government care and in parts of the nation where as yet there is nothing but open plain, as well as on the cut-over lands of the once timbered region.

The most interesting feature of this vast undertaking is in the sand hills of western Nebraska, where it is proposed to have wide, undulating reaches of drifted sand succeeded by the waving green of a pine forest,—a seeming impossibility.

WESTERN SAND LANDS NOT HOPELESS.

The basis of the theory upon which the Government experiment is proceeding is that once that region was the bottom of a sea; that, as it is the lowest point for a large area, and the soil is especially adapted to certain kinds of trees, it has, in catching the drainage of the surrounding plateaus, the conditions needed for the development of a forest. Western sand lands may be dry on top, and the surface may drift in

clouds, but beneath is a damp subsoil that retains the moisture of spring through the long sunshine-flooded summer. It has been found that certain kinds of pine have roots which, going far below the surface, tap the moisture stored in this substratum and are sustained thriftily. Prof. E. A. Braniff, of the Yale School of Forestry, one of the nation's foremost authorities, says: "The minimum rainfall under which trees will grow is reckoned at twenty inches, and under such conditions they are usually dwarfed, scrubby, and unfit for timber. But in the sand hills the bull pine has shown a rapid and even growth and promises to develop into a fine tree." Growths of from fifteen to eighteen feet have been secured under these seemingly poor conditions in ten years.

THE RESERVES IN THE SAND-HILL REGION.

The sand-hill section, comprising about one-fourth of the State, is almost surrounded by a rich farming country, and is used for grazing. Poor as is the pasture, the cattlemen cling to it, and the Government is making arrangements for their coöperation to prevent the burning off of the experimental forests. The two reserves created in this section comprise 211,000 acres,—one between the Dismal and the Loup rivers of 86,000 acres, and one between the Niobrara and

the Snake rivers of 125,000 acres. During the past year, the Forestry Bureau has had its representatives studying these reserves and finding the best places for the experimental groves. A nursery was established at Halsey, in the valley of the Middle Loup River, with a half-acre seed-bed protected by laths. Nearly six hundred pounds of seed, principally Western yellow pine and red cedar and jack pine, was here prepared for the spring sowing. Various scattered areas are being sown later these, by extending the

year destructive fires, most of which, with a little precaution, could be prevented.

It seems strange that such wastefulness should be permitted in one section when in another, on the plains, there is so great a demand for trees. Kansas, for instance, maintains a forestry station in the far southwest part of the State, and distributes annually two million trees to farmers and stockmen, free of cost. These are mostly osage orange, mulberry, and cottonwood, with honey locust and box elder also frequently called for. The railroads are finding the growing of trees along the right-of-way profitable, both for ties and for snow-breaks, and several Western roads are setting out this sort of protection, using millions of cuttings.

THE BAD TIMBER CLAIM SYSTEM.

For many years the forest extension in the middle West was confined to the "timber claims," on which every settler was given certain preëmption privileges for keeping alive ten acres of trees for eight years, when, if there were alive sufficient of the saplings to satisfy the land office, he received a deed. Then he was at liberty to let the trees die,—and he often did, or so neglected

them that there were left, after another half decade, only a few straggling, wind-bent bushes that made a pitiful picture in the far-reaching landscape.

WHAT IS TO BECOME OF "LOGGED-OFF" LAND?

There is in the coast region a vast amount of "logged-off" land which has been robbed of its timber and now lies desolate, fit only for grazing. The fact that the underbrush in these untended areas is the source of many destructive forest fires has caused a widespread discussion of the best means of rehabilitating the lands with another forest growth to succeed the one now gone.

One of the plans suggested is to remit the taxes or reduce them, as an inducement toward reforestation of the lands; but a special report of the Forestry Bureau says that, even considering the value of the land at only one dollar an acre, "The cost of holding a quarter section for fifty years would be \$1,742, or \$10.90 an acre.



EXPERIMENT IN TREE-RAISING.
(Eighteen feet in twelve years.)

amounts, are to be united into one great forest. It will, indeed, be a marvelous undertaking and, if successful, will change the face of the plains.

DANGERS OF FIRE AND CATTLE.

The close pasturage of the sand lands not only kills the grass, but it gives the winds an opportunity for cutting great holes, known as "blow-outs," in the surface. These injure the grass for many rods by covering the tops with the drift.

The cattlemen promise to coöperate with the Government in this attempt, and to refrain from close pasturing. The forest fires of the mountain regions will also be prevented by greater vigilance on the part of the guards, if such be possible. Oregon and Washington, according to the national Bureau of Forestry, lost last year thirteen million dollars' worth of timber, eight million dollars' worth of which represented salable material. In California, Colorado, and Wisconsin, on the timber lands, there rage every

Under such conditions few men will hold logged-off land. The property reverts to the State for delinquent taxes and, still considered worthless and wholly unprotected, it is burned off again and again until it becomes a desert." The Pacific Coast Lumber Manufacturers' Association advises the using of burned-off land for pasture, and says it does not think much of projects for replanting such lands.

ONLY WOOD ENOUGH FOR ONE MORE GENERATION.

Professor Fernow, of the Cornell School of Forestry, said recently that at the present rate of consumption the lumber supply of the nation will not last another thirty years. If none of the logged-off lands are reforested, to what source shall the building trade look for its supply after that time? To the redeemed prairie reaches? It is doubtful if even the most enthusiastic believers in the latter method of growing forest areas expect any such generous outcome. It is for this reason that the problem becomes the more important, and the task of the forestry bureaus of the Government and of these several States is of direct industrial interest, as well as bearing a close relation to climatic conditions.

For three months, beginning last November, a squad of from ten to fifteen men, under a competent leader, spent its time reseeding the mountain regions of southern California, where fires had denuded the surface. The country, alarmed by the decreasing water supply, asked for this work, and assistance was given by the towns of the section visited in carrying on the replanting.

Pine, in varieties suited to the moisture likely to be secured, was generally planted. On March 1, this year, it was announced that the seeds planted in November had begun to germinate, and that there was promise of a successful growth over the areas treated. In a few years the bare mountain sides will be clothed again with green.

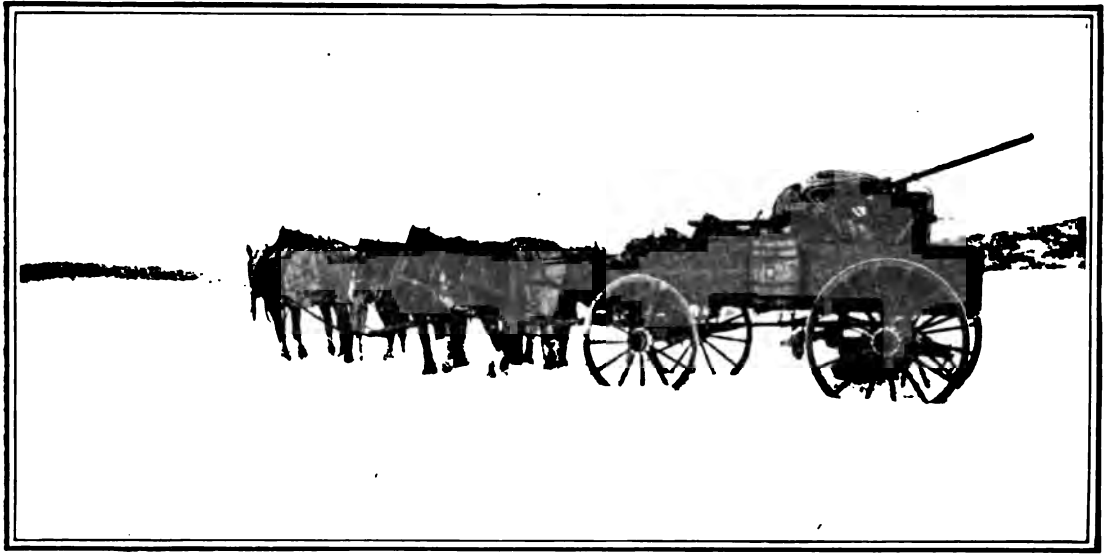
THE INTEREST OF THE IRRIGATIONIST IN FORESTRY.

The denuding of the mountain regions means a loss to the irrigationists of the plains that is almost immeasurable. If the snows be not held in the hills, the streams that take their long slow course across the plains will fail in summer, when their supply of moisture is essential to crop-raising. With the rapid extension of ditches in every part of the West, and with the added impetus of the new government assistance through the utilization of land-sale incomes, the water supply is certain to be tested to its limit. Already interstate conflicts have arisen concerning the inadequacy of certain streams. If the mountain snows rush to the sea with the first warm sun of spring, the lack will be yet greater.

Under these conditions, it is little wonder that the Western States that have not yet lost the bulk of their forests should be anxious for restrictive laws that will restrict. If the sand hills of Nebraska can be transformed in the next quarter century into two hundred thousand acres of luxuriant pines and cedars from ten to eighteen feet high, it will be to a large degree a solution of the matter.



"BLOW-OUT" IN THE SAND HILLS.



ACROSS THE PATAGONIAN PLAINS IN WINTER.

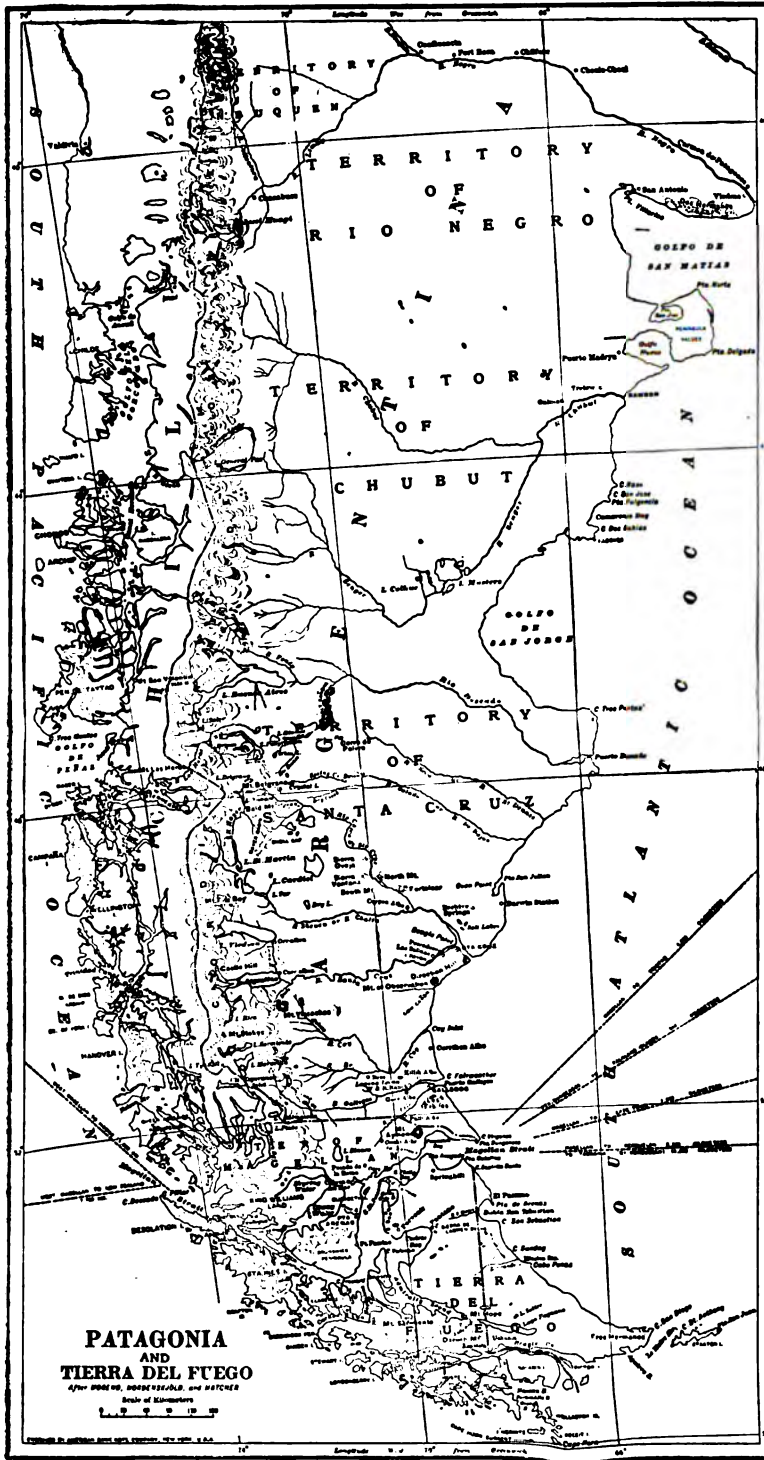
AN AMERICAN'S VIEWS OF PATAGONIA.*

THE publication of Darwin's account of the voyage of the *Beagle*, in 1839, made Patagonia's general features known to the world, and since that date few explorers have added anything of material value to the observations of the great naturalist. During the last decade, however, the researches of the Argentine and Chilean boundary commissions have been in progress, while the earlier efforts of the Argentine geographer Moreno had resulted at least in a clearer mapping of the country; but Americans should take especial interest and pride in the magnificent work of one of our own countrymen, achieved under great difficulties and made possible only by the munificence of the graduates and friends of Princeton University. Mr. J. B. Hatcher led the three Princeton expeditions to southern Patagonia during the years 1896-99. His purposes were purely scientific. Rumors of sensational discoveries in that part of the world had roused the interest of geologists in Patagonian paleontology, and it was primarily as a paleontologist that Mr. Hatcher made his explorations.

Fortunately, this intrepid explorer was interested in the life of to-day as well as in pre-

historic life, and with the aid of his camera he succeeded in obtaining and bringing back to civilization some unequaled pictures of the few scattered human beings who roam over the vast wastes of what has hitherto remained the most sparsely peopled region on the known globe. Other photographs secured by Mr. Hatcher, some of which are reproduced on this and the following pages, represent the natural scenery of the country. Darwin and all later travelers have dwelt on the vastness and monotony of the Patagonian plains, but these pictures tell us that it is not wholly a land of dead level. Here and there the traveler encounters rugged peaks towering far above the plain, while the river cañons, to judge from the photographs, are not less interesting than those of our own Southwest, and the glaciers rival those of Alaska in grandeur. Still, it must be confessed that the impressions of solitude and utter desolation that so powerfully colored Darwin's description of the country have enough to justify them in the marked characteristics of the Patagonian landscape as set forth by subsequent observers, Mr. Hatcher included. Much of the region immediately north of Punta Arenas, in southern Patagonia, is described by the last-named writer as resembling the sand-hills of western Nebraska. "The trail winds in and out among low, rounded hills, separated by small ponds and broad stretches of meadow lands."

*Reports of the Princeton University Expeditions to Patagonia, 1896-1899. J. B. Hatcher in charge. Edited by William B. Scott. Volume I. Narrative and Geography (J. Pierpont Morgan Publication Fund). Princeton, N. J.: The University.



Mr. Hatcher made a special study of the Patagonian lakes, some of which are from fifty to

one hundred miles long, but none of which has been thoroughly explored. Several of the mountain lakes are described as very beautiful. Concerning the numerous salt lakes which abound on the plains, Mr. Hatcher holds the "residual" theory,—i.e., that the salt water remained after the subsidence of the sea, or, rather, after the elevation of the land,—while by others the view is maintained that these were originally fresh-water lakes, that their outlets were gradually cut off, and that the salt resulted from evaporation.

In more aspects than one, this southern extremity of our hemisphere, as pictured by Mr. Hatcher and other travelers, reminds us of South Africa, a land with which we can all claim acquaintance since the Boer war made its features known to the uttermost parts of the earth. The seasons, for one thing, correspond very closely in the two countries. Winter in Patagonia and South Africa falls in our summer months, and *vice versa*. There is some overlapping of vegetation, however. Thus, Mr. Hatcher found a flower in bloom near Cape Fairweather (Lat. $51^{\circ} 30'$) on July 4—a date corresponding to January 4 in the northern continent. But for the most part, the months of May–October are wintry enough, and the wind-swept Patagonian plains, always desolate, must be more forbidding than ever when covered with snow; yet it was under just these conditions that Mr. Hatcher, with a single human companion, passed many dreary months.

Other seasons bring compensations to the traveler who can live the year through in those



SHEEP FARM, NORTH GUER AIKE.

far-away regions. The autumn of the Andean mountain-slopes must rival in its glories our own Appalachian October. Here is Mr. Hatcher's description of a view that he had late in February from a position above the timber line on Bald Mountain, in the Mayer Basin (Lat. 48°):

The great river rolled swiftly on through the valley below. Beyond this lay the dark-green forests of beech which covered the basin and lower slopes of the moun-

tains. In places, the foliage of the forests was already tinged with yellow, purple, red, and other autumnal colors, while beyond and above the whole towered the magnificently rugged central range of the Andes, buried beneath enormous fields of snow and ice, which covered all as with a brilliantly white mantle, save at intervals, where some particularly bold promontory or sharp and jagged peak raised its giant form like a black sentinel high above the surrounding fields of white.

Mr. Hatcher's chief pursuit in Patagonia, as



TEHUELCHÉ WOMAN PREPARED FOR A JOURNEY.



WINTER CAMP, SOUTHEAST OF LAKE BUENOS AYRES.

we have stated, was the hunting of fossils, and in this work his expeditions were brilliantly successful. Later volumes of this report will describe his collections in detail. A great deal

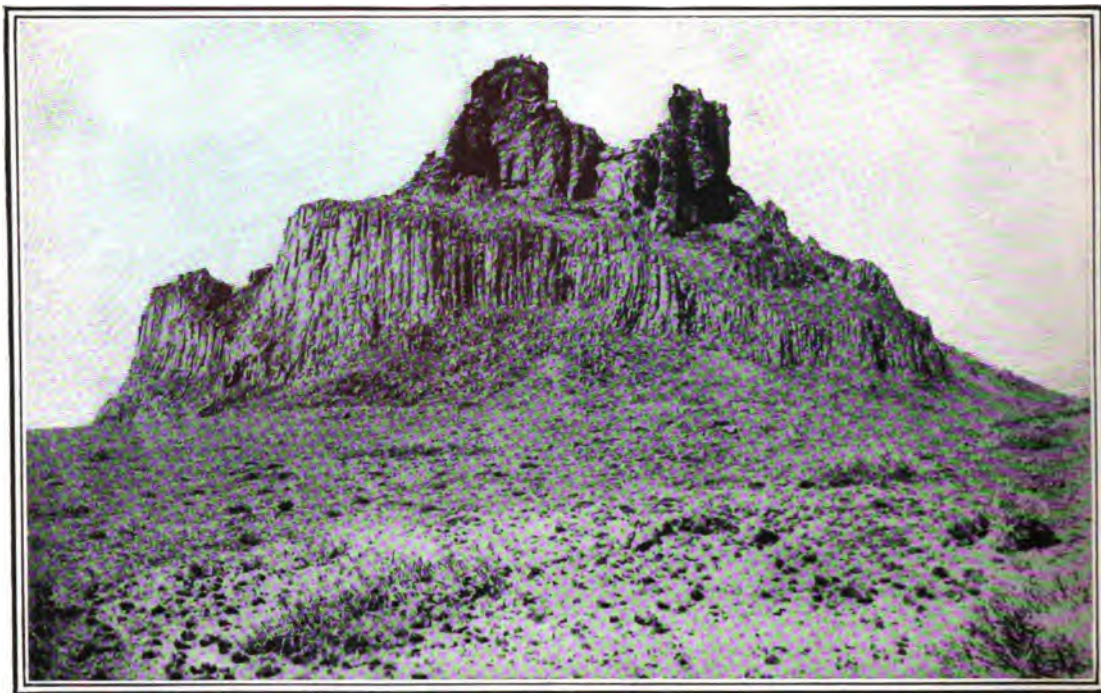
was also accomplished in determining the geological formations of Patagonia, while important collections of recent mammals, birds, and plants were secured from the unexplored regions vis-



COAL MINES AT SANDY POINT.



CAÑON OF THE RIO TARDE.



SIERRA VENTANA.

ited by Mr. Hatcher and his assistant. These discoveries can be described only in special monographs, and even then will not appeal, perhaps, to the lay reader, since their real meaning can be appreciated only by a trained scientist. The studies that were made of the natives of the country are far more interesting to the general reader. Of the four distinct tribes of

Indians inhabiting Patagonia, by far the best known are the Tehuelches, the far-famed giants of the southern mainland. Returning travelers, since the time of Magellan, have brought wonderful tales of these sturdy aborigines, and it is only natural that the reading public should have exaggerated notions of the stature and strength of these remarkable Indians. The

more recent observers agree in the main in their estimates of the Tehuelche physique. The pure-blood natives are reported as decidedly above the average size of human beings. Of the three hundred members of the tribe living between the Santa Cruz River and the Straits of Magellan, Mr. Hatcher places the average height of the men at not less than 5 feet 11 inches, with an average weight of 175 pounds; while he estimates the height of the fully grown women—those above twenty-four years of age—at 5 feet 7 inches, and their average weight at little, if any, less than that of the men.



BASALT CAÑON PLAINS OF PATAGONIA.



OLD TEHUELCHÉ WOMEN AND HALF-BREED GIRL.

The illustrations that we reproduce from Mr. Hatcher's photographs show the physical development and proportions of these Indians. There is comparatively little disparity, either physical or mental, between the sexes. This is ascribed by Mr. Hatcher largely to the division of labor

that prevails in Patagonia. The labor necessary for the support of the family is more equally divided between husband and wife among the Tehuelches than is common among the North American Indians.

The physical superiority of this tribe has given it a prominence out of all proportion to its numbers. Although formerly much more numerous than at present, it is not believed that the Tehuelches at any time numbered more than five thousand souls; but the reader is hardly prepared to accept the statement that there are not now more than five hundred Tehuelches remaining in all Patagonia. It

is the old story of slow extermination through the introduction of diseases by contact with the whites. The question of race suicide is clearly a vital one in the case of the Tehuelches, since families of more than three children are almost never seen, while the number is usually re-



MAYER GLACIER.

(From three to five miles wide; forty miles long.)

stricted to one or two, and frequently there are families with no children.

With the exception of a strip of land thirty miles wide, extending along the Atlantic coast of Patagonia and occupied by sheep farmers of European extraction, the whole Patagonian plains region extending westward to the Andes constitutes the home of the Tehuelches. Large portions of this region are fertile and capable of supporting dense populations, but at present they are entirely unoccupied by either Indians or Europeans. In five months of travel during the summer of 1896-97 in the country between the sources of the Santa Cruz and the Desire rivers, Mr. Hatcher and his assistant, Mr. Peterson, met neither whites nor natives. The Indians live on the flesh of the guanaco, the South American camel, which is exceedingly abundant in this region, and apparently in no danger of extermination. From the skin of this useful animal the Tehuelche squaw constructs the family wigwam, or toldo, and makes all the clothing and bedding required by the family.

Yet civilization is claiming her own, even in Patagonia. Punta Arenas, or Sandy Point (Lat.

53°), is a city of five thousand inhabitants, with banks, shops, hotels, and an opera house. The main industry of the country is wool-growing, and that, in spite of the poor transportation facilities and the lack of a market for mutton, is exceedingly profitable. It engages British capital quite extensively. It has never been supposed that Patagonia would ever be turned into a garden, but it would seem, from Mr. Hatcher's account, that in some of the river valleys, at least, the chief bar to agricultural success is the lack of tillers of the soil. Concerning the Rio Chico, an alluvial valley two hundred miles long, with an average breadth of five miles, Mr. Hatcher does not hesitate to say that if such a valley existed anywhere within the United States, displaying the same or similar conditions, every acre of it would, within five years, be occupied by prosperous farmers, and that it would within a period of ten years support a population of not less than fifty thousand persons, with prosperous towns connected with the coast by an efficient railway and telegraph service. Some day, the overcrowded countries of the Eastern Hemisphere may here find an outlet for surplus population.



A STREET SCENE AT SANDY POINT.



PATIENTS TAKING A SUN-BATH IN WINTER IN MASSACHUSETTS.

NEW HOPE FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

I.—THE OUTDOOR TREATMENT OF TUBERCULOSIS.

BY DAY ALLEN WILLEY.

IT was a little over twenty years ago that Koch discovered the minute form of life which has been called the bacillus of tuberculosis,—a proof that consumption is infectious. What the eminent savant detected beneath the microscope resulted in a radical change in the method of treating this disease. As medical men have studied the various methods, the benefit which nature could confer in eradicating it has been more and more appreciated, until the time seems to have come when medicine may be considered but an incidental in successful treatment.

It may be an exaggerated prediction to make, that twenty years hence may see the man or woman whom the physician has diagnosed as suffering from lung trouble starting for the health camp in the vicinity of his or her abode, to return a few weeks or a few months later restored to health, and able to again take up life's pursuits,—an era when some of the hospitals which have been constructed and equipped purposely to care for pulmonary patients will be needless, and consumption in its advanced stage

almost as rare as smallpox or yellow fever: yet, judging by the results which have thus far been attained, there is a possibility of this state of affairs coming to pass, and not far in the future. The fact is, that out in the open, even amid snow drifts of winter, there are elements which have more curative properties than any compound which has yet been prepared by the chemist, and the one who is not too far advanced in illness to spend nights as well as days living in almost as primitive manner as the Indian of the last century can be restored to health without the necessity of going thousands of miles to sojourn on a mountain top or in a land where snow is unknown.

At a recent gathering in Pittsburg, Pa., one of the most prominent physicians of the State made an address, in which he gave his formula for the cure of tuberculosis. It was this: "Eight hours a day in the open air, unless the weather is so inclement as to make this a practical impossibility; a clean, healthy diet, consisting largely of milk and eggs; and the exercise of proper precaution against infection from the



THE DINING-ROOM AT WHITE HAVEN.

(Whenever the weather permits, patients are allowed to take their meals on the veranda.)

germs of the disease." The physician in question knew of what he was speaking, for he has been using fresh air for several years as one of the principal remedies in a sanitarium among the Pennsylvania hills, which has received many a patient whose life had been "given up" by the family doctor, and who had come here as a last hope. It is a modest institution in appearance—that at White Haven. Some of the buildings resemble lumbering camps more than they do those of the health resort, but Dr. Flick is not an enthusiast in putting money into brick and mortar. He believes such funds could be expended to greater advantage in food and clothing and the necessary comforts for the afflicted ones whose means will not allow them to purchase treatment, and this is why the White Haven Sanitarium, as it is called, is composed of buildings which are as simple as permissible considering the purpose for which they are intended. The patient who comes here and is able to remain in the open air is kept in it as long as possible. From May until December more of the inmates live under canvas than under wood, in the tents

which are put out upon the grounds surrounding the buildings. In the spring the pegs are driven, and until snow comes the tents are inhabited. Then the "winter camps," as they are called, are occupied by those hardy enough to enjoy them. Scattered through the groves of trees on the hillsides in the vicinity are shacks and sheds, some composed of limbs of trees, built with axes, saws, and their penknives by those who are to occupy them. These are daily occupied by congenial groups, and form little clubhouses, where the inmates spend the hours as rapidly and almost as pleasantly as if they were enjoying a vacation in the woods.

The medical records of Pennsylvania show that annually six thousand of its population die from tuberculosis, but another great center of the disease in America is Massachusetts. During forty years it claimed over two hundred thousand victims, and at present fully four thousand deaths are annually attributed to it. It is unnecessary to say that this part of the country is favorable to the development of consumption, owing to



ONE OF THE WOMEN'S CAMPS AT WHITE HAVEN IN WINTER.



A WINTER AND SUMMER VIEW OF ONE OF THE MODEL CAMPS.

the damp, cold winds which come over it from the Atlantic and the "late" springs, with their many "gray days," which increase the cough, and aid the spread of the fatal germ. But right in the heart of it all two open-air colonies, as they might be termed, have been established, whose members have truly made a successful fight. Somewhat more elaborate in their character than the White Haven community, these are conducted on a similar plan. Sites were selected where the surroundings would be helpful to the patients. When the buildings were constructed the architect gave air and sunlight the first consideration. Here the members are encouraged to aid in regaining health by remaining out of doors at all seasons of the year as much as the weather will permit, and both at Rutland and at Sharon the results have been as remarkable as up in the mountains of western Pennsylvania, for weekly are dismissed men and women pronounced "cured" who joined the communities mere wrecks of humanity.

The Christian Scientist may believe that some of the cases are examples of unconscious belief in his theory, and the remarkable change which comes over the victim after a few weeks or months of this life might be attributed to some supernatural cause. Few of the guests at White Haven remain over six months, yet in that period the records show that fully 50 per cent. of the total number leave apparently restored to health. After going to their homes they are carefully watched for any sign of the disease returning, but thus far the restoration has been so complete that only a very small percentage have had a relapse. Fortunately, very complete records have been made at the New England sanitariums, and at Rutland especially each case has been carefully studied. During one year, out of one hundred and forty-one per-

sons treated fifty-six departed apparently cured, while thirty who were unable to remain longer were so greatly improved that the majority have since literally healed themselves. Of the one hundred and forty-one, seventy-five were what physicians termed in an advanced stage, all of the symptoms being prominent. During the year under consideration only two succumbed to the disease, in spite of the many who were considered by their own practitioners as hopeless cases. The last report of the Sharon Sanitarium shows equally as good results. Out of forty-two patients who left it during the year, in twenty-three the disease was "arrested," while sixteen were greatly improved. By the term "arrested" is meant all cases where the cough and the fever have entirely disappeared and an examination shows no germs of tuberculosis whatever in the sputa.

It is truly an easy and enjoyable way of getting well for any one who is a lover of nature, for, as has been stated, the main principle carried out is to get in touch with that which is out of doors,—to be amid the trees, continually breathing the air purified by natural processes, to exercise and eat and sleep, if possible, with the sky for a canopy. The medical man of the olden time would indeed be shocked if he could visit one of these places, to see so-called invalids hard at work in the forests making their camps, lolling about in hammocks in summer with heads uncovered, and lying muffled in blankets and furs in the sunlight in the dead of winter, with no shelter but the blue sky above them. But these are only some of the ways in which health is sought. Patients who are able to stand the exercise amuse themselves by clearing away the snow from the verandas in the winter,—even the women handling the broom and shovel and enjoying it. Coasting on the hillsides is another

strange recreation for those whom we call consumptives encouraged at the Massachusetts institutions. Physical culture is one of the requisites for those who are able to attempt it, and daily a dozen or a score of patients are put through the simple movements, under the guidance of perhaps one of their number or a member of the medical staff. The tent life is a part of the routine of the women in summer as well as of the men, and it is an actual fact that in Massachusetts some of the women have erected their own camps for winter, decorating the walls with posters and photographs, and converting them into miniature clubhouses, where they occupy themselves in conversation, reading, sewing, and various games.

These camps are unique in many respects. The buildings are composed of but three sides, that facing the south being left open. They are simply sheds, having a floor to prevent the dampness from the ground affecting the inmates. Sometimes forest trees are used for posts, and the walls made of planks or boughs fastened to them. If the temperature is too low for comfort, it is moderated by the use of a small stove, sometimes an open fire. Draught is furnished by digging a tunnel through the earth beneath the shed, terminating in a length of clay pipe. When a fire is started the air is sucked through this conduit, and that keeps it burning brightly.

At all of these so-called sanitariums there is abundant exercise for the men, for they are depended upon to perform the necessary out-of-door work. They secure the wood for the fires in the institution, cultivate the gardens, and keep the walks free from snow. Of course, the

labor is regulated according to one's strength, but it contributes to health, and the great difficulty is for the physicians and nurses to keep their charges from overdoing, since the life is so exhilarating. The experience of Dr. Flick and his assistants is that, after becoming a member of the colony, the average patient begins to re-



ONE OF THE WINTER SPORTS AT SHARON.

cuperate so rapidly that he prefers to remain in the open, and chafes when restrained indoors during inclement weather. Seldom do any suffer from the remarkable exposure to the elements, in spite of the rigorous climate in this part of the United States. Some of the winter camps are a mile or more from the sanitarium; but away start the members in the morning, perhaps tramping through two or three feet of snow to reach them. In this rude shelter they are so content that the dinner hour finds them reluctant to leave, and at White Haven a few of the hardier "campers" have been permitted to cook their own dinners over the heaters, and, providing themselves with utensils, have taken turns in acting as *chef*. The others return to the camps in the afternoon, to stay until nightfall compels them to retrace their steps.

These men and women realize that every breath of the pure atmosphere is a bar to their ailment, and their eagerness to be in it—to inhale it—is not strange when one considers the years some of them have fought to regain their health,—years of suffering and endurance which none could appreciate save those who have the same affliction as themselves. Recognizing nature's remedy, it may be said that only when considered absolutely necessary is medicine or stimulant administered, and the comparatively few who require these are usually recent arrivals, whose systems have been weakened by long duration of the complaint. As they improve an



GETTING READY FOR A NOONDAY MEAL AT A WINTER CAMP.

effort is made to substitute food for the tonic. The menu is not limited. It includes the usual meats and vegetables, with tea and coffee ; but, as already indicated, milk and raw eggs are considered of special value, and all are expected to add these to their daily diet. Sleep is another essential, and physical effort is encouraged as a promoter of it. The occupation of the mind also tends to keep off the melancholy feeling which often affects the consumptive especially, so the social atmosphere is considered to be one of the most valuable features. In fact, the absence of so many of the dreary accompaniments of hospital life is remarked by the visitor, who might easily mistake the purpose of one of these settlements were it not for the appearance of some of the patients whose features tell too plainly the inroads which disease has made upon them.

Massachusetts and Pennsylvania are not the only States where an attempt has been made to cope with consumption by this form of open-air treatment. Its importance has been studied in the West, and for several years an Indiana physician has recommended it to his patients. The little colony he has established contains no sanitarium, consisting merely of a few wooden huts built on a slight elevation and surrounded by pine and other trees. The colony is occupied winter and summer. As in the East, exercise proportioned to the strength of the invalid is not only approved, but required. The diet consists of simple, nourishing food. Except where one



ON THE SHARON GOLF LINKS.

is very weak, little or no medicine is prescribed, and as the strength returns nature is left to complete the cure. The principal duty of the doctor is to see that his charges observe the rules for destroying the infectious germs by burning their sputa, and to caution them about overexertion as improvement in health brings with it hope and enthusiasm, which leads them to exaggerate their power of endurance. While the treatment in this Indiana settlement has been limited to a comparatively few persons, nearly all of those who have remained during the period designated by the physician in charge have left it apparently cured, although they included several who had been pronounced beyond recovery.

The success of somewhat similar plans in northern Europe is familiar to the medical profession. The sanitarium at Frankfort-on-Main attracted much attention when first opened by the decision to have the windows consist merely of openings, without glass. Even the sleeping chambers are unprotected, and their occupants are continually exposed to the air currents at all seasons of the year. The possible effect of changes in temperature is counteracted by increasing or decreasing the bed covering. The sun bath on the verandas about the building is expected to be taken by all who are able,



WOMEN PATIENTS MAKING THEIR OWN CAMP.



PATIENTS TAKING MORNING EXERCISE.

and, as in the States, exercise is encouraged. At the Tonassen institution in Norway, the mercury in winter is close to the zero point for weeks at a time, but the invalids suffering from pulmonary complaint remain out of doors most of the day, wrapped in blankets and furs, some even taking their midday refreshment in the open. Both of the resorts named are patronized by persons from all parts of the Continent as well as Great Britain, and their mode of treatment has been pronounced not only practical but successful by eminent European practitioners who have made a study of their methods.

For the last twenty years there has been an annual human exodus southward at the approach of winter; thousands of consumptives whose means permitted have resided among the mountains or amid the pineries until warm spring sunshine has melted the snows of the Northern winter. They have formed communities in nearly every State from North Carolina to the Mississippi River. During the first years of their migration they were welcome,—partly because the money they expended represented an important item of revenue to the hotel and boarding-house keeper and tradesman. Hotels were constructed, amusements provided, and other inducements offered to secure their patronage; but in recent years, as this section of the country became attractive in winter to the pleasure as well as the health seeker, the latter has not been welcomed as in the past. The cough of

the sufferer is not a pleasant sound, and his presence is not usually agreeable. When thus afflicted, it must be admitted that he is frequently shunned except by fellow unfortunates. Realizing that the presence of this class prejudiced others from becoming their guests, some of the landlords have gone so far as to decline to receive them, and not a few of the advertisements of winter resorts contain this statement: "Consumptives not admitted." Nor is the attempt at isolation confined to the South,—it has spread to the mountains of Colorado and northern New York as well as elsewhere in the country, and has become so general that apparently, in the next few years, the victim of pulmonary complaint who

wishes to remain at some resort frequented by those in pursuit of mere recreation will be compelled to lodge at a hospital or sanitarium, as all other doors will be closed against him.

While this attitude may be condemned as both selfish and unjust, it will undoubtedly increase the interest already manifested in the simple methods of arresting the disease already outlined. If they are practical, the question arises: Why go beyond the frost line with the falling of the leaves?—why not remain in the home country, select a spot where the conditions are similar to those at White Haven or Sharon,



PATIENTS CONVALESCING.

and there live the life that seems to be so beneficial in these settlements? To the average man or woman its various features attract rather than repel, for it is an existence which eliminates many of the features that tend to depress the invalid, while various influences daily tend to hopefulness and encouragement. In a material sense it is a most economical method of healing, for the simplicity of the daily routine necessitates but a small expense. As an illustration of the fact may be cited the Sharon Sanitarium, where the average outlay for each inmate is but \$5 a week,—and only this amount is charged. This is truly an important element, for disease does not discriminate between classes, and includes poor and rich alike. There are thousands whose means will not allow them to take advantage of the Southern clime, but must remain at home to battle with their complaint. If the pine or other woodland on the neighboring hillside or plateau can be converted into a source of health thus easily and econom-

ically, the boon which the open-air method will confer upon this class alone is of an importance which cannot be overestimated. In this connection a movement in the State of Pennsylvania is well worthy of note,—it is an agitation in favor of a series of sanatoriums, under the supervision of the State authorities, to be devoted to the care of tuberculosis and the eradication of the disease. All sufferers are to be treated at the expense of the commonwealth. This plan is entirely distinct from the Phipps bequest of \$1,000,000 to the State, to endow an institution for the study of the malady, with the view of eliminating it, and is based on the success attained at White Haven, where the attendance is confined to those who are too destitute to otherwise obtain treatment, and which is largely supported by voluntary contributions. Massachusetts, however, has taken the lead in providing for such patients. Rutland is one illustration of what it has thus far accomplished, being carried on by a State appropriation.



GENERAL VIEW OF THE SHARON TUBERCULOSIS SANITARIUM.

II.—HOW TO LIVE OUT OF DOORS.

BY EVELYN MAE HART

A YEAR ago, when one of the best physicians of Philadelphia snapped his fingers and told me that my life would go out like that, indignation at his indifference filled my soul, and I firmly resolved to prove he was mistaken.

To live out of doors seemed such an impossible thing to do; I did not know how. To learn that secret has cost me much, so I pass it on to those who may not be able to leave home and go to a health resort.

When the lungs become affected it is impossible to get well unless you stop everything and cure yourself. One may grow worse slowly, but the realization will come at last that all else must be given up,—it may then be too late. Stop in time and there is absolute cure for you. The specialist, under whose care I was, said that he had but three remedies,—rest, food, and air. He gave me no medicine.

First, from actual statistics and personal experience, let me insist that to sit or sleep in a room with two or three windows open cannot compare with being outside.

Out of the twenty-four hours in a day I spend twenty-two out of doors.

In the morning I have a cold sponge salt bath (and this is very necessary), and immediately after breakfast I go out on a porch and lie in a reclining chair.

For the daytime my accessories are a Morris chair with a slide for the feet, and for winter a Kenwood rug and a steamer rug or regular carriage lap robe. This chair costs \$13, the Ken-



PATIENT ON PORCH IN MORRIS CHAIR.

wood rug costs \$10, and the steamer rug \$6. If you have a Morris chair without the foot slide use a box or a low chair, but it is essential that the feet should be kept up. The angle at which the chair is shown in the photograph, with the use of a sofa pillow, is very good for reading, and yet it is far more restful and beneficial than sitting up. The idea is to relax all muscles.

No matter how cold it is, no matter how stormy, feel perfectly safe in staying out; but be sure of two things. First, that you do not get chilled. Put on extra comforts until you are warm enough, and a hot-water bag for the feet is good, although I have never needed one. Secondly, that it does not rain or snow on you. Moisture is not harmful unless one suffers from rheumatism. For that this same cure is used, with the exception of staying out when it is damp. With fifteen inches of snow and the thermometer at eleven degrees I laid out on my porch eight hours a day, and it was glorious.

A Kenwood rug is laced across the bottom, so that one can slip into it as though it were a bag, and no cold air can penetrate. It hooks down the front with openings for the arms, so that a book can be held with ease. Thus one is literally as "snug as a bug in a rug." Before I get in I put on a heavy coat and mittens and wrap a woolen scarf around my head, and in extreme weather I tuck a steamer rug around me, over my Kenwood. If one doesn't have these rugs, comforts will do, but he should be sure to use enough. At first I felt helpless, as I did



TENT USED FOR OUTDOOR TREATMENT OF TUBERCULOSIS.

not know how to wrap up enough to keep comfortable.

Sometimes the glare of the sun hurts the eyes. Tie the handle of an umbrella to the arm of your chair, and by using little devices for keeping it in place you will soon learn to tilt it at the right angle.

At 10 o'clock take a walk, beginning with five minutes a day and increasing to an hour. Do this very gradually, for the one point with lung trouble is never to become fatigued. Go back to your chair until luncheon. After that the chair again. It sounds monotonous, but one soon becomes used to it and can be even happy; in fact, cheerfulness is essential, for nothing can cure you if you constantly meditate on yourself and your sacrifices.

If you are strong enough, drive in the afternoon, at first only ten minutes a day, increasing to an hour and a half, but never more than that. Interest often keeps you from knowing you are tired.

In the summer one should go out again after dinner, if well protected from the dew, but in winter it is permissible to stay indoors, though not in a room which is crowded or close. I usually read or play some quiet game, but always avoid over-exertion.

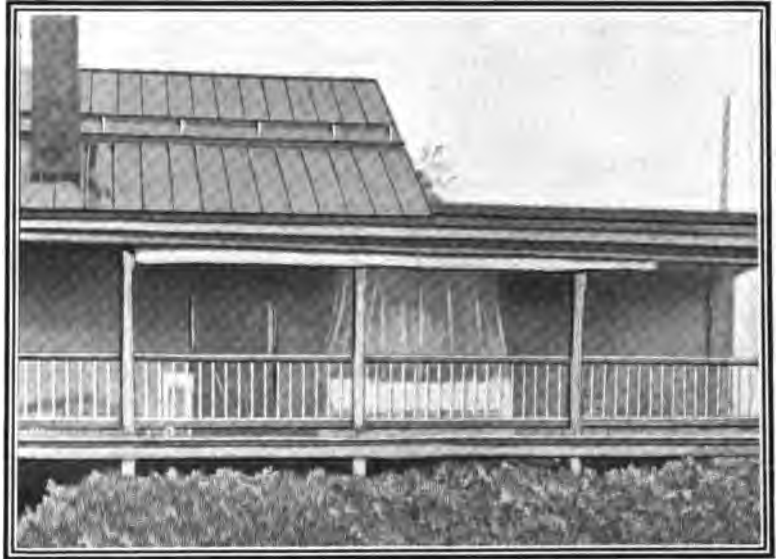
So much for the day; now for the night. Retire at 9 o'clock; in fact, after being out all day I generally get so sleepy that I can hardly wait until 9.

If you have no upstairs porch, have a carpenter extend one of the lower piazzas or build a balcony from some window, but be sure there is a roof over it. This is a photograph of mine, which was built at very little cost.

Get an iron bed, and a ready-made mosquito net (\$1.50) to fasten to the roof. Even if there are no mosquitoes there may be bugs and flies, and with the net one feels secure against them. The first night I slept out I was awakened by a shower and had to carry all the bedclothes into the house. The next morning I found a piece of heavy canvas in the attic, 7 feet by 15. I had a wooden pole tacked to one side of this and the other fastened to the roof so that it fell out-

side the rail, and ropes fixed to roll it up. By reaching out I can lower it, and neither rain nor wind prevents my staying out. If the balcony is short, the canvas should be stretched across each end and the side. There will never be a rain when all three have to be down. There is a width of unbleached muslin tacked inside the railing, which serves as a screen, and which keeps the glare from my eyes in the morning. If you once sleep out of doors you will wonder why people have bedrooms; it is so exhilarating.

When you awake in the morning, it is delightful to see trees and flowers. The garden and yard are so green and fresh in summer, and



AN ARRANGEMENT ON THE PORCH FOR SLEEPING OUTDOORS.

even in the city the air seems wonderfully rare and pure.

This treatment should be begun before cold weather, in order to get used to it gradually.

A glass of milk when you awaken, one at 11 A.M., one at 4 P.M., and one when you retire, is almost necessary.

I have been taking this cure in Pennsylvania. There is, however, no reason, whether you are North or South, in city or country, why you should not take this treatment. You need not fear exposure if carefully wrapped up, but avoid fatigue as your worst enemy.

You must give up your entire time to it for at least one year, but when you perceive the wonderful improvement you will know it has repaid you.

III.—THE CONSUMPTIVE'S CHANCES IN COLORADO.

BY FRANCIS S. KINDER.

OF the thousands of tuberculous persons who come in the course of a year to the semi-arid region of the West and Southwest for the sake of its climate, probably a larger proportion come to Colorado than to any other section of equal area. There has been so far no strong sentiment here in favor of their exclusion from the State (such as has been reported in California), but the conditions under which these persons come, and under which they live while here, should be of interest to thoughtful people outside as well as in the State.

It is natural that these health-seekers should be found mainly in the larger cities, such as Denver, Colorado Springs, and Pueblo, particularly the first, which is reached by so many of the transcontinental railroads. But cities like Denver and Pueblo, with their smelters and rapidly growing manufactures, become each year more smoky and dusty, and hence less suited as residence places for pulmonary invalids, except in the higher sections and suburbs.

Of those coming a large proportion, according to physicians, are in a stage of the disease which seldom leaves any hope for more than a few added weeks or months of life. And many of these arrive here with little or no means of support, being sent by family, lodge, or local poor authorities, who seem to assume that the invalid's difficulties will be over once he reaches a sunny clime. Being unable, through lack of means, or because of the prejudice of residents, to secure accommodations in the better sections of the city, he usually drifts into the slum districts, and lives out his days in some ill-lighted, ill-ventilated room in a cheap lodging-house, without medical attention and (unless discovered by the charity workers) often without a friend to care properly for his needs. In most cases, doubtless, the family and friends at home do not know the real situation, for it is characteristic of the consumptive to send words of cheer,—under the influence of that strange, illusory light of hope which glows more brightly as the lamp of life burns low.

For those coming who are in the early stages of the disease there is, according to most physicians, a better chance of recovery here than in the lower altitudes, provided the patient is furnished with proper quarters, food, and medical care. To secure the first two, however, has become a difficult problem, especially if the patient

comes, as is usually the case, without friends and with little money.

The people of Colorado are not ungenerous in spirit, yet with a large class of consumptives among them, and the need of guarding against infection being often emphasized by physicians and press, a dread of the disease has grown so strong that the invalid can rarely secure accommodations in the better residence sections. In a local paper one recently complained that his exclusion from the homes of Denver could hardly have been more rigid had he been a leper. The writer of this article some time ago had the care of a brother with lung trouble, and, being in need of larger quarters, rented a house. The landlord, after receiving the rent, asked about sickness, and on being told the facts he returned the rent, declaring that his tenants in the neighboring houses would leave were a consumptive so near.

The matter of securing suitable employment, in the case of one who needs to support himself, adds to the difficulties of his situation. With impaired physical strength, and with employers and employees prejudiced against his presence, the consumptive is indeed handicapped. Whether or not he realizes how greatly he needs to be outdoors, and why he should avoid certain kinds of work, the result is likely to be the same. As necessity becomes urgent he accepts whatever employment is offered. How often it is unsuited to his condition may be partly realized when we remember that it is the undesirable place usually that is vacant. Often he accepts work at greatly reduced wages, being content to do this in order that he may remain in this climate. This struggle for self-support is pretty sure sooner or later to drive the consumptive to the cheap restaurants and lodging-houses in the low, unhealthful quarter of the city,—if the prejudice of householders has not already sent him there.

So it comes about that a large proportion of those also in the incipient stages of consumption live under conditions which counteract the beneficial influence of the climate. Physicians here unite in saying that a patient's chances in a low altitude, if he lives in a well-lighted, well-ventilated room, with good food and some suitable occupation, are better than here, if these conditions are lacking.

Country life in Colorado at present offers



A PRIVATE SANATORIUM IN A DENVER SUBURB.

conditions but little, if any, better than does the city. The average ranchman came here as a poor man, and is still struggling for a sure footing. His house, built under hard pioneer conditions, is small and ill suited for the accommodation of guests. As for help, he must seek the ruggedest kind,—men who at need can wade in rubber boots through the miry, irrigated fields for long hours, under a sun which glows with fierce heat from the cloudless sky. There is scant room here for “lungers.”

SOME INSTITUTIONS FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

The realization of the foregoing facts has led to a number of projects for the benefit of consumptives. As early as 1891, an organization of public-spirited Jews in Denver began raising funds for a consumptives' hospital. A building costing forty thousand dollars was begun a year later, and was nearing completion when the panic of '93 came. In the ensuing wreck of fortunes the leaders of this noble enterprise found themselves unable to proceed, and the doors of the hospital were closed. Strenuous efforts were made to secure help outside the State, but without success until 1899, when the national order of B'nai B'rith raised funds to equip the building, and pledged five thousand dollars a year toward its support. In recognition of this aid the institution was named the National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives.

Admission is restricted to patients who are unable to pay for care, and whose condition

gives hope for a cure. To such, admission and treatment are free, without regard to race or creed. While a medical staff is provided, the chief means of cure relied upon, in addition to the pure air and sunshine, are good food and abundance of it, with strict sanitary and dietary regulations. A gift of thirty thousand dollars from M. Guggenheim's Sons, of New York, in 1901, made possible the erection of a pavilion for the accommodation of seventy-five additional patients. This building is provided with



ORIGINAL BUILDING, NATIONAL JEWISH HOSPITAL FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

"porch rooms," having glass tops and sides, where patients resort on cold days, while in pleasant weather open-air life is prescribed for



THE GUGGENHEIM PAVILION, NATIONAL JEWISH HOSPITAL FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

most cases. The reports of the institution show highly satisfactory results.

For persons able to pay for their care, an institution called "The Home" was established within the city, some six years ago, under the direct ownership and management of the Episcopal Church of the Diocese of Colorado. It aims to provide sanitary quarters and home comforts, the patients choosing their own medical advi-

ers. Admission is restricted to persons of good character whose condition gives promise of their being benefited. Under the same management, but admitting only persons of limited means, is an admirably equipped building erected by Mr. Charles L. Adams, of Chicago, as a memorial to his wife. The total capacity of "The Home" is one hundred and twenty patients.

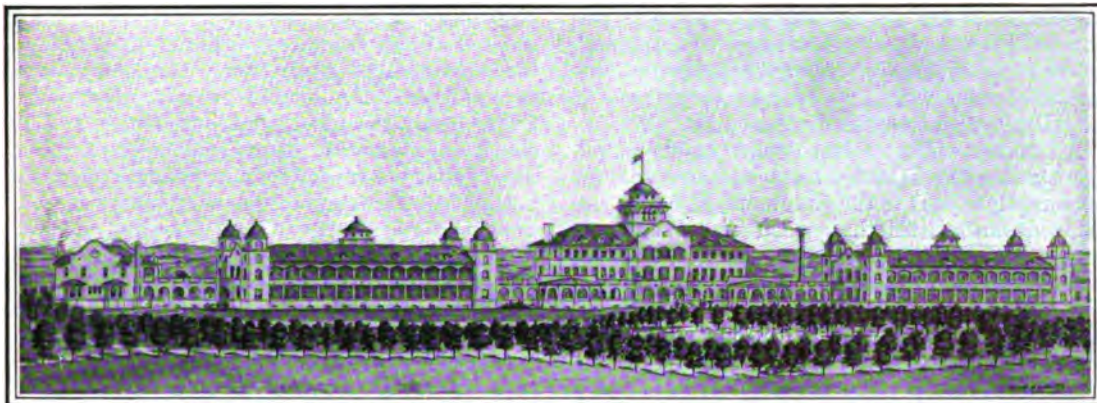
Another institution, to be called the Agnes Memorial Sanatorium, is to be built during the coming year just outside of Denver, by Mr. Lawrence C. Phipps, of Pittsburg, in memory of his mother, Mrs. Agnes Phipps. In its conduct it will be similar in many respects to "The Home," but is designed particularly for persons of limited means. Also, a staff of specialists in tuberculosis will be provided, with a view to progress in the treatment of the disease. The buildings as planned will cost about two hundred and forty thousand dollars, and will accommodate eighty patients.

The idea of tent life for consumptives, which has been advocated by many physicians, was taken up in Denver, some five years ago, by Dr. A. Mansfield Holmes. He experimented first in the thickly settled parts of the city, with unused lawns for tent-sites; then in the suburbs and in rural districts, where the results were more satisfactory. Within the past year he has secured a sheltered mountain tract, near Wellington Lake, Colo., where it is proposed to establish a tent colony, with industrial features for the benefit



"THE HOME."

(Established by the Episcopal Church of the Diocese of Colorado.)



THE AGNES MEMORIAL SANATORIUM, TO BE BUILT BY MR. LAWRENCE C. PHIPPS.

of needy patients. Dairying, cattle-raising, poultry-keeping, gardening, and numerous small enterprises to meet the needs of colony life, are expected to furnish light and diversified employment; while a magazine, published by the patients and medical staff, will acquaint the outside world with interesting phases of the colony's life and work.

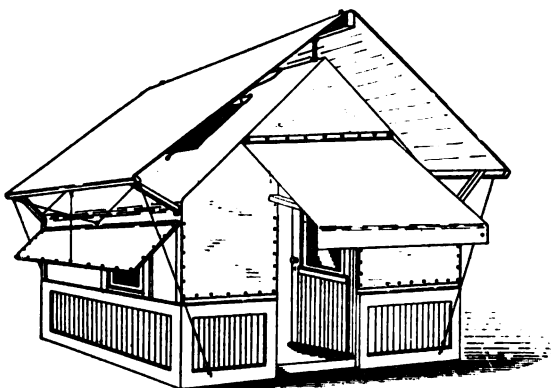
Another tent colony, to be conducted along similar lines, was projected three years ago by Colorado Young Men's Christian Associations. With funds already raised a farm has been purchased near Denver, and strong efforts are being made to provide it with the administration buildings and other necessary equipment. Here it is planned to offer light employment, chiefly in market gardening, to young men in the incipient stages of consumption,—of whom many hundreds apply in the course of a year to

the Young Men's Christian Associations of the State for aid in securing employment.

A NATIONAL SANATORIUM NEEDED.

It is the belief of well-informed persons that if the enterprises now planned in Denver for the care of incipient cases are carried out, they will by no means provide for all of this class needing assistance, while for the large class in the later stages of consumption nothing of a special kind has been done. The Secretary of the Denver Charity Organization Society, Mrs. Izetta George, who during many years' work has had unusual opportunities for becoming acquainted with the actual conditions, has held the belief that a sanatorium or system of sanatoria, planned on a scale which only the national government could undertake, is required to adequately meet the needs of the time. This idea has also been indorsed by most of the physicians with whom I have discussed it. It is true, as one prominent physician has said, the most important work is not the cure of consumption, but its prevention, by the elimination of those unhealthful conditions of life which particularly favor its development,—such as abound in the slum districts of cities. But this is a work of hygienic and civic education, and our generation can at best hope for only a moderate reduction of the consumptive class through these means.

The estimate of Vaughan, that at the present death rate from tuberculosis ten million or more of the seventy-five million people now living in the United States will die of this disease, points to a problem of national importance. The disease claims its victims in early manhood and womanhood, in the beginning of what should be the period of their greatest usefulness, so that the economic loss alone to the nation is a matter equaled in importance by few public



THE HOLMES TENT COTTAGE.

(On three sides are double-canvas walls, which may be opened by raising the upper half of outer wall like an awning, and dropping the inner wall, thus making a pavilion tent. When closed, a space just above wainscoting of outer wall admits air, which enters the tent at the eaves.)

questions. Very many consumptives are persons of high intellectual powers who, through exposure or overtaxing labor, have invited disease, but who with proper care might be restored to health and usefulness.

A number of States have taken a commendable step by the establishment of sanatoria for consumptives. It is the judgment of some recognized authorities that when these sanatoria are properly conducted, even though they are located in regions with no special climatic advantages, the results obtained will be as satisfactory in the end as in institutions situated in typical climatic resorts.* Still, so long as the belief is widely prevalent that the high, semi-arid regions are especially favorable to recovery, consumptives will continue to come in numbers too great to be cared for by private charitable or semi-charitable institutions.

THE COMMUNITY AND THE CONSUMPTIVE.

I am not able to agree with the assertion frequently made, that the presence here of a large class of semi-invalids constitutes a great

burden upon the community. It would be so, indeed, if the community should undertake to care adequately for all those coming who need care and aid. As it is, the money expended on this class by the local poor authorities and the charity organization goes principally to the relief of distress rather than to provide means of aid toward recovery. The community is reimbursed in good part, at least, for this outlay by the number of recovered patients who remain and, with their money or labor, help to build up the State. Colorado owes a great deal to the energy of this class.

Nor can it be said that the presence of consumptives constitutes a serious menace to the health of the community, provided the patient and those about him observe the few common-sense rules for guarding against infection. The problem is mainly one of providing favorable conditions for the consumptive in his battle for life. For, as some one has well expressed it in a homely way, "It takes independence and bread and butter and shelter as well as climate to restore health."

IV.—NEW YORK'S FIGHT AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS.

BY CHARLES H. JOHNSON.

IN a recent statement to the mayor of New York, the president of the health department said: "During the calendar year 1902, 7,571 persons died of tuberculosis of the lungs in New York City, while 1,312 died of other forms of tuberculosis. In 1901, the deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis numbered 8,135." The reduction in the mortality from tuberculosis in New York City since 1886 has been about 40 per cent., which means, if applied to the greater city, a decrease of more than six thousand in the number of deaths annually caused by it. What such a reduction means economically to the community will be better understood when it is recalled that to a very large extent these deaths take place in the working period, between fifteen and fifty-five years of age,—the years when a person is worth most in a productive way to society. This decrease must be gratifying; and yet it does not mean that there is no tuberculosis problem among New York's many other problems. The disease remains the greatest single cause of deaths in this city, and the number of

persons suffering from it is variously estimated from thirty to forty thousand; and many of these are undoubtedly infecting their associates, and thus adding to the extent of the disease.

New York has been fortunate in having had, for many years, as its medical officer, a physician who has added to his other qualifications a special interest in the subject of tuberculosis. His reputation in this particular is international, and Dr. Robert Koch, the celebrated discoverer of the germ which causes tuberculosis, recently, in a London address, highly commended Dr. Hermann M. Biggs for his splendid work in the combat of tuberculosis. The health department has required since 1893 that all public institutions in the city shall report to the department every case of pulmonary tuberculosis; and all physicians in private practice in the city were requested, and since 1897 required, to do the same. In 1894, only 4,263 cases were reported; in 1897, 9,572 were reported; and in 1901, 17,588 reports were sent in. This does not mean that the disease increased in this ratio, but that compliance with the request of the department increased. The department has also made provisions for the free examination of sputum in doubtful cases, and for the gratuitous treatment, at their homes, of those afflicted with

* See, for instance, "Tuberculosis as a Disease of the Masses, and How to Combat It," by Dr. S. A. Knopf, of New York. This essay, which won the prize offered by the International Congress to Combat Tuberculosis, is peculiarly suited for popular instruction regarding consumption.

consumption who are not financially able to employ a physician. Provision is also made for a free disinfection of bedding, clothing, and premises. It is now further proposed to erect next door to the department's building a tuberculosis dispensary especially adapted and equipped for the free treatment of the various forms of tuberculosis, and to follow up this treatment by visits to patients' homes of trained nurses in the employ of the city.

Early in the present year, the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis, a committee connected with the Charity Organization Society, had plans of a sanatorium and tent colony drawn, and submitted them to the department. The officials were much impressed with these plans; but fearing that it would not be possible to undertake it as a whole, the commissioner decided to inaugurate a tent system at some distance from the city. Various sites were investigated, and finally a site which seemed ideal was offered to the city for this purpose. There among the hills the commissioner planned to establish a tent colony where New York's poor consumptives could inhale the life-giving air and be restored, if not wholly, yet almost so, to health again. It is now admitted by physicians generally that fresh air and nourishment constitute the principal factors in the successful treatment of this disease. Phthisisophobia in a rabid form, however, developed among the surrounding property-owners, many of whom were wealthy and influential, and they decided that New York's consumptive poor should not have the benefit of the air in that vicinity.

It is estimated that half the tenement-house population of New York are more or less affected by tuberculosis. Thousands become consumptive by reason of their weakened powers of resistance, due to improper nourishment, unsanitary conditions in their homes, and too long hours of labor. The result is that the number of those actually dependent upon public and private charity is greatly increased by the presence of this lingering disease in the family. What this prevalence of consumption among the poor of the city costs the city of New York has been worked out by Dr. Biggs, who shows an annual loss of \$23,000,000 to the municipality, and a loss to the country as a whole of \$330,000,000 a year.

The Department of Public Charities, since the advent of the present commissioner, has attempted to cope with this problem in an intelligent way. It has sent, for several years, its consumptive applicants to Seton Hospital, located on Spuyten Duyvil Parkway. Here the patients are sent as city charges by the department, the hospital be-

ing under the care of the Sisters of Charity. The maximum accommodation is two hundred, and the institution is always filled and has a long waiting list. It stands on an eminence overlooking the Hudson, and contains all the modern appliances for sanitation, one of its chief attractions being a large solarium filled with growing plants, where in cold or stormy weather the patients delight to congregate. But what are two hundred beds to twenty thousand consumptives, many of whom require hospital treatment? On February 1, 1902, therefore, some of the buildings formerly occupied by the Manhattan State Hospital for the Insane, on Blackwell's Island, were opened by the commissioner for the use of consumptives. Its first occupants were collected from Bellevue and other hospitals. In the men's building are 297 patients, and in the women's building, 97. The men are met, upon their entrance, by the deputy superintendent, Mr. Easton, who is a college-bred man and has made a special study of sociology. He has prepared a set of questions which he tries, with considerable tact, to have answered, and which bear on the sociological aspects of the disease. Mr. Easton attempts to secure personal relations with the patients, and has done much to persuade men to prolong their stay in the infirmary, so that they may be permanently benefited by it. The temperature of the hospital is seldom above 60 degrees; there are nine hours of sleep, and the patients eat nine times a day:

At 6 A.M., a breakfast of cereals, bread and butter, coffee and beefsteak or poached eggs.

At 8 A.M., cod-liver oil, with whiskey or sherry.

At 10 A.M., egg-nog.

At 12 M., dinner, consisting of soup, beef, or mutton, potatoes, another vegetable, and bread.

At 2 P.M., cod-liver oil and plenty of sherry.

At 3 P.M., beef tea.

At 4 P.M., egg-nog.

At 5 P.M., supper of pudding, a soft-boiled egg, bread and butter, tea.

At 8 P.M., hot or cold milk.

The results for the first year, just ended, are most encouraging. Of the 1,431 cases admitted in the course of the year, all of which were considerably advanced, having been brought thither from Bellevue and other city hospitals, 378 were discharged as improved, 77 as much improved, and 27 as practically cured. There were 394 deaths, 37 were transferred elsewhere for surgical operations, and 67 were sent home after it was found that their coughs were not tuberculous.

The commissioner has now decided to try the experiment of a camp in connection with this hospital. In the early part of April, one tent was put in operation, and it is intended to have

in all ten tents in this camp. Two of these tents will be for women, and the camp will contain one hundred patients. It has been decided, that if it is at all practicable, the camp will be continued the year round. This is not a wholly new thing. The experiment has been tried on one of the neighboring islands, and it has been found very practicable and very beneficial to continue a consumptives' camp the whole year round, even in the much-abused climate of New York City. The experiment referred to is that which has been conducted by the Manhattan State Hospital for the Insane, on Ward's Island. Isolation would seem absolutely necessary in the case of insane consumptives. It has been found necessary to have a guard follow consumptives who were mentally normal in order to prevent promiscuous spitting; how much more difficult it must, then, be to prevent insane consumptives from infecting the buildings in which they are placed.

On June 5, 1901, the tent life was begun, under the immediate supervision of Dr. Floyd C. Haviland. The plant consisted of two large tents with a capacity of twenty beds. A site was selected which was elevated, surrounded by abundant shade, and where the breezes from the East River had free play. The board floors were made in sections, and could be taken up and exposed to direct sunlight; one side of the tent was kept constantly open in pleasant weather, and large ventilators provided at other times sufficient ventilation. Near by were erected several smaller auxiliary tents, which included two dining-tents and those for the residence of the attendants. This plan worked excellently through the summer, and it was decided to continue it through the winter, but on a smaller scale. If the wishes of the patients had been considered, the whole establishment would have continued right on. The larger tent was removed to a sheltered place; and when the cold weather approached, two stoves, one at each end of the tent, were put in. The result of this unique and seemingly rigorous treatment has been, that of 81 cases, 55 have shown increase in weight. As the capacity of the camp is limited to forty, only the worst cases are sent here, which naturally militates against the best results, and yet, twelve have returned to the wards apparently without any symptoms of the disease. Dr. Haviland states that not only are the patients benefited physically, but that there

is also a quicker perception and clearer understanding of the mind. Diet is also, here, an important feature, four meals being served daily. The women patients of the western division of the hospital that are afflicted with tuberculosis are also segregated; but instead of being placed in tents, they live in a house along the sides of which is built a wide two-story porch inclosed in glass. The sashes of the glass are on hinges, so as to permit a free circulation of air, and the more favorable cases sleep there at night as well as spend their time in the sun in the daytime. The results obtained, however, are not so good as in the tents of the men.

What has been written so far has pertained to the work of municipal and State authorities. The limitations of space placed on this article forbid the mention of the few institutions under private auspices which are seeking to augment the city's work. One interesting institution deserves, however, more than a passing mention. The Montefiore country sanitarium at Bedford was the first successful attempt, in this country, to follow the example of the agricultural colonies for the consumptive poor in Europe. The treatment, from the first, has been mainly hygienic and dietetic, accompanied by rest and outdoor employment. During the spring, summer, and autumn, all who are strong enough to be of use work in the gardens and orchards from one to five hours a day. The produce and supplies raised last year were beyond the needs of the institution, and the cellars are filled with prize cabbages, pumpkins, and corn.

During the year ending in November, 1902, 377 patients received open-air treatment at the sanitarium, with an average stay of four months and twelve days. In more than 65 per cent. of cases, marked improvement resulted, and in nearly 18 per cent., apparent cures were reported.

Some experiment with open-air sleeping has been tried. Two patients, one in an early stage and the other pretty far along in consumption, were put to live, night and day, in an open tent. They slept under two heavy blankets, and did not suffer from the cold, although a normal person would have been decidedly uncomfortable. The improvement in their cases was so great that the physician in charge has recommended the erection, next winter, of several wooden sheds with open fronts. The sheds will be, it is thought, better than tents, because less likely to admit rain and snow.

THE RENASCENCE OF NONCONFORMITY IN ENGLAND.

CAMPBELL OF THE CITY TEMPLE. SILVESTER HORNE OF THE CENTRAL HALL.

"I know the Dissenters. They carried the Reform Bill; they carried the Abolition of Slavery; they carried Free Trade; and they'll carry the Abolition of Church Rates."—LORD JOHN RUSSELL.

"In the long run, English politics will follow the consciences of the Dissenters."—LORD PALMERSTON.

[The revived interest of the English people in Wesleyan Methodism, and the other Nonconformist sects, is due to something very much more concrete than the recurrence of the two-hundredth anniversary of the birth of John Wesley. It is due to very sharp issues in English political and social life growing out of the status of the Established Church, and particularly out of the new education act, which increases the practical control of the Established Church over elementary schools supported by taxpayers of all religious affiliations. Mr. Stead, in the article presented herewith, gives us a graphic picture of the existing conditions, together with live sketches of two of the new leaders of Nonconformity. Some of the greatest of the old leaders, like Joseph Parker and Hugh Price Hughes, have lately passed away. Mr. Spurgeon, Dr. Dale of Birmingham, Dr. Newman Hall, and other of the Nonconformist leaders whose names were everywhere known, have within a few years been gathered unto the fathers. Dr. Clifford, the doughty head of the Baptists, still remains well at the front on the fighting line. It will not be uninteresting to American readers to know something of the younger leaders as they come forward, and Mr. Campbell, who now succeeds Joseph Parker as a leader of the Congregationalists, and Mr. Horne, who preaches in the old Whitefield Tabernacle in London, are probably the most aggressive and conspicuous of these younger men.—THE EDITOR.]

I.—OUR FRIENDS THE ENEMY.

"**T**HANK God for your enemies," said Henry Ward Beecher, "for when you look back over your life you will find that they have done you more good than all your friends." It is a pregnant saying, and worthy of all acceptance. Of its truth, the present position of English Nonconformists is the most recent and not the least forcible illustration.

The Education Act of last session, forced upon the country by a ministry supported by a majority snatched in a moment of national delirium by the aid of wholesale misrepresentation, has done for the Nonconformists what nothing else could have accomplished. Mr. Spurgeon told me, nearly twenty years ago, that if he were a Conservative he would disestablish and disendow the Church of England. I asked him why. He replied: "Because with the disappearance of the Establishment the one great barrier which compels the Nonconformists to remain in the Liberal camp would disappear." The truth of that pregnant observation has been painfully impressed upon us many times since then. As long as church rates, university tests, and the monopoly of the graveyard continued to remind Nonconformists that they were *Utlanders* in the British Commonwealth, a Conservative Nonconformist was almost as rare as a white blackbird. But when the last of these three patent and pal-

pable outrages upon the rights of the Nonconformist citizen disappeared, Nonconformists, to quote their own phrase, began to be at ease in Zion. The fire of former days burned low. The spectacle of a Nonconformist voting for a Tory candidate became only too familiar. When Mr. Gladstone proposed to do justice to Ireland, a recreant multitude of Nonconformists seized the excuse to desert the Liberal ranks. Their hereditary repugnance to Popery paved the way for their apostasy. But it was not until the war in South Africa came as a searching test of the reality of their allegiance to the cause of Peace, Liberty, and Justice that the world realized how far the dry rot had spread. After last general election, when hundreds of thousands of Nonconformists swelled the majority recorded for the authors of the war, Nonconformity, as a potent moral force in politics, seemed extinct.

Fortunately, however, for the nation, and most fortunately for English Nonconformity, retribution was at hand. The whip which they had knotted for the backs of their fellow-Christians in South Africa was speedily applied to their own shoulders. The majority which they helped to elect, in order to fight to a finish a war which should never have been begun, was used to deal them a deadly blow; and under the salutary discipline of adversity, the Nonconformists, through much tribulation, are returning to the principles of their forefathers. The



THE BAPTIST LEADER, DR. CLIFFORD, IN HIS PULPIT.

new law which reimposed church rates and re-enacted religious tests awoke them to a sense of where their apostasy and apathy had led them. It is true that their tardy awakening may expose them to the sneer which Macaulay leveled against the Seven Bishops, who turned against James the moment he laid a finger upon their Church. But despite the sneer, England had good cause to rejoice that for any reason the Church which had so long truckled to the tyrant was at last compelled to throw in its lot with

the Revolution. And so in like manner, while we cannot pretend to any great enthusiasm for those who supported the devastation of South Africa without scruple, and who now are raising the standard of rebellion over a twopenny-halfpenny church rate, it is unwise to look a gift horse in the mouth; and we are too glad to see the Nonconformists in the firing line once more to scrutinize too keenly the motives which brought them back to the Old Flag.

That they are back again, and that at next general election the Nonconformist who votes for a ministerial candidate will be regarded as a traitor and a renegade, is now quite clear. And we owe this great and salutary change, this veritable renaissance of Nonconformity, to Mr. Balfour and his ecclesiastical allies. How great, how momentous, the change thus brought about may be imagined from the fact that London Nonconformists are now exulting in the leadership of three men each of whom is pledged to the hilt to take joyfully the spoiling of their goods and incarceration in jail rather than pay the new rate that is to be levied for the subsidizing of religious teaching of which they disapprove. As the sending of the Seven Bishops to the Tower rid England of the Stuarts, so the imprisonment of the three Nonconformists, John Clifford, Reginald Campbell, and Silvester Horne, may be the appointed means for ridding us of those twin curses, the House of Lords and the Establishment. It may never come to that. The significant thing is that there are hundreds of thousands of Nonconformists who are passionately longing that it may come to that. The jailing of the three Nonconformist chiefs is at least within the range of practical politics. And even if it never comes off, the hope of it, the chance of it, is as breath to the nostrils of reviving Nonconformity.

In thus facing imprisonment, rather than bow to the Gessler's Cap which the Jingo majority of 1900 set up in our midst, the Nonconformists are on their old ground. The Nonconformist, as his name implies, is a sworn rebel against the established order. Ever since the sixteenth century, he may have been loyal to the crown, but he has been in revolt against the Established Church and the House of Lords.

In reality, the English people, ever since the days of the Puritans, have been not one nation, but two—the Anglican and the Nonconformist. The ideals of these two nations are as far as the poles asunder. The Puritan of the seventeenth century, the Dissenter of the eighteenth, and the Nonconformist of the nineteenth, have always been far more closely united by sympathy and ideas with the Americans than with the Angli-

cans. Anglicanism is essentially aristocratic and exclusive. To Nonconformity, democracy is as the breath of its nostrils.

The sons of the men who sent Charles to the block are the true spiritual kin of the sons of the men who went over in the *Mayflower*. In piping times of peace, when no great issues stir the heart of the people, the two nations, Anglican and Nonconformist, exist side by side, and few suspect the fissure between them. But when the storm wind rises, and great crises test the real faiths of men, the fissure reappears.

If Nonconformists should begin to bethink themselves that the talk of popular government and of a free democracy is mere cant so long as the House of Lords exists, and that the battle of civil and religious liberty is only half won while the Anglican sect is allowed to flaunt itself as the church of a nation two-thirds of whose citizens never darken its doors, who could blame them? It is supremely significant that at this juncture two young ministers should have been suddenly thrust to the forefront of the Nonconformist ranks whose supreme distinction is their passionate determination to rebel rather than pay the new church rate. They call it passive resistance, but it is not the less rebellion. In their eyes, they are rebels for God's laws. They are true to the great traditions of the Great Protector, the hero-saint of the Independents, to which body they both belong. "Our history," said Mr. Silvester Horne at a great meeting in the Memorial Hall, last year, "shows that there are creeds we will never sign, liberties we will never forfeit, and taxes we will never pay. We are sick and tired," he declared, "of the repeated attempts to purchase ecclesiastical ascendancy at the price of our religious freedom. The old question of the relations of the Church and the State has again been raised, and, God helping us, we will not let it sink. If the spirit of disestablishment begins again to live, I for one will thank God for the education bill. They claim ascendancy; we, as Congregationalists, challenge that ascendancy, and may God defend the right!"

And in like terms, not once, but many times, has Mr. Reginald J. Campbell, late of Brighton, now of the City Temple, spoken in the hearing of his people. There is something of the old fighting ring in these words of challenge and of defiance. They proclaim the resurrection of the Nonconformist conscience, the renaissance of Nonconformity as a controlling force in the counsels of the empire. For, as Lord Palmerston—who at least was neither bigot nor fanatic—said, long ago: "In the long run, the politics of England will follow the consciences of the Dissenters."

II.—CAMPBELL OF BRIGHTON.

Mr. R. J. Campbell has been Campbell of Brighton since 1895. Henceforth he will be Campbell of the City Temple. He is but thirty-six years old, "a gray-haired boy" with magnetic eyes and a soul of fire. Who can say how far he may go, how much he may do? Of Scotch descent, he was born the son of a United Free Methodist minister in London, and brought up as a boy in the North of Ireland. Scotland, England, and Ireland all had their share in shaping his youth. His manhood has been colored, if not exactly molded, by the Greater Britain beyond the seas. Among the influences which have shaped his character,—whether for weal or for woe, who can say?—was the visit which he paid to South Africa when the war was raging. He became an enthusiastic Imperialist, and he is at present the only Nonconformist minister who is a member of the committee of Lord Rosebery's league. His religious training was strangely mixed. Born a Free Methodist, he passed the most impressionable years of his life among the Presbyterians of the Black North of Ireland, in the house of a Presbyterian elder who claimed kinship with that celebrated chief of the Orange clan, William Johnston, of Ballykilbeg. In his later teens he was confirmed as a member of the Church of England, and in 1891 was entered at Christ Church, Oxford, with the intention of becoming a clergyman. Under the influence of Dean Paget, now Bishop of Oxford, he surrendered himself to the full fascination of the High Church school. Fortunately, however, for himself, the Nonconformist blood in his veins revolted against the bondage of the Establishment. To accept holy orders in the Church meant the repudiation of the right of his ancestors to count themselves ministers of the Church of Christ. The story goes that in sore spiritual straits the young student sought counsel of Canon, now Bishop, Gore, and that for two days the men wrestled together at Westminster in deep, soul-searching controversy as to the justice of the arrogant and exclusive claims of the Anglican Church. The issue of the struggle was not doubtful. Mr. Campbell could not, dared not, unchurch his own father, or disown the validity of the orders of ministers of Christ upon whose head no bishop's hand had ever rested. As the High Church men are as unyielding as the Pope of Rome in the assertion of their exclusive right to the misty honors of apostolical succession, Mr. Campbell regretfully abandoned the dream of becoming an Anglican priest.

I asked Mr. Campbell whether it was true that



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this was the decisive consideration which led him to abandon his dream of taking Anglican

orders. He replied: "In part, but not altogether. I had been studying very closely the history of the seventeenth century. And the more closely I studied the more imperiously was I driven to the conviction that my sympathies and my convictions were not with the party of Laud, but with the other side."

"And this story about Bishop Gore?"

"It was one day, not two. We had a long and earnest talk. But at the end of it there was no escaping from the conviction that to Canon Gore and his party there were only three divisions of the Church of Christ—the Anglican, the Roman, and the Greek. For all others without the pale there could only be tolerance more or less charitable, but no communion. And against this my whole soul revolted. So I gave up all idea of Anglican orders, and here I am."

He had married before he entered Oxford, and he began preaching up and down among the villages around the city. Four years after entering Christ Church as a prospective candidate for holy orders, he accepted a twice-repeated call to become pastor of a small and empty church in Union Street, Brighton.

During the first twelve years of his life, he was educated in his grandfather's home, near Belfast. He was thirteen years old when he was first sent to a private school in Bolton. There he proved so apt a scholar that he was appointed a teacher. When his father was transferred from Bolton to Nottingham, young Campbell followed him there, and rejoiced at the opportunity of combining the work of teaching with a course of study at Nottingham University College. His first and only important educational post was that of assistant master at the high school of Ashton, in Cheshire. After marrying a member of his father's congregation, he laid down the assistant mastership and went to Oxford. There he took honors in history and political science. He left the university when twenty-eight years of age to begin his career as a Congregational minister.

Mr. Campbell has been a student all his life. He acquired a passionate love of books when reading Scotch romance in his grandfather's parlor, in Belfast. The acquisition of other languages came to him easily, and he acquired sufficient knowledge of Latin, Greek, French, German, Italian, and Spanish to be free of the literature of five languages besides his own. Among the books which have influenced him, he speaks most lovingly of Tennyson, Browning, Shelley, and Milton among the poets. The quietism of the *Theologica Germanica* appealed very strongly to his mystical temperament. He went a long way with the German neologians, but re-

coiled from them when he found how far they drifted from the devout Evangelicalism of Schleiermacher. Dante appeals to him, Goethe does not. He is deeply read in the Fathers,—a taste which he acquired under the influence of his Tractarian tempters. The theater has played no part in his education. The only play he has witnessed was the morality "Everyman;" but although he is a friend of Mr. Beerbohm Tree, he has not, up to the moment of writing, witnessed the performance of "Resurrection." In religion, it is not very difficult to place him. He is a Broad Church Evangelical, with a dash of mysticism and a spice of Puseyism. His Evangelicalism is very fervent, his rationalism is tempered by prudence. Speaking to a recent interviewer about his views as to the higher criticism, he is reported to have said :

I lean to the way of the higher critics generally, but I go very cautiously; that is quite a different thing from always preaching their way. If I have to tell the truth about a text, I must say what the accepted criticism says about it, but I don't dwell there by any means. I don't think it is the part of preaching to hold a brief either for or against the higher criticism. The preacher must keep an open mind. As Ruskin says in his "Modern Painters," the preacher is a commentator upon infinity.

When he accepted the call to the empty little church in Union Street, Brighton, few ventured to anticipate that he would make his mark so suddenly and so decisively. Brighton is not exactly the choicest forcing-house of ministerial reputations. Union Street Chapel was almost deserted. The larger Congregational church in Queen Square, where Paxton Hood had previously ministered, was shut up. Nonconformity in London-sur-Mer had seldom been at a lower ebb when, in 1895, Mr. Campbell began to preach. In a single year he had wrought a wondrous change. He first filled Union Street Church, and then, finding it impossible to accommodate the crowds who flocked to hear him, he migrated to Queen's Square. His fame was soon established as that of the Nonconformist Robertson of Brighton. His church was filled every Sunday. It became the rage to hear Campbell. But it was no mere passing fashion. He kept it up year after year. Dr. Robertson Nicoll advertised him *more suo* in the *British Weekly*, and the fame of the new Robertson spread throughout the land.

When Dr. Parker entered the incline that leads to the Valley of the Shadow of Death, he requested Mr. Campbell to take the Thursday noon-day service at the City Temple. Mr. Campbell complied with his request, and it soon became manifest that the charm which had worked such

wonders at Brighton was still more potent in the City. The crowds which blocked the aisles and choked all the standing space in the City Temple far exceeded those which attended the ministry of Dr. Parker. Hence, it was inevitable that when Dr. Parker passed away Campbell of Brighton would be called to the vacant pulpit.

What is the secret by which, by what the apostle called the foolishness of preaching, Mr. Campbell is able not merely to attract but to command the enthusiastic allegiance of vast multitudes of men and women who are usually impervious to pulpit oratory? Mr. Campbell makes no pretense to oratorical effect. His predecessor was a natural-born actor, who made his pulpit a stage from which he moved his hearers by turns to laughter or to tears. Mr. Campbell is slim and slight and slender. His personal appearance is almost boyish. Yet he holds and thrills his audiences wherever he goes.

It is evident at first sight that Mr. Campbell is eminently magnetic. There is an unconscious hypnotism in his preaching to which men yield without a struggle. The power is largely in his mild and lustrous eye, but it is aided by a musical and flexible voice. His manner is natural, his delivery almost colloquial, as that of a man who is thinking aloud and all the while feeling for the soul of his hearers. And his hearers feel the grip of him and respond.

Mr. Campbell somewhat resembles Canon Liddon in one respect. He is a man who is accustomed to dealing with the souls and consciences of living men. He is not only a preacher, he is a spiritual director. Being a Congregationalist, he will not establish a confessional in the City Temple, but his vestry and his letter-box are no bad substitutes. He is very simple and direct in his utterances, whether to the congregation or to the individual.

No small part of his power as a preacher is because he is human, full of sympathy born of a wide and varied experience. In this he resembles Henry Ward Beecher more than any preacher of our time. There is no wall of parchment or of ecclesiasticism to bar him off from the humblest and meanest and wickedest of human beings. He neither smokes nor drinks; but he rides and he golfs,—he touches the ordinary life of ordinary men on many sides. There is in him something, but not much, of the man of the world; there is also something, and not a little, of a little child. He is in no sense a Brahman. His Tractarianism has not tainted him with any of that insufferable "side" that is the bane of so many Anglicans. He is a human man, and withal one who loves his fellow-men,

not down nor up, but on the level of their common life.

In estimating the sources of his strength, it would be absurd to ignore the nature of his message. When he announced, on March 12, that from that day he was minister of the City Temple, he assured his crowded congregation that he would have but one theme—Christ and Him crucified. He pledged himself never to preach anything that he had not felt in his own experience to be true. In the sermon which followed, he spoke on the humanity of God in terms which showed how true was his own definition of his religious position, that of a Liberal Christianity with an Evangel—a message of good news from God to man.

Yet with all his exalted and impassioned devotion to the mystical side of religion, he is full of a fine and subtle humor which often sends a ripple of mirth over a sea of upturned faces which but a few minutes before had been thrilled with reverence and with awe.

Mr. Campbell is passionately alive to the importance of those secular means of grace which are supplied by the municipal and political affairs of the nation. Few things are more certain than that if Mr. Campbell is sent to jail for refusing to pay the new church rate he will step from prison into Parliament. "The little gray archangel," as I called him years ago at Brighton, would be a somewhat strange addition to the House of Commons. But such a new ingredient might not be without its uses in the legislature.

In politics, Mr. Campbell is an Imperialist, chastened by the bitter experience of what comes of Imperialism when it is allied with a political party with no fear of the Ten Commandments before its eyes. He is, as I have said, a member of the Committee of the Liberal League. He finds himself in strange company. He joined it in order to ingeminate peace and unity. He preaches his gospel to unwilling ears. He is a *vox clamantis in deserto*, a missionary in *partibus infidelium*.

Mr. Campbell has a unique and splendid opportunity of making the City Temple not only the metropolitan cathedral of Nonconformity, but the living center of all the forces making for righteousness in the empire. There is no social center in London. Dean Stanley, in his time, used to make the Deanery of Westminster, on a small scale, what Mr. Campbell may make the City Temple on a scale more in proportion to the spacious times of modern democracy. If he does, the influence which he will exert will go forth to the uttermost ends of the earth, and the City Temple will become one of the most useful nerve-centers of the human race.

III.—THE REV. C. SILVESTER HORNE.

Mr. Horne, who has just accepted the responsible duty of making the renovated Whitefield's Tabernacle the social center of the great district that is bisected by Tottenham Court Road, is a close friend of Mr. Campbell. He is also about the same age, being only two years his senior. They are both Oxford men, both are called to new and important Congregational churches in London in the same year, and both are passionately at one in their detestation of the new education act. They began their new pastorates together, they may go to jail together, and if so they will certainly go to Parliament together. Both men are slender of build, both are above the average height, and both men are swayed by the influence of the spirit of the age. They bid fair to be regarded as the great twin brethren of the renaissance of Nonconformity.

Despite these numerous points of resemblance, in their education, their temperament, and their record, there are almost as many points of difference. Mr. Campbell, as has been remarked, was born a Free Methodist, educated as a Presbyterian, confirmed as an Episcopalian, and he went to Oxford intending to become an Anglican priest. Mr. Silvester Horne had no such multifarious spiritual adventures before he was called to the Congregational ministry. He was the son of a Congregational minister, and the grandson of one of the leading Congregational laymen of last century. He was born a Congregationalist, educated as a Congregationalist, and ordained as a Congregational minister without once straying from the Congregationalist path. Mr. Campbell is a Scotchman, born in London and reared in Ireland. Mr. Horne is English through and through. He was born in Sussex, educated in Shropshire, and after graduating at Glasgow University he returned to England and spent three years at Mansfield College before he was called to his first charge in Kensington. His spiritual fathers were Congregationalists. Dr. Dale of Birmingham and Dr. Fairbairn of Mansfield were to him what Bishops Paget and Gore were to Mr. Campbell.

Perhaps on account of this consistent uniformity in his upbringing, Mr. Silvester Horne remained proof against the contagious delirium to which Mr. Campbell succumbed in 1900. Mr. Campbell has never quite emancipated himself from the baleful spirit of ascendancy which permeates the Orange atmosphere in which his boyhood was passed. Mr. Horne was shielded, from the cradle upward, from the pestilential malaria of race-domination. Hence, when Mr. Campbell became Jingo, Mr. Horne was from the outbreak



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of the war to its close a stout, uncompromising pro-Boer. He was a "Stop-the-war" man who bore testimony clear, unterrified, and unflinching to the policy of justice, of righteousness, and of peace. There were many Liberals who publicly denounced the war but who shrank from proposing to end it until the Boers had been crushed, alleging that such a policy was good for Sundays but impossible on week-days. To Mr. Horne, such a phrase carried its own condemnation. The policy which was good for Sundays was one which ought to be acted upon all the

days of the week. There is therefore no stain on Mr. Horne's escutcheon. The crucial test found him flawless.

Mr. Horne began to preach when a mere lad. He learned the art of persuasive speech by addressing Shropshire rustics, and acquired a mastery of simple, direct eloquence in preaching to congregations which were often only numbered by tens. But his talent was so unmistakable that it was soon recognized that the ministry was his natural vocation. He went to Glasgow, where his energy and his enthusiasm marked him out as a natural leader of men. At the university, he was a fervid politician, a diligent student, and a strenuous and consistent Christian. Dr. Paton, of Nottingham, encouraged his youthful ambition. "Don't be content with a donkey cart," said the fatherly principal of the Nottingham Congregational Institute; "aim for a coach and four." At Whitefield's Tabernacle he is now on the box seat. In those early days he was permitted to enjoy the great privilege of close intimacy with Dr. Dale of Birmingham, whose example and whose influence left a deep impress upon his character.

After leaving Glasgow, he went to Oxford, where he became the close friend and companion of Mr. Campbell. For three years he studied and worked at Mansfield College under the stimulating direction of Dr. Fairbairn. It was while he was still in his novitiate at Mansfield that he was called to the pastorate of Kensington Congregational Church, which for a century and more had been one of the most famous meeting-places of the Independents in western London. The church was not exactly to his liking. Mr. Horne, being born and bred a democrat, craved rather a sphere in which he would have been brought face to face with the working classes. But as the call was pressing, he accepted it, and the result justified his decision.

Kensington was his first and up till now his only church. That he is leaving it this year is due to no dissatisfaction on the part of the congregation, no restlessness on the part of the pastor. A new sphere in which he might have an opportunity of realizing his early ideals has lured him from fashionable Kensington to the democratic precincts of Tottenham Court Road. Whitefield's Tabernacle, once a famous meeting-place, has of late years fallen into decay. It has been rebuilt and equipped with the appliances for institutional work among the masses of the people. The new edifice needed a new chief, and Mr. Sylvester Horne was recognized as the man for the post. He was called, and he accepted the summons. In September he will take over his new duties, and with his advent a new breath

of life will stir the crowded district of which the Tabernacle is the center.

Last year, Mr. Horne was elected chairman of the London Congregational Union, an office which corresponds to that of Bishop of London as nearly as anything Congregational can correspond to Episcopal jurisdiction. At the close of his term of office, he told his church how he had endeavored to discharge the duties of the chairmanship. Twelve months, he deplored, was too short a time in which to get even a nodding acquaintance with London.

"When I have gone down to any neighborhood unknown to me," he says, "I have usually gone down early and taken a walk round the district, and made some inquiries as to the conditions of life and the position which Christian institutions occupy in the sympathy and confidence of the people. I have asked two questions everywhere: 'How much do the people care for the churches?' and 'How much do the churches care for the people?' There are perhaps more reassuring signs than one might suppose. But I think only the most prejudiced and conservative minds could remain complacent. I have finished my year with one fixed conviction,—that, in the most populous districts, a single church, unsupported, with its single minister and its starved agencies, is helpless and hopeless; and, so far as meeting the needs of the locality is concerned, it is hardly an appreciable force at all."

The lessons learned in this pastoral visitation and inspection will not be thrown away at Whitefield's Tabernacle, which will probably be better known as the Central Hall, round which will be grouped all the humanizing agencies now in operation or soon to be brought into operation in the Tottenham Court Road. What Mr. Horne tried to do for the Thomas Binney Institute will be done on a larger scale at the renovated Tabernacle. In his circular on behalf of the institute, in 1901, he said:

We are appealing to all our churches and young people's societies through the country to put us in touch with young members coming up to business life in London, and we undertake to do our best to make them welcome, to introduce them to helpful companionship, and to provide for them some home comforts and healthful interests for their evenings and for Sundays.

He has a special eye to the new-comers to London—the lonely migrants into the great city. It will not be his fault if he does not make the Central Hall a great agency for making these strangers at home in London.

Of the work which is to be undertaken at Tottenham Court Road it is impossible to speak, at present, save in the most sketchy outlines. Mr. Horne means, if he can, to make the transformed Tabernacle a living church.

As broad as is the love of God,
And wide as are the wants of man.

In Tottenham Court Road, with its great industrial barracks and its crowded cosmopolitan population, man has many wants. Mr. Horne hopes to minister to them all, to enlist a consecrated and intelligent host of workers, with the love of God in their hearts and common sense in their heads, whose aim and object will be to help every one in the district to enjoy more health, happiness, and holiness than they have at present.

In the choice of agencies, Mr. Horne will have a free hand. He is singularly free from trammeling prejudice. He told me that nothing they had done at Kensington had impressed him more deeply than the representation of Milton's "Comus" which was given there by the young people of the church, aided by one or two members of the Elizabethan Society. If they performed "Comus" at Kensington, they may stage "Everyman" at the Central Hall. The sacred drama is one of the unused resources of the Christian Church. No one who has ever visited Oberammergau can question the potency of such dramatic representations—undertaken, not by professionals, but by the people themselves—as a religious and educational force in the uplifting of humanity.

Whatever doubt there may be about the sanctified use of the stage as an accessory of the pulpit, there can be no doubt about the lawfulness of having recourse to the ministry of music. General Booth has created more players on musical instruments out of the men in the street than all our colleges of music. Every church ought to be a college of music. The singing of hymns on Sundays to the accompaniment of the organ ought not to exhaust the use that can be made of minstrelsy and song. The Central Hall may become a nest of singing birds, with almost illimitable resources in the companies of players on instruments. Music is a universal language, much more popular than Esperanto; and the Central Hall, situated as it is in the midst of a cosmopolitan population of all nationalities, will utilize the one mode of appeal which does not presuppose a mastery of the English language.

Mr. Horne, while still a youth, found the debates of the local Mutual Improvement Society marvelously quickening to his intellect as well as an invaluable training in the art of ready and cogent speech. I shall be much disappointed if one result of his transfer to the Central Hall be not a revival of the practice of public debate on all manner of public questions. Why should the House of Commons be the only arena in London in which representatives of opposing opinions have an opportunity of meeting face to face in free and fearless debate? Conferences, real

conferences, on public questions, in which the congregation is made to feel that it is expected to do more than merely listen, are practically unknown among us. Our public services are purely hortative and devotional. There is none of that stimulating clash of mind with mind which is the most potent method of arousing attention and provoking thought.

The Central Hall, under Mr. Horne, will be preëminently social. In its drawing-room, gossip ought to be recognized as one of the means of grace. Every church that has any life in it is a more or less unconscious matrimonial agency, and the Central Hall will be a miserable failure if it does not supply endless opportunities for the young people to make those acquaintances which ripen into marriage. Among the opportunities which such an institution should create, one of the most useful ought to be the Sunday evening At Home, in which, after the evening service, the church becomes the genial hostess.

Of the institutions more directly helpful to the poorer members of the community, the poor man's lawyer, the thrift clubs, and similar agencies which are to be found in every settlement, there will be no lack in the transformed Tabernacle. But the soul of all these institutions will be the inspiration of the preaching of Christ and Him crucified. For Mr. Horne is nothing if not a Christian preacher. As such he began; as such he will end. But his Christianity is no mere morality charged with emotion. It is the cultivation of the ideal life, that is a union of thought and zeal.

To Mr. Horne, the religious life is barren if it does not descend into the market-place, the forum, and the home. The Central Hall will be of necessity a great political center,—not a center of wire-pullers, but a center pulsating like a dynamo, whose activity will bode ill for the forces of reaction and corruption alike in the municipality and in the constituency. Mr. Horne cannot understand Christian teetotalers who vote for a party to which every public-house acts as a committee-room.

The education bill revealed Mr. Horne to the country as the Congregational counterpart of the Baptist, Dr. Clifford. It was his resolute insistence, his passionate pleading, which committed the Congregational Union, last autumn, to a policy of passive resistance to the Education Act. He is a Radical stalwart, nurtured on the pure milk of the Word, and saturated with the associations of the Free Churches of which he is the latest historian. His popular "History of the Free Churches" (J. Clarke & Co.) is, as he phrases it in his preface, "the story of an unconquerable spirit dedicated to the service of an

unconquerable ideal. It is a declaration of war to a finish against the House of Lords, that effective instrument against popular privilege and progress," and it demands recognition as the fundamental principle and privilege of the constitution,—religious equality for all and ecclesiastical ascendancy for none.

Mr. Horne is a total abstainer, but he is no superhuman ascetic. He is a human man who loves the pleasant things of life,—the life in the open air, the sweet joys of domestic life, and genial intercourse with friends. And, having all these things in goodly measure, he longs to see the same blessings enjoyed by all, even the poorest and the weakest of all God's creatures. He gets on well with his fellow-creatures; he puts on no "side." He is not a professional parson. He has traveled far,—has visited Australia, and has lectured in the United States. He married the daughter of Mr. Justice Cozens-Hardy, who has borne him several children.

The advent of two such men as Mr. Campbell and Mr. Horne as leaders at a time when the



THE ROYAL AQUARIUM.

(A conspicuous London site bought as headquarters of Wesleyan Methodism.)

death of Dr. Parker and Mr. Hugh Price Hughes deprived London Nonconformists of two of their most eloquent chiefs is an event of good omen. It coincides with the still further development of the social movement among the Wesleyans which is so encouraging a sign of the times. The purchase of Westminster Aquarium to secure a site for the new Wesleyan Church House is significant. But it does not stand alone. Not less reassuring, last month, was the laying of the foundation-stone of the new building of the Leysian Mission in North London, in which £100,000 will be well invested for the social and religious amelioration of that populous district.

WESLEY AND THE WESLEYAN MOVEMENT.

BY DR. J. M. BUCKLEY.

[In the present month of June, many people in all the countries that speak the English tongue will be celebrating the two-hundredth anniversary of the birth of John Wesley, whose natal day was June 28, 1703. The greatness of Wesley is well illustrated in the admitted fact that among the hundreds of strong and able religious leaders who have belonged to the different branches of Methodism,—all of which owe their origin to Wesley and honor his name as that of their founder,—not one has reached his stature as a man of intellectual and religious power. Methodism has been a great force in making our American life and character what they are. Of all men, Dr. J. M. Buckley, the editor of the *Christian Advocate*, of New York, is best qualified to tell us at once of the founder of Methodism, of its growth as a national and international religious and social movement, and of its present status.—THE EDITOR.]

IT is not the aim of this article to epitomize a life which a score of volumes could not worthily describe, but to present a cluster of salient points which, like branches from a fruit-bearing tropical tree that show at one time leaf, blossoms, and mature fruit, may enable the reader to refresh or inform his memory with what is necessary to interpret the man and his work.

THE ANCESTORS OF WESLEY.

In few human lives have heredity, family tradition, and environment played more important parts in the development of a great historical figure. This appears from facts well known and others not often mentioned. Bartholomew Wesley, John Wesley's great-grandfather, was born in the last days of Queen Elizabeth. He married the daughter of Sir Henry Colley, of Kildare, Ireland. After his marriage, not much is known of him until 1640, when he was installed as rector of Catherston. He lived through the reigns of James I. and Charles I., and was not disturbed in his successive parishes during all the wars of the Commonwealth, the career of Oliver Cromwell as Protector, and the brief period during which his son Richard held power, nor until the third year of the reign of Charles II. But, as he opposed that king's dissolute life and his sympathies with Roman Catholicism, he was one of the two thousand ministers ejected, in 1662, under the Act of Uniformity.

Bartholomew Wesley had one son, John, a student of marked proficiency at Oxford, who took the degree of master of arts at the age of twenty-two. This John Wesley was installed clergyman four months before Cromwell died. Although he took the oath of allegiance to Charles II., he could not sympathize with the later developments, and, like his father, was expelled under the Act of Uniformity. Four months after this event, his son, Samuel Wesley, was born. John White, the father of John Wes-

ley's wife, was one of the three Assessors of the Westminster Assembly, a rector of Trinity Church in Dorchester, England. Samuel Wesley was also an alumnus of Oxford, a man of unusual ability, and an accomplished scholar. He married Susannah, the youngest daughter and twenty-fifth child of Dr. Samuel Annesley, whose wife was the daughter of John White, a Puritan lawyer, member of the House of Commons and of the Westminster Assembly.

Both Samuel and Susannah Wesley were self-willed to an unusual degree, and had inflexible consciences. They were the parents of nineteen children; but when the Epworth Rectory was burned the parochial registers were lost. George James Stevenson, a most painstaking genealogist, after years of research, found the names of eighteen, with the months and years of their births and deaths. The tenth was John, and the eleventh, Benjamin; each of these died in the year of his birth. The fifteenth child, born June 17 (old style), 1703, was the next son born after the death of Benjamin. The love of Mrs. Wesley for those whose deaths she still mourned prompted her to name this son John Benjamin, and by that name was the founder of Methodism baptized by his father.

When the rectory at Epworth, in which Samuel Wesley resided throughout the greater part of his life, was burned, in 1709, John, who was then about six years old, narrowly escaped death. Just before the roof fell in, he was rescued by means of a human ladder.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF JOHN WESLEY.

To the training of John, because of his providential preservation, Mrs. Wesley devoted special pains. After being taught by his mother until nearly nine years of age, he entered Charterhouse School, in London. The food furnished to the pupils was neither abundant nor appetizing, and the older boys took the meat from the younger, so that most of the time



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JOHN WESLEY.

(This picture is a composite of eight reputed portraits of John Wesley, and has been adopted by the Methodist Episcopal Church throughout America as the officially accepted portrait of the founder of Methodism.)

John Wesley was there he lived on nothing but bread ; yet, obeying his father's command to run around the Charterhouse grounds every morning, he preserved his health. He thought that he was converted when baptized, at the age of about ten years, but acknowledges that he sinned away in the Charterhouse the grace received at that time. Nevertheless, he hoped to

be saved because "he was not as bad as other people, went to church, and said his prayers." At sixteen, he passed under the tuition of his brother Samuel, then head usher at Westminster School, and a year later entered Christ Church College, Oxford, where he remained five years.

At the age of nineteen, he expressed a desire to become a minister, which was approved by

his mother, who wished him to be ordained deacon as soon as possible; but his father recommended the protracted pursuit of critical learning. Later, however, he pressed him to enter into holy orders. When he began in earnest the study of practical divinity, the books to which he gave most attention were "The Imitation of Christ," by Thomas à Kempis, and Jeremy Taylor's "Holy Living and Dying." The latter, though he rejected its views on predestination, led him "to dedicate his life to God."

As soon as he began to act upon this determination, he adopted the views of Thomas à Kempis, which at first he had thought impracticable. An unknown friend whose influence was in harmony with the spirit and teachings of these two great works led him "to alter the whole form of my [his] conversation, and to set in earnest upon a new life."

John Wesley was ordained deacon, in 1725, by Dr. Potter, Bishop of Oxford. March, 1726, he was elected fellow of Lincoln College, which required his return to Oxford and the commencement of special work. In two months, he was elected Greek lecturer and moderator of the classes. On Mondays and Tuesdays, he studied Greek and Roman classics, historians and poets; Wednesdays, logic and ethics; Thursdays, Hebrew and Arabic; Fridays, metaphysics and natural philosophy; Saturdays, oratory and poetry, chiefly composing; Sundays, divinity. For recreation, he studied French and made experiments in natural science.

William Law, a fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge, wrote two books, one called "Christian Perfection," and another, "A Serious Call." These works for a time affected Wesley most powerfully.

Wesley took his degree of master of arts February 14, 1727, delivering, on that occasion, three orations in Latin,—one on "The Spirit of Brutus," another on "Julius Cæsar," and the last on "The Love of God." His scheme of life had become thoroughly ascetic. For two years, between 1727 and 1729, he officiated as his father's curate; in 1728, he was ordained priest at Oxford, and continued as his father's assistant for a short time, after which he returned to Oxford and there remained six years.

While John Wesley was at Epworth, his brother Charles had originated what was contemptuously spoken of as the "Holy Club," "Bible Bigots," "Bible Moths," the "Godly Club," "Supererogation Men," "Sacramentalists," and, as John Wesley observes in his journal, were "sometimes dignified with the name of 'Enthusiasts,' or the 'Reform Club.'" And to these were applied the name "Methodist."

Both the need of the club and the persecution to which its members were subjected are to be explained by the low state of morals at Oxford and elsewhere. The life of John Wesley was a continual protest against moral evil and religious laxity. On Wednesdays and Fridays, he tasted no food until three in the afternoon. He and his associates carried self-denial and study so far as nearly to ruin their health. They gave away all the money they could obtain, received the communion weekly, set apart an hour or two every day for prayer, and visited prisons, until by these things, and by severe and frequent hemorrhages, John was brought to the gates of death.

JOHN WESLEY IN AMERICA.

Soon after the death of Samuel Wesley, Sr., which took place in 1735, Dr. John Burton, of Oxford, took much interest in the colonization of Georgia, and urged John Wesley to go there as a missionary. As the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts encouraged it, many Christian people emigrated to the colony. February 5, 1736, a company of three hundred emigrants, conducted by General Oglethorpe, founder of the colony, landed in Georgia. Among them were certain Moravians and John and Charles Wesley. John expected to be a missionary to the English and also an apostle to the Indians. Charles was secretary to General Oglethorpe. On the voyage, a storm raged so terribly that all except the Moravians were frightened. These were so calm and ready to die that Wesley concluded he had not the faith which they possessed.

At this time, John Wesley being ignorant of human nature, unduly severe in his judgment of others, and inexorable in requiring the strictest mode of life, the people would not endure his views. He paid attentions, looking toward matrimony, to a young woman not at all suited to him, but it is much debated whether there was an actual engagement. She married, and as she neglected the religious instructions which he gave to the Church, Wesley first rebuked her, as he did in other instances, and finally repelled her from the communion. For this, "a suit for publicly defaming Mrs. Williamson and refusing her the sacrament was brought against him by her father."

A grand jury indicted him upon these and similar charges. Twelve of the grand jurors, three of whom were constables and six tithing men, refused to sign the presentment. They showed in regular form that each statement was either false or justified by the law of the Church of England. The minority also claimed there was a legal defect in the composition of the

body and he never could have been tried. The indictment, which is extant, shows conclusively that its inspiration was personal malice.

Wesley writes that though he appeared at six or seven courts successively, he was unable to obtain an opportunity to vindicate himself; so he determined to return to England and lay the matter before General Oglethorpe.

On departing, he wrote in his journal for January 22, 1738: "I took my leave of America (though, if it please God, not forever)." He undoubtedly considered his mission a failure; but it was reserved for George Whitefield, who subsequently had an extraordinary connection with Georgia, to vindicate him, for while on a tour in that colony some months after Wesley returned to England, he wrote in his journal: "The good that Mr. John Wesley has done in America is inexpressible. His name is very precious among the people; and he has laid a foundation that I hope neither men nor devils will ever be able to shake. O that I may follow him as he has followed Christ!"

During the voyage to England, Wesley wrote: "I went to America to convert the Indians; but oh, who shall convert me? . . . It is now two years and almost four months since I left my native country in order to teach the Georgian Indians the nature of Christianity; but what have I learned myself in the meantime? Why (what I the least of all suspected), that I who went to America to convert others was never myself converted to God."

In later years, Wesley concluded, and wrote in his journal, that he had taken too dark a view of his state. He then had "the faith of a servant," though not "that of a son."

During his absence from England, he had mastered the German, Spanish, and Italian tongues so that he could both read and speak them. In four days after landing, he preached in the Church of St. John the Evangelist from the text, "If any man be in Christ, he is a new creature." Many of the best men in the parish were so offended that they resolved he should never preach there again.

WESLEY'S EXPERIMENTAL CRISIS.

In three days, he met Peter Bohler, a Moravian, who convinced him by the teaching of the Scriptures and his arguments, as well as by the testimony of certain witnesses, that "instantaneous conversion" is possible. This Bohler, a native of Frankfort, Germany, was educated at the University of Jena, where he afterward studied theology. He was on his way to Carolina when he met Wesley in London. As he knew no English, Charles Wesley gave him his

first lessons; and in the Moravian meetings he spoke in Latin, "a learned tailor interpreting." Confident that Wesley was sincere, Bohler advised him to preach faith until he experienced it. Wherever he preached in parish churches, the people determined not to allow him to occupy the pulpit again (not because he was not a just and correct preacher, for his English was perfect, he was never vulgar, his voice was musical, flexible, and commanding, his figure symmetrical, and his countenance most ingratiating), but because of the doctrine and the intensity with which he enforced it. He was now regularly attending the Moravian meetings and others; sad much of the time, because he felt under condemnation; continually seeking "the assurance of faith" by renouncing "all dependence upon his own works," and by adding to "the constant use of all other means of grace continual prayer for this very thing—justifying, saving faith." This was his state of mind on Wednesday, May 24, 1738. At five in the morning, when he opened his Testament at random, he saw, "There are given unto us exceeding great and precious promises; even that ye should be partakers of the divine nature." He opened it again at random, and read, "Thou art not far from the kingdom of God." In the afternoon, he was asked to go to St. Paul's. The anthem was "Out of the deep have I called unto thee, O Lord. . . . If thou, Lord, wilt be extreme to mark what is done amiss, O Lord, who may abide it?" This somewhat comforted him.

As the critical moment when the soul entered into the Wesleyan movement was approaching, the testimony of Wesley himself is the best evidence of which the case admits. These are his words:

"In the evening I went very unwillingly to a society in Aldersgate Street, where one was reading Luther's preface to the Epistle to the Romans. About a quarter before nine, while he was describing the change which God works in the heart through faith in Christ, I felt my heart strangely warmed. I felt I did trust in Christ, Christ alone, for salvation; and an assurance was given me that he had taken away my sins, even mine, and saved me from the law of sin and death.

"I began to pray with all my might for those who had in more especial manner despitely used me and persecuted me. I then testified openly to all there what I now first felt in my heart. But it was not long before the enemy suggested, 'This cannot be faith, for where is thy joy?' Then was I taught that peace and victory over sin are essential to faith in the Captain of our salvation; but that, as to the transports

of joy that usually attend the beginning of it, especially in those who have mourned deeply, God sometimes giveth, sometimes withholdeth them, according to the counsels of his own will."

Soon afterward, he visited the Moravians in Germany, who strongly influenced him, though subsequently he disagreed with them upon various points.

George Whitefield, one of the original "Methodists," and already recognized as one of the greatest of orators, on his return from America at once sought a meeting with Wesley. Whitefield preached in the open air, and at first Wesley was inclined to disapprove the method, but soon accommodated himself to it, and finally became a defender of it, which he did by showing that he was forbidden as by a general consent to preach in any church, for preaching such doctrine as was the staple of his public and private communications after his conversion. He had already formed societies, which, assisted by his brother Charles and several others, he supplied with preaching. Some years later, he divided from Whitefield on the subject of final perseverance and certain other distinguishing doctrines of Calvinism.

METHODISM AS A DISTINCT MOVEMENT.

For a short time there was positive estrangement between Wesley and Whitefield. In the summer of 1739, a Methodist society, as distinguished from all others, was formed of several smaller ones. Wesley named this the United Societies, and at other times the United Society. In perfecting his organization, Mr. Wesley carried over from the Moravians the plan of classification of members into "men bands" and "women bands," which afterward were subdivided according to whether the members were married or single. Each band had a leader whose duty it was first to describe his own state and then call upon those present, one by one, to give testimony. He also instituted Love Feasts and Watch Nights, taking the idea from the early Christian agapæ and vigils. Some contending that these meetings were of man's invention, he replied: "They are prudential helps, grounded on reason and experience, in order to apply the general rules given in Scripture." Others said they were "mere Popery." Wesley said: "The only Popish confession is the confession made by a single individual to a priest. We practise the confession to several persons conjointly, not to a priest, but to each other."

The "class-meeting" had preceded these bands. It began as a financial enterprise, the intention being to raise funds for the support of the soci-

ety. The collectors discovered that some of the members "did not live as they should." Wesley instructed the leaders to make particular inquiry into the behavior of those whom they saw weekly. In process of time, with the class-meeting were incorporated all the elements of the "bands" which in practice were found useful. As the societies grew, it was necessary to supply them with preachers and separate places of worship, for the clergymen who affiliated with Wesley were excluded from the churches of the Establishment, and lay preachers were in no case allowed to conduct services therein.

Thus, the movement grew out of the experience of the *man*, and this covered the whole field of religious thought. The number of converts steadily increasing, places of meeting became necessary. The first chapel erected by the Wesleys was in Bristol; but before it was finished, the "Foundry" was opened in London. In three years, Wesley was employing twenty-three itinerant lay preachers and several local preachers. The former gave their whole time; the latter earned their living in ordinary business and preached at points accessible from their residences. Rumors were set afloat that Wesley was a Jesuit. This led to the mobbing of the Methodists. Charles Wesley was indicted because in a public prayer he besought God to "call home his banished ones," which was interpreted to mean the House of Stuart. But the mobs were conquered by the strange moral power of Wesley, and in the end contributed to the increase of the societies.

The first Methodist Conference was held on June 25, 1774, in London, and consisted of seven clergymen of the Church of England and four lay preachers. Three years later, Wesley visited Ireland, where he met with great success. The doctrines taught by Wesley were those held by the Reformed churches, but they excluded ritualism and sacramentarianism, and divided from Calvinism on unconditional election, predestination, and final perseverance of the saints. The hymns they sang contributed greatly to their success, Charles Wesley composing most of them. In such work, John Wesley continued until his death.

Originally, he did not intend that the Methodists should leave the Church of England, and for a long time did everything in his power to prevent it. But the treatment he and they received from the ecclesiastical authorities convinced him, long before he died, that after his death the separation would take place. Therefore, to preserve the unity, doctrine, and spirit of the societies, and to hold the property which had been acquired, he prepared a peculiar docu-

ment, entitled a "Deed of Declaration," which deed was embodied in an act of Parliament which transferred the powers Wesley had exercised to one hundred ministers, known as "The Legal Hundred." The conditions on which their successors should be elected were therein prescribed; and, while no creed is specifically mentioned, it is expressly provided that the doctrines contained in certain sermons and doctrinal tracts must be preached.

WESLEYANISM AFTER WESLEY'S DEATH.

After the death of Wesley, in 1791, the Wesleyans in England were "tempest-tossed by discussions about the sacraments," the great majority insisting that their own preachers should administer them, while many of the more influential members resisted the innovation. A compromise was effected whereby the official bodies of the local societies were given power to decide for themselves. The rights of the laity was the center of the next agitation; the leader being expelled, five thousand members withdrew with him, which gave rise to the Methodist New Connection, now an important body.

The Primitive Methodist Connection arose between 1807 and 1810, in which latter year it was formed into a church. It originated in a reaction from stern dealing with certain ministers who wished to introduce camp meetings into Wesleyan Methodism. A small but most reputable form of English Methodism is known as the Bible Christians.

Many small societies, which, like asteroids in the solar system, split from the main body, formed themselves into separate societies. In 1857, these united under the name of the United Methodist Free Church, a body of considerable importance.

Wherever the power of England has extended, there Wesley's followers have gone. They are numerous in South Africa and Australasia, and in all the islands owned by England. Their missions, especially those of the Wesleyan Church, are admirably sustained and wonderfully successful. Altogether, it is reasonably estimated that, including communicants and adherents, they number six million in Great Britain and its possessions.

METHODISM IN THE UNITED STATES.

Numerically, the Methodist movement has reached its largest development in the United States, where its first class was formed in 1766. As late as 1757, the city of New York contained but twelve thousand inhabitants, and Philadelphia only one thousand more. In 1760, eight or ten Methodists sailed from Ireland and landed

in the city of New York. One of these, Philip Embury, had been a Methodist for eight years, was unusually well informed, and had served as a Wesleyan local preacher. Others arrived in 1765. Besides these, there were a few other Methodists in the United States, but, with a possible notable exception, none had become the nucleus of a Methodist society.

These New York Methodists were quiescent until they began to decline morally and religiously, when one of them, Mrs. Barbara Heck, became stirred with religious zeal and urged Embury to resume preaching. Marked success followed his efforts. One by one, the English Methodists, now numbering nearly thirty thousand, began to appear upon the scene; of these, Captain Webb was a British officer, and his accession was a great advantage to the new movement.

Captain Webb had considerable money, which he was ready to spend for the promotion of the cause.

While Embury and Captain Webb were preaching in New York, a religious awakening of which they had never heard was spreading in Frederick County, Md., where Robert Strawbridge, a native of Ireland, had settled. Some claim that Strawbridge had formed a society before Embury was aroused from his lethargy.

In less than two years after Embury began, a prominent layman appealed to John Wesley for aid in building a chapel, and also for reinforcements. Soon after the first missionary from Wesley came, a connection was formed with Robert Strawbridge. The most distinguished of Wesley's missionaries were the superintendents, Thomas Rankin and Francis Asbury. In seven years, American Methodism became a society with 1,160 members, the system being entirely modeled upon Wesley's, and a conference was held in Philadelphia in June, 1773, ten preachers being present. By the next year, the number of members had nearly doubled, and seventeen preachers were stationed. By 1775, there were 3,148 members,—about 2,500 south of Philadelphia, 200 in New York, 300 in New Jersey, and 190 in Philadelphia.

During the Revolutionary War, the Methodists were suspected of disloyalty to the Colonists, on account of the attitude taken by John Wesley, who, after at first sympathizing with the Americans, was convinced by Dr. Samuel Johnson that taxation was no tyranny, and issued "A Calm Address" which had an effect the opposite of that for which it was written. Nearly all Wesley's preachers sent from England returned when war was imminent, or soon after it began, except Francis Asbury, who sympa-

thized with this country but was obliged to spend two years in retirement. Notwithstanding this, there were, in 1776, 24 preachers and nearly 5,000 members, and some of the preachers and many of the members were men of influence. In 1779, there was a slight decline in membership and a loss of seven ministers; but by 1781, the tide had changed,—the number of preachers reached 54, and of members, nearly 11,000.

The typical American itinerant preacher, mingling all the elements of moving eloquence with practical sense and homely wit, appeared. Wherever such went, the people followed in crowds; members and preachers increased rapidly in numbers, confidence, and public esteem, so that it became difficult to prevent the establishment of a separate denomination, especially as the Methodists had no sacraments.

A large part of the English clergy forsook the country when the Revolution broke out, hundreds of Methodists had never received the holy communion, nor was there any one among them authorized to administer it or to baptize their children.

Attempts were made by the preachers in Virginia to form a plan for mutual ordination, and the administration of the sacraments was begun; but Asbury, with a strong hand, suppressed the movement until Wesley should be consulted.

AFTER THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

The war having ended, Wesley concluded that to save the results of Methodism in America it was necessary for him to aid American Methodists in establishing a new branch of the Christian Church. His justification of himself was given in a letter addressed to Dr. Thomas Coke, a clergyman of the Church of England. This document bore this inscription: "To Dr. Coke, Mr. Asbury, and our brethren in North America." In this letter, Wesley notes that "many of the Provinces of North America are totally disjoined from the mother country and erected into independent States;" that "the English Government has no authority over them, either civil or ecclesiastical," nor does any one exercise or claim any ecclesiastical authority. And proceeds: "In this peculiar situation, some thousands of the inhabitants of these States desire my advice, and in compliance with their desire I have drawn up a little sketch.

"Lord King's account of the primitive church convinced me many years ago that bishops and presbyters are the same order, and consequently have the same right to ordain." He then states that he had "been importuned to exercise this right by ordaining part of the traveling preachers," but he had "refused to do so," because he

was "determined as little as possible to violate the established order of the national church to which I belonged." "But," he adds, "the case is widely different between England and North America. Here are bishops who have a legal jurisdiction. In America, there are none, neither any parish minister." He explains that he has appointed Dr. Coke and Mr. Francis Asbury to be joint superintendents, that Coke being already a presbyter of the Church of England, he has set him apart as a superintendent by the imposition of his hands and prayer (being assisted by other ordained ministers), and that he had also "appointed and ordained Richard Whatcoat and Thomas Vasey to act as elders among them, by baptizing and administering the Lord's Supper." To these certifications he appends: "I have prepared a liturgy, little differing from that of the Church of England (I think the best constituted national church in the world), which I advise all the traveling preachers to use on the Lord's day, &c." He further states that he tried to persuade the Bishop of London to ordain a bishop for America, but could not; but if they had consented, "we know the slowness of their proceedings, and the matter admitted of no delay."

He concludes: "If they would ordain them now, they would expect to govern them. And how grievously would this entangle us! As our American brethren are now totally disentangled, both from the state and the English hierarchy, we dare not entangle them again, either with the one or the other. They are now at full liberty simply to follow the Scriptures and the primitive church. And we judge it best that they should stand fast in that liberty wherewith God has so strangely made them free."

Provided with a certificate of ordination and this letter, Coke and the two elders previously mentioned landed in New York on November 3, 1784. On December 24, 1784, all the Methodist preachers that could be notified met in a chapel in Lovely Lane, in the city of Baltimore, and agreed to form a Methodist Episcopal Church. Coke ordained Asbury a deacon, and on Sunday an elder, and on Monday he was consecrated superintendent. Thirteen lay preachers were ordained,—first deacons, and afterward elders. The methods of the English Methodist Conferences were adopted as the discipline of the Methodist Episcopal Church, with such alterations only as were necessary to adapt it to the state of things in America.

It soon appeared that though Methodists who had been reared in the Church of England were inclined to the use of the Prayer Book, a large majority of the members exhibited dislike for it,

and after a few years the Prayer Book was laid aside. Asbury and Whatcoat, the one a bishop and the other an elder, appeared in sacerdotal robes, and the morning service as abridged by Wesley was read; but this not being generally approved by the Methodists, it was repeated but once or twice.

After the organization of the Church, certain Baptists who had affiliated with the Methodists so long as the questions of baptism and communion were not raised consistently withdrew. Some Presbyterians, also, ceased to attend Methodist meetings; but many of the latter, finding that Wesley had emphatically declared that "bishops and presbyters are of one order," remained, though some of these, when the Methodists began to preach against Calvinism, afterward withdrew. Wesley believed the bishop he ordained and his successors to be as really scriptural bishops as any in the world, and this is the belief of Episcopal Methodism.

The progress of the new denomination was rapid, and in six years the number of lay members had increased to nearly fifty-eight thousand, and of preachers, to one hundred and seventy.

The next year, James O'Kelly, a prominent preacher of Virginia, seceded, not being willing to submit to what he called arbitrary power of the bishop in the matter of appointments. Several ministers of importance allied themselves with him, and he formed a sect called "Republican Methodists." Another secession took place under an English Wesleyan minister, William Hammett. This took the name of the Primitive Methodists, but was short-lived. The Republican Methodists divided upon doctrinal questions, and though the organization persisted for a number of years and did considerable harm to Episcopal Methodism, it finally disappeared.

Coke and Asbury united in efforts to establish educational institutions, and in a few years gathered ten thousand pounds to found a college. Asbury and Coke divided in opinion upon this subject, the former wishing only for schools. After a few years, the college buildings were destroyed by fire, and were not rebuilt.

For three years, there was an annual decline. Then, almost in a day, the troubles seemed to disappear. Methodism constantly increased, spread into Canada and all the British provinces. But by 1804, the American preachers were withdrawn from New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia.

The colored people had early become dissatisfied with the caste prejudice, which in the city of New York forbade their taking the sacrament until the white members were served, and

in 1796 they set up a separate organization. In 1808, arrangements were made for representative government; a constitution was prepared and a delegated General Conference provided for, which met in 1812, being the successor of several preceding general conferences, yet distinguished from them by two essential peculiarities,—the former General Conference had all power, and all ministers in the connection were members by virtue of their ordination and a brief specified period of service in the ministry. Only those elected were entitled to seats in the General Conference in 1812; and that body, though having great powers, was limited at certain important points relative to the doctrines, property, and form of government of the Church by the strict terms of the constitution, which, however, provided for its own alteration by means of a joint action in separate votes by the members of the Annual Conferences and a General Conference.

While the primary purpose of Wesley was to make men religious in the most experimental, doctrinal, devotional sense, he was intensely practical, and attached as much importance to philanthropy and to education as any Christian of his or any other time. When converted to the new life, he took over with him most of the philanthropic works begun when he was seeking assurance by good works. These were now sanctified by his new faith, and related closely to the inward springs of his spiritual life, and he enforced them upon his followers.

A thorough abolitionist, he endeavored to make his followers such; an opponent of caste in every form, he tried to organize societies in which it should not show itself. He aimed to produce and maintain a state of feeling expressed by the words, "The rich and poor meet together: the Lord is the maker of them all."

In the United States, Methodism spread much more rapidly in the South than in the North. Efforts were made to enforce the stringent rules early made against slavery. Subsequently, they were accommodated in practice to the situation, and in some particulars the phraseology was changed; resulting from these things, there arose two different views in the denomination, which, materially interfering with fraternal feeling, culminated in an issue which bisected the Methodist Episcopal Church. Slavery was the predisposing, and its complication with the episcopacy the exciting, cause of the rupture. A bishop had come into the possession of slaves. The North, in various sections, was greatly excited. Some desired to make an issue, and would have deposed him, if possible. Secession had already been threatened in the North, and was actually

carried out by the withdrawing of a number of members, who in 1843 established the True Wesleyan Church. The issue raised by the personal complication of Bishop James O. Andrew with the ownership of slaves greatly agitated the Church, and, in fact, the whole country. The action of the General Conference of 1844, which sat in New York, was as follows :

"It is the sense of this conference that Bishop Andrew desist from the exercise of his office so long as this impediment remains."

Though this was intended by many in the North as a species of compromise, the Southern members maintained that it was equivalent to the trial and conviction of the bishop, and was unconstitutional and unjust.

Immediately after the adjournment of General Conference, the Southern members began preparations for a separation, which was accomplished in 1845. The conferences withdrawing associated themselves under the name of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, Bishop Soule, the senior bishop, a native of Maine, and Bishop Andrew, whose relation to slavery was the immediate occasion of the crisis, adhering to the South.

Both denominations have greatly prospered. They resemble each other in the fundamentals of Methodism, but in the more than half a century which has elapsed since they were ecclesiastically disassociated, they have undergone various modifications in no way connected with the original trouble. The Southern Church has adhered to the constitution established in 1808, but has given the bishops a veto power. The Methodist Episcopal Church has altered its constitution on various occasions, and has lately revised and added to it.

The Methodist Episcopal Church, South, introduced equal lay representation into its General Conference in 1866 ; the Methodist Episcopal Church introduced a small number of laymen into its General Conference in 1872, having made the number of lay and clerical delegates equal in 1900.

Women are not eligible as representatives in the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South ; but in the recent revision of its constitution the Methodist Episcopal Church substituted "lay member" for laymen, which is held to make women eligible.

A SUMMARY OF AMERICAN METHODISM.

When the official statistics of American Methodism are annually published, a smile is sometimes elicited by the fact that the 6,084,755 communicants are distributed among *seventeen* sects or families. Perhaps the aspect will change

when it is seen that ten of these sects added together amount to less than 1½ per cent. of the whole, and that six of the seventeen consist entirely of Afro-Americans. The African Methodist Episcopal Church reports 728,354 communicants ; the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church, 542,422 ; the Union American Methodist Episcopal Church, Colored, claims 16,500 ; the Colored Congregational Church, 319 ; the Colored Methodist Episcopal, 204,972 ; and the African Union Methodist Protestant, 2,930,—a total of a little less than 1,500,000. The two largest bodies are the Methodist Episcopal Church, with 2,801,798 communicants, and the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, with 1,518,854 communicants. The Methodist Protestant Church, with 184,097 communicants, originated in an attempt to reform the Methodist Episcopal Church. The essential issue was declared by the reformers to be a "pure and unmixed question" of representation of the laity in the Annual and General conferences. They were also strongly opposed to the episcopacy and the presiding eldership,—a sort of sub-episcopacy believed to be essential to the maintenance of the general plan of government,—whose incumbents are appointed by the bishops.

The remaining bodies, having but few members, consist of the Free Methodist Church, numbering 28,000 ; the Congregational Methodist, with 22,000 ; the Wesleyan Methodist, with 17,000 ; and the New Congregational, with 4,000.

The educational and philanthropic institutions of English Methodism are numerous, and are patronized and supported, not only by the members of the respective bodies, but by many communicants of the Established Church, by dissenting bodies, and by many persons not connected with any religious organization who are aware of the high standards of the former and the practical and unsectarian usefulness of the latter. In Canada, Methodism is thoroughly organized, liberal, highly influential, and in all respects as prosperous as in any part of the world.

In the United States, scarcely a populous State exists without a Methodist preparatory school and a prosperous college, and there are several universities under Methodist control which compare favorably with most, at least, of the more ancient institutions of the highest class.

The missions of American Methodism are found in every land, and, with one or two exceptions in regions of exceptional difficulty, are very prosperous. In addition to the primary work of making Christians, and Protestant Christians, they support orphanages, schools for children and youth, and colleges and professional schools.

It is but twenty years since American Meth-

odists turned their attention to hospitals; but such is their ardor in this philanthropic work that, including those recently projected, there are already more than fifty, the largest of which are the Methodist Episcopal Hospital of Philadelphia and the Methodist Episcopal (Seney) Hospital in the Borough of Brooklyn, New York.

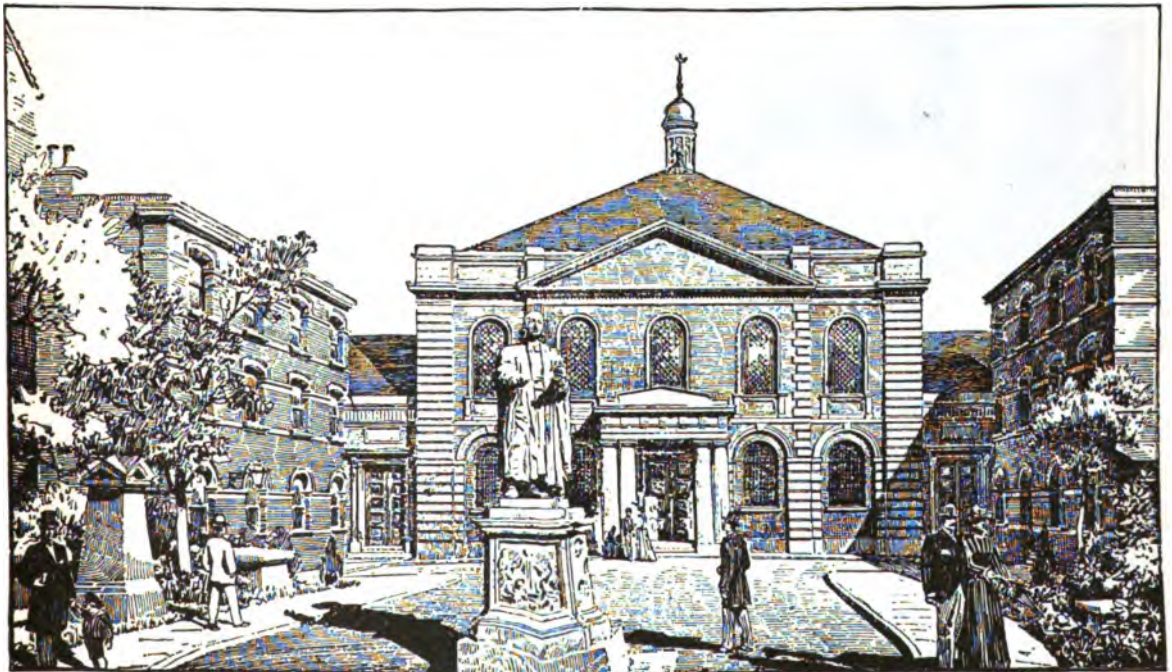
THE WORK OF THE MAN AND THE MOVEMENT.

Of the movement begun by John Wesley, the results in organized religious denominations are by no means the whole, if the major part, of the work accomplished. Its favorable influence on the Church of England and other Christian bodies is now universally acknowledged, in terms so eulogistic that were they employed by avowed adherents of the Methodist denominations springing from Wesley's labors, it would be counted boasting. It has modified the spirit and methods of every denomination, particularly in preaching, congregational singing, lay coöperation, and zeal and directness in religious assemblies. In elevating the standard of public and private morality, in promoting total abstinence, the restriction or suppression of the sale of liquors to be drunk on the premises, the protection of the Sabbath, and the suppression of lotteries and gambling, whether in saloons or on race tracks,

Methodism has been unequivocal and aggressive. Methodists of every name have been constant promoters of popular education and uncompromising defenders of the public-school system.

The Man and the Movement are one and inseparable, for there is no method or custom which peculiarly distinguished Methodists in the first century of the movement which was not originated, adopted, or adapted by John Wesley.

If, in the one hundred and seventy-five years which have passed since his public work began, men of more philosophic imagination, of greater gifts in pathetic oratory, or of more thorough scholarship may have appeared among his followers, the sentiment attributed to Henry Thomas Buckle remains true,—that the greatness of John Wesley appears in this: among them all, no man has risen so great as he. If diversity, amount, and efficiency of work, strength and permanence of moral influence, and the beneficent impression of personality,—living, dying, and historical,—be the standard of judgment, what name within the past two hundred years,—of priest, parson, minister, bishop, or philanthropist,—can rival his, who, when despised and cast out because of zeal for truth and love for all men of every race, exclaimed, "THE WORLD IS MY PARISH?"



WESLEY'S CHAPEL, CITY ROAD, LONDON.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

PETER COOPER HEWITT, INVENTOR.

THE three great achievements in electrical science which have made Mr. Hewitt famous are described by Mr. Ray Stannard Baker in the June *McClure's*. These three inventions are,—first, a new electric lamp; second, a new, cheap, and simple method of converting alternating



MR. PETER COOPER HEWITT.

electrical currents into direct currents; and, third, an electric interrupter, or valve, of special value in wireless telegraphy.

Mr. Peter Cooper Hewitt is a grandson of the famous philanthropist, Peter Cooper, and a son of the late Abram S. Hewitt, one of the most famous citizens of New York. The young inventor was born to wealth, and the fact that he has achieved so much in the face of the temptation to a life of ease and leisure makes a truly remarkable picture of inherited genius and energy. The grandfather, Peter Cooper, built the first American locomotive, and was one of the most ardent supporters of Cyrus Field in the great project of the Atlantic cable; he was also, for a score of years, the president of a cable company.

For years, Mr. Peter Cooper Hewitt was connected with his father's extensive business enterprise, being an active member in the firm of Cooper, Hewitt & Co., and he has always been prominent in the social life of New York. In fact, most of Mr. Hewitt's scientific work, of recent years, has been done after business hours. He worked for several years on the electrical investigations which resulted in his three great inventions. His laboratory, during most of these years, was hidden away in the tall tower of Madison Square Garden, overlooking Madison Square, with the roar of Broadway and Twenty-third Street coming up from the distance. When Lord Kelvin was in this country, he said that nothing interested him so much as Mr. Hewitt's work and his vacuum lamp. As the inventor is only forty-two years old now, and looks scarcely thirty-five, it is safe to look for many other discoveries from his trained and indefatigable brain.

Mr. Baker explains in some detail the three inventions by which Mr. Hewitt's name has become known to science. The last, the electric interrupter, is of a peculiarly timely nature, as it goes far to solve the problem before Mr. Marconi and the other wireless telegraphers of keeping their aerial messages secret. By the use of this interrupter, the transmission of powerful and persistent electrical waves is produced with scientific accuracy. The apparatus is not only cheap, light, and simple, but is also a great saver of electrical power. The trouble has been, in wireless telegraphy, that it was difficult to keep the sending and receiving instruments attuned. The Hewitt interrupter accomplishes this.

WHEN SHALL WE FLY?

SEVERAL flying-machines have been constructed which, so far as their power to fly is concerned, leave little or nothing to be desired. The crux of the matter is not only for the flying-machine to be able to raise itself, but to keep its balance in the air and enable the aeronaut to descend in safety. The *Edinburgh Review* for April contains an article on human flight which is very interesting, although not very much calculated to encourage our expectations of the conquest of the air. Science, says the reviewer, authoritatively pronounces the problem to be soluble. "It is almost certain," says the reviewer, "that the first experimenters will not live to tell their tale." He quotes Mr. Wells'



PROF. S. P. LANGLEY.

expression of opinion that the cost of the conquest of the air will be greater than that of the greatest war that has ever devastated the world. "Yet," says the reviewer, "we do not doubt that it will one day be achieved, if only because the empire of the world lies at the feet of the man who constructs an air-ship that can be converted into a really efficient engine of war."

LANGLEY'S LAW.

The fundamental proposition on which the construction of flying-machines must be based is known as Langley's law, from the name of its discoverer. This law is somewhat paradoxical, for it maintains that the faster you move through the air the less energy is needed to keep you going. Hence, there is no bar to the construction of a flying-machine which will rival our express trains in speed and will carry a large number of passengers. The flying-machine of the future will be more like the steamship than like the bird, and will keep itself afloat, as well as travel, by means of its motor power. The great difficulty is the question of balance. It is analogous to the difficulty which would be found in riding a bicycle over a surface which was constantly in motion, like the waves of the sea.

THE TUMULT OF THE AIR.

The "internal work" of the wind, as the professor calls it, is very complex. Even when the

wind seems steadiest, it is always variable and irregular in its movements, beyond anything which can be anticipated. Even the smallest portion of an air current has no homogeneous parts. It consists of an exceedingly complex tangle of tiny and diverse currents. The stronger and apparently uniform the wind is, the greater are its fluctuations. In a high wind, the velocity varies every moment, from forty miles an hour down to a dead calm. Birds know how to utilize these fluctuations, and a turkey buzzard will hover motionless in the teeth of a gale blowing thirty-five miles an hour. Birds and insects, which are both heavier than the air which they displace, keep themselves up either by soaring or flapping; both the processes depend upon the axiom that the air is a solid if you hit it hard enough. The laws of flight are to be discovered in the behavior of soaring birds. For thousands of years they have completely mastered the art which man hopes one day to apply to the construction of a flying-machine. From Darwin's description of the soaring of condors, there is not the least vibratory movement either in the wings or in the feathers of the wings. The head and neck were moved frequently and with force. When the bird rises, it drops, and the rapid descent, like that of a car of a switchback railway, sends it upward the moment there is an alteration in the angle which the wing makes to the air current.

CASTRO: A LATIN-AMERICAN TYPE.

IT is only as the rapid rise of the Venezuelan president illustrates conditions in more than one of the Latin-American republics that his career becomes interesting. This, at any rate, is the point of view adopted by Mr. Stephen Bonsal in his contribution to the *North American Review* for May. The story of this "uncouth adventurer," as Mr. Bonsal remarks, is neither new nor unusual. It is a common enough occurrence for some brigand chief in one or another of the South American republics to proclaim himself dictator; but among these adventurers, as Mr. Bonsal admits, Castro enjoys a certain distinction. He has courage and ability—two commodities that have been rather conspicuous by their absence from the make-up of most recent South American dictators. Castro has ambition for "real power and an authority not confined to Venezuela or to Colombia."

Castro is forty-five years of age, and has been in public life about ten years. He began as Senator in the federal congress from the Andine state of El Tachira. He was a failure in that capacity, and after his return to his own



PRESIDENT CASTRO, OF VENEZUELA.

people his cattle were confiscated for taxes, and the Senator himself headed a revolt against the government of the province. He was soon proclaimed president of El Tachira, and plotters against the government of Andrade at Caracas invited him to march on the federal capital with his sturdy Andinos. Castro started on this enterprise with only eighty men. It was a long ride to Caracas, and there was much wilderness fighting on the way, of which Mr. Bonsal can tell us little; but somehow the government forces, consisting of six thousand well-armed men, were prevailed upon to join the Castro standard, and the upshot was that the ambitious Andino was installed in the "Yellow House" at Caracas before the "revolution" had been taken seriously by the outside world.

IN THE PRESIDENCY.

Of Castro's subsequent career, better known to the newspaper-reading public, Mr. Bonsal says:

"Not a week passed before the members of the military junta awakened to the fact that in pushing forward the unsophisticated savage from the Andes they had brought to light one of the ablest and most unscrupulous of the many banditti that Venezuelan political life has produced. They have all long since paid the penalty of their imprudence. Of his private life, I will say nothing, except that the feudal lords of old claimed over the souls and bodies of their serfs no right which the dictator does not exercise daily over the people of his unfortunate land. I must also note, in passing, the physical phenomenon that, despite the enervating debauchery in

which his days and nights are spent, whenever the critical moment presents itself, Castro has up to the present been able to meet it with a clear mind and unflagging energy. He has surrounded himself with new men, principally recruited from the Andine provinces, his old cronies and *compadres*, and with other stray adventurers, such as another Mendoza who obliged him with a mule on a certain stage of his adventurous ride, and who is now secretary of the treasury, and the stout barber of Valencia, a breezy gossip, who is at present the chief of the dictator's military house. Whether it be the personal fascination of the man, as some say, or the dread he has always inspired by his bloody revenges, it is certain that those he has taken into his confidence have for the most part stood by him steadfastly in dark days as well as bright."

HOW GOVERNMENT MONEY WAS SPENT.

It is often said that the debts of Venezuela for which foreigners have demanded payment were incurred by Castro's predecessors, and this is true; but it by no means follows that the Castro administration has been without the means to pay them, if it desired to do so. This is Mr. Bonsal's statement of the facts:

"Within six months after his seizure of power, Castro had a surplus of many millions at his disposal; the use he made of them is significant. No attempt was made to meet any of the foreign claims, or to pay interest on those which had been adjudicated. When one remembers how badly they had fared when the treasury was full, one may perhaps find the explanation of the attack that was made by the creditor nations upon the coffers last December, when they were empty.

"With the millions that rolled in from the custom-houses, Castro equipped an army of eight thousand men, which he sent into Colombia, ostensibly to support one of the many adventurers who were fighting for the presidency there. His real purpose was, of course, to secure such a strong position in the neighboring republic as to make it easy for him to impose the federation, which is only the first step in his dream of conquest. On this expedition, he sent but few of his Andinos; these he needed at home. Artisans and laborers were torn from their families to fill up the necessary quota. A man went to his work in the morning and never returned. With banners flying and drums beating, the expedition started on the long road to Bogota. Once in Colombia, they met with defeat, and were compelled to fall back across the Guajira peninsula, a retreat which Castro may well call

his Moskowa. Out of provisions, and struck down by sickness and poisoned arrows, harassed day and night by the Indians who infest the savage recesses of this land, who crucified every straggler or prisoner that fell into their hands, of the eight thousand who marched away so bravely, only four hundred broken-down men ever reached their native land again.

"Despite this fiasco, Castro, believing as he does that his 'star is greater than Napoleon's,' has not given up his plan of conquest in Colombia. Large sums of money that would go far to pay the foreign debt are being used by him to debauch Colombian politicians and to pay his spies. His friends in Bogota to-day are not in a majority; but it is quite certain that all the influence he wields is being exerted against the ratification of the treaty under which we secure the privilege of cutting the Panama Canal at our own expense. Curious whirligig of politics! Our protégé at Caracas is our opponent in Bogota."

THE IRISH LAND BILL UNDER FIRE.

AFTER the universal chorus of approval with which Mr. Wyndham's land bill has been received by landlords, tenants, and politicians, it is indeed a change to turn to the article which Mr. W. O'Connor Morris has contributed to the *Nineteenth Century*. The woe which is pronounced



KATHLEEN: "Ooh! go on wid yer, Balfy; ye're foolin' me."
From Judy (London).

upon those of whom all people speak well need no longer be dreaded by Mr. Wyndham, for Mr. O'Connor Morris has pronounced upon the bill a malediction so comprehensive and so savage that it can only be compared to the curses showered upon the Jackdaw of Rheims. He tells us it is an elaborate scheme of ingenious but pernicious agrarian quackery, pregnant with many and far-reaching national evils. Its cruelty is not much worse than its kindness, it is based on an utterly immoral principle; it is rank with corruption from beginning to end; it is a huge plan of spoliation, to be carried out at the cost and risk of the taxpayer through a system of bribery without a parallel. It will bring to Ireland, not peace, but a sword. It will make the Irish land system worse, and Ireland a more troubled chaos. It will produce a bitter land war, and will probably throw back many parts of Ireland into the condition in which they were before the great famine.

THE PERILS OF LAND PURCHASE.

Every Nationalist believes it will quicken the home rule movement. It must strengthen the demand for compulsory purchase, and may thus lead to a confiscation alike wholesale and disgraceful. "Land purchase" has been to a great extent a failure; thousands of those who have purchased are worthless and bankrupt farmers fallen into the hands of bank managers or of local Shylocks, who have neglected drainage and cut down trees, sublet and mortgaged their farms to such an extent that, in place of the old dual ownership, they have evolved double, treble, and fourfold ownership. "Land purchase" establishes against landlords a false measure of rent analogous to a base coinage, it divides the occupiers of the soil into a disfavored multitude, and whatever good it may do on a purchased estate, it stirs up trouble on an unpurchased estate: it is like one of the old fireships driven into a fleet to shed havoc around. Of this particular bill, Mr. Morris says: "It forces up the existing value of land from eighteen years' purchase to twenty-three, or even twenty-five. The measure is one of double-sided corruption; the millions of the poor taxpayers are to be bled in order to lavish doles on Irish landlords, and to reduce the rent of Irish farms by 60 per cent. below what they were paying in 1881. The notion that the £12,000,000 bribe could only cost the exchequer £140,000 a year is a mere chimera."

SEED OF A DEADLY HARVEST.

This unsparing critic of the bill ridicules the idea that the purchasers will pay their installments, and suggests that some wet day a mani-

festos will appear forbidding the purchasers to pay a shilling until home rule has "been wrung from an alien government." Even if that does not take place, a "land war" will spring up in many parts of Ireland, caused by this destructive policy.

In conclusion, Mr. Morris declares that his rental has been raised, not lowered, through the legislation of the last few years. He has been a land reformer all his life, he denounced the Encumbered Estates Act half a century ago, as he denounced the ruinous legislation of 1881, and every prediction he made has been verified. He now asserts, with profound conviction, that should this measure become law, it will certainly prove disastrous and have a calamitous end. It is political quackery of the very worst kind, disseminating corruption by shameless bribes. It is deceitful, treacherous, and pernicious.

Payment by Tenants Precarious.

Professor Beesly writes in the *Positivist Review* for May upon the Irish land bill. He says that he would not grudge paying £112,000,000 if by paying it England could get rid of Ireland as completely and finally as she got rid of the American colonies in 1783. He ridicules the idea that the Irish will continue paying their installments for sixty-eight years, and reminds us that Mr. Gladstone's scheme of land purchase was to be carried out in three years, whereas Mr. Wyndham's is spread over fifteen. Landlords have been selling their land, under the Land Purchase Act of 1896, at eighteen years' purchase; under the new bill, they will receive from twenty-five to thirty-two years' purchase. Mr. Gladstone, in 1886, offered them twenty years' purchase of the judicial rents, and the repayment was to be complete in forty-nine years, the installments being 20 per cent. less than the judicial rent.

How It Will Work.

Blackwood for May has a paper, signed "Amhas," on Mr. Wyndham's Bill. "Amhas" approves of the bill as a whole, and points out that it is on lines suggested by "Maga." He sums up its probable effects as follows:

"In the first place, voluntary sale by the great landlords is not contemplated by them. The smaller and poorer owners will be glad to sell; the rich will not. The bill will cause a disappearance of squireens as landlords, though they may remain on their demesnes. It will not unify the tenure of land; for, in addition to landlords and tenants, who will still employ the diminished Land Court to settle rents, there will be large farmers and smaller owners who have bought

under existing law, and there will be new tenants established by the new land commissioners and many others who will hold under the new act by direct agreement with their old landlords.

THE DANGER OF "THE LAW'S DELAY."

"There are interests assailed which will tell against the bill. Lawyers will suffer from its summary and cheap procedure. Land commissioners will fear that their occupation is gone. Laborers will expect less employment than ever. But, above all, land agents, who have already seen that they are doomed, and have demanded compensation by the state, may fight against land purchase. It is not enough to allow them to be agents for the sale, because that is a final task. Some agents are solicitors; some are themselves landlords; some, who manage the large estates, have already exerted their influence against any sale,—the last class will be little affected; the lawyers will get little pity; the small landlords, who act as agents to one another, have got their bonus. This agitation, therefore, will fail; but it may lead to great delay. The landlord might first be advised not to sell; then the investigation of his position, with respect to title, incumbrances, and superior interests, might drag out the time. It has taken sometimes more than twelve years to arrange a sale when both landlord and tenants were willing. Then, unless the commissioners are called in, there might be an endless haggling as to price; for which reason it seems that voluntary agreements will not really be the large majority, but that the commissioners will find their work constantly increasing. After agreement as to price of purchase is reached, the operation of the bill is swift and simple; but it does not give power to the tenants to force on a sale, and delays can only be prevented by the agents being willing to help the measure."

Alleged Fatal Flaws.

Lord Monteaule, in the *Nineteenth Century*, follows up the paper of Judge O'Connor Morris by recapitulating the recent history of the question, after which he criticises the bill in his accustomed manner. He thinks the bonus is too small. Twenty millions would have bridged the gulf and secured finality and appealed to the Irish imagination. He objects to the retention by the state of one-eighth of the purchase money in the form of a permanent rent charge. He also criticises adversely the exclusion of the larger tenants. Farms with a total rental of two and one-half millions are excluded from the bill, while farms with a total rental of four millions are included. The exclusion of the larger

farms may, in many cases, prevent the sale of whole estates. Unless the system of exclusions is got rid of in some way or other, it will be impossible to get universal abolition of dual ownership.

THE RISE OF THE GERMAN NAVY.

IN an important article in the first April number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Lockroy relates the history of the evolution of the German fleet. It is, as he justly observes, a remarkable story of the surmounting of apparently insurmountable obstacles, due to the obstinate determination of the monarch, aided by the patriotism and the energy of a great people. The German fleet is already a menace and a danger to the British fleet, and its ambition is to become, in the future, more powerful than the French fleet.

Germany is not naturally a sea power, but the enterprise of her people, guided by the Hohenzollern dynasty, and assisted, it must be admitted, by the progress of science in the practical applications of steam and electricity, has transformed a small defensive force into a navy which shows the German flag in all quarters of the globe and is quite capable of taking the offensive. But it was not the question of sea-ports, nor the insignificant extent of the German coast line, which proved the greatest difficulty in the past. It is too often forgotten that *personnel* is, after all, the most important factor, and M. Lockroy's account of how Germany availed herself, at first, of mercenaries for her navy is extremely interesting. He compares the part they played with that of the Swiss troops in France. Gradually, Germany organized her own naval *personnel*. M. Lockroy says that the true history of the German fleet begins in 1848, and he does justice to the work of Prince Adalbert of Prussia in directing the movement for a powerful navy. Prince Adalbert had lived long in England, where he had learned many lessons. Later on, Prince Bismarck was the first to hold out to the infant navy the prospect of taking the offensive, which he did in a speech in the Reichstag in which he passionately opposed the policy of von Moltke, who wished to leave only a subordinate rôle to the fleet.

ENGLAND'S BLUNDER HELPS TO BUILD UP GERMANY'S NAVY.

The more modern history of the German fleet is well known. Admiral Tirpitz exhibited marvellous boldness, combined with tact, in dealing with the Reichstag, always unwilling to vote the

necessary supplies. It is interesting to note that M. Lockroy attaches great importance to the amazing blunder committed by the British Government, during the South African war, in seizing the German merchant ships *Bundesrath* and *Herzog* on suspicion of carrying munitions of war to the Boers. This incident was utilized to the full by the German Government to bring home to the German nation the absolute necessity for a strong fleet; and, in M. Lockroy's opinion, it enabled Admiral Tirpitz to obtain the sanction of the Reichstag for his programme. In conclusion, M. Lockroy describes in vivid terms the almost passionate patriotism of the German naval officers and men, and the supreme intelligence with which this feeling of patriotism is fostered in every possible way in the training both of cadets and recruits.

IF FRANCE SHOULD INVADE ENGLAND.

THE *Fortnightly Review* for May opens with a long contribution by "Vates" professing to give the "Reminiscences of Sir Thomas Halway, Bart.," of the French invasion of England in 1905. The article is written, obviously, not to stir up animosities, but to warn England of the possible result of her present policy in regard to the army. That is, the policy, not of the present government, but of all British governments; for when General de Mauve landed with his army corps in the eastern counties a Liberal government was in power.

A DISPLACEMENT OF EMPERORS.

Many things had happened since 1903. The British army had been reduced to what it was before the Boer war, and there was a citizen army for home defense, "inspired by local zeal." Abroad, Prince Napoleon had emerged from his obscurity in Russia, and had become the Emperor Napoleon IV. of the French. Still more startling things had happened in Germany. The Kaiser, tired of sermons, uniforms, and biblical controversy, had set out for Vienna in a dirigible balloon, which came to grief in the Danube, the whole party, it was believed, being drowned. In the government of the new Kaiser, all offices were held by men who secretly longed for a combination with France and Russia against England.

HOW WAR BROKE OUT.

War broke out suddenly. The Russians were admitted into Herat, and Russian troops poured into northern Afghanistan. War was declared against Russia after a short controversy. Turkey and Germany objected to the British passing the

Dardanelles; and as France and Germany insisted that any blockade must be effective, England was obliged to send a large fleet into the Baltic. Her fleets, however, were able to do little against Russia; and when she wished to strengthen her far Eastern position, it happened that three French merchantmen heavily laden with stones were sunk in the Suez Canal. So far, France and Germany had been neutral. But shortly occurred the remarkable incident of the breaking of all cables, leaving no communication with the Continent except through Germany and France. Germany was stopped from declaring war by the London police discovering a plot for all German reservists to rendezvous round Woolwich and destroy the arsenal. The French Government declared its pacific intention to carry out maneuvers in the North Sea; and a great flotilla set sail from the French ports, which carried, unknown to the British, a large army for the invasion of England. The French ambassador presented his letters of recall during the absence of Lord Rosebery from London; and next day the French had landed in England.

THE INVASION.

The first body of French troops landed by night, near the lighthouse at Spurn Head, which they captured, cutting the telegraph lines to Hull; and a few hundred men with motor cycles moved swiftly along the roads and entered Hull, captured the electric tramway system before any one knew anything had happened, and caught a detachment of Royal Artillery in their beds. The telegraph wires all round were cut, and the French cyclists rode out into the country, capturing all local arms. A great fleet of river steamers went up to Goole, and other boats were sent up the Trent and the Weighton Canal, and captured or destroyed the whole mechanism of communications in the surrounding districts. The chief novelty about the French method of attack, indeed, is that they employ all the canals and inland waterways for moving their troops rapidly, and for cutting off communication with southern England. Among their other successes, they capture the Prince of Wales at a country-house. The chief invasion, however, was in Lincolnshire, the French landing along forty miles of protected coast. The invaders came without horses; but they captured the trains, forced the local authorities to send in all horses and cycles, and succeeded, almost before any one knew of the invasion, in disarming the whole country as far as the Witham. A second army corps came in with the rising tide and took the places vacated by the first. Before news of this reached London, telegrams were received to the effect that

torpedo-boat attacks had been made in all the undefended ports of the Channel, and when news came from the north it was at first supposed that the invasion was merely a raid meant to distract attention from a proposed landing in the south.

DISASTER.

The nation showed its usual patriotism; but it was quite incapable of coping with the invaders. The British generals had under them, as members of their staffs, men who barely knew one another by sight. The French covered their front with lines of skirmishers, and, in the absence of cavalry, the British were unable to ascertain their position or movements, and the battle, when it came, ended in the total defeat of the British.

"Our right had been extended to Teigh, and also to Market Overton, across the river, with a post watching the direct road from Grantham. It was intended that the troops arriving by successive trains at the stations from Stamford to Ashwell should be formed into a division to meet any attack by the direct road from Grantham. Soon after the enemy's guns began firing, our own artillery at Market Overton and Teigh made an attempt to reply, but they were hopelessly inferior to the enemy's artillery, which they had great difficulty in locating. The troops on whom the French artillery first fired were, because of the misunderstanding I have named, facing to the rear. It was necessary to get them out of the artillery fire at once, but as a consequence of all the causes I have named, first of all the greatest disorder prevailed, and a few of the hangers-on of the camp began a hurried flight to the rear. This soon communicated itself to the troops that were facing the same way and getting out of the artillery fire. Before long, a body of the enemy's infantry, seeing the confusion and the flight, pushed forward from between the two ridges in which Saxby lies. A few gallant men attempted to oppose them, but they were outflanked, outnumbered, and the enemy poured in. The panic soon spread; and before we were well aware of it, the whole force was in full retreat, a retreat which was every moment threatening to become utterly disorderly."

PEACE.

After this, the writer describes his conversations with General de Mauve, the French commander, who describes how the French flotilla of transports was largely built in England, and who tells him that the so-called lessons of the Boer war have been England's undoing. Salvation from the invaders finally came when the British admiral returned from the Baltic and

caught the French flotilla with a third army corps and destroyed it utterly. Finally, peace is made with France, the French march back, nominally as prisoners of war, but retaining all their arms and artillery. The German Emperor, it appears, had not been drowned at all; he had been lying ill on an island in the Danube. Russia, knowing that the resurrected Kaiser would not approve of the policy of his son's ministers, made peace, and the war ended without any very decisive change having taken place. All of which is merely "Vates'" rather roundabout way of demanding a professional army and pointing out the folly of England's present military system.

THE FRENCH RELIGIOUS PROTECTORATE.

IN the *Revue de Paris* is a curious paper discussing the exact position of those powers who have undertaken the thorny task of protecting the Christian subjects of the Sultan. The two great powers most concerned are France and Russia, and the writer, who is apparently himself a Roman Catholic priest, goes very thoroughly into the question of what may be called the French religious protectorate. It will probably surprise even those deeply interested in the subject to learn that during the last two hundred years France considered herself entitled, not only to protect her own subjects and those belonging to the Roman Catholic religion, but also all non-Mussulmans in the Ottoman Empire.

Long after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the French Protestant colony of Constantinople was directly protected by the French embassy, as were also the many Italian Jews who had settled in the city. Stranger still, from the sixteenth century, both the Jesuits and the Capuchins had houses at Constantinople, their object being to missionize, not the Mussulmans, but the many schismatic sects which had found refuge there. The French ambassador was considered so powerful that he was constantly appealed to, not only by the Roman Catholics, but by the heads of the Greek Church, and France again and again seems to have interfered on behalf of the unfortunate Armenians. Early in the last century, the other powers became aware that, from a political point of view, the Christian protectorate in Turkey was of importance. Accordingly, Austria put in a claim to share the same privileges, a claim which Russia had tried ineffectually to put forward in 1710, when Peter the Great calmly suggested that the keys of the Holy Sepulchre should be taken from the French religious and handed to a com-

CATHOLICS IN THE LEVANT UNDER FRENCH PROTECTION.

After the congress held in 1878, France, Russia, and England arranged, or at any rate suggested, a triple protection. We all know what this collective effort has resulted in, and how Turkey has fulfilled her promises. At the present time, France remains the active defender of those who owe religious allegiance to the Pope. All over the Levant, all the Roman Catholic establishments—churches, convents, seminaries, schools, hospitals—are directly under French authority; in other words, the various French consuls have all sorts of rights over them, and should they make themselves amenable to civil law, they are represented and defended before the Ottoman tribunals by French lawyers. The only exception to this may be found in Albania, and in certain parts of Macedonia, where Austria exercises the same privileges. Of course, the writer of this paper desires to prove that the French Government is making a great mistake by its home anti-clerical campaign, considering the importance attached to the position of France as a Christian power in the near East.

THE RUSSIAN "STUNDISTS."

ONE of the outgrowths of the disturbed conditions that resulted from the emancipation of the Russian serfs was the spread of the "Stundist" movement. Both the political and the religious phases of this Russian schism are portrayed by Dr. I. A. Hourwich in the *Arena* for May. The cult was introduced in the Czar's dominions by the German Baptists, whose teachings rapidly spread from village to village all over southern Russia, under the name of "Stundism" (from the German *Stunde*—"hour"—meaning the hour of reading the Gospel). According to Dr. Hourwich, these new teachings met with reverent acceptance from the first.

"For the first time, the Bible reached the Russian people in their native tongue; the Bible used in the orthodox Russian Church is in the 'Church Slavonic'—i.e., in ancient Bulgarian, not easily intelligible to the mass of the people. It was the first book that came to the people, and it gave them a philosophy of life and social relations. It gave them a new interest in life; drink, the only relaxation of a human beast of burden, lost all attraction for the regenerated peasants; mutual aid and coöperation, preached by the new religion, contributed their share to the improvement of their material condition.

AS A POLITICAL MOVEMENT.

"Had the government let them alone, the Stundist movement would probably have remained confined within the field of evangelical work. This, however, was impossible—the Church, like the police, being a state institution. Apostasy from the established church is rebellion against the powers that be. The orthodox priests, aided by the police and the courts, entered upon a vigorous campaign of persecution, with the result that the Stundist movement is now repeating the course of the Reformation in England,—purely religious nonconformity is developing into political and social radicalism.

"From association with their foreign brethren, the Russian Baptists gained some knowledge of the political institutions of other countries where the state does not interfere with the religious beliefs of its citizens. The revolutionary agitation of the seventies and the eighties, though confined to the educated classes in the great cities, awakened among the Stundist peasants an interest in political questions. They sought information upon the live problems of the day in secular books and the periodical press. To-day, the naive ignorance of the rustics is gone; one meets among their representative men the same comprehension of political and social problems, and the same schools of thought, as among the 'intelliguentzia' (the college-bred class). There are among them moderate liberals, with whom the paramount issue is the separation of the Church from the state and a constitutional government, as a guarantee of religious and civil liberty. There are followers of Henry George—whose ideas, by the way, had been anticipated by the Russian 'Land and Liberty Society' in the seventies; the priority of that revolutionary society is acknowledged in George's 'Progress and Poverty.' There are Christian Socialists who remind one of Mayor Jones, of Toledo. There are those who believe in revolutionary action, some even going so far as to justify the acts of the Terrorists.

EFFECT OF LABOR AGITATION.

"This fact is of the greatest significance to the coming political development of Russia. Heretofore, opposition to autocracy was confined to the great cities, while the government was backed by the passive support of an ignorant peasantry. The development of political aspirations among the Stundists brings into the ranks of the opposition the most intelligent class of the Russian peasantry, whose influence is spreading in spite of persecution. The labor movement, which came upon the wave of industrial expan-

sion in the last decade of the last century, and the spread of socialism among the workers of the cities, have had the support of the Stundists, who are numerous in all southern towns. The current from the country to the city, which is characteristic of all modern nations, gains additional force in Russia from her long winters; there is a vast class of peasants who seek temporary employment in the city and return to the country for the farming season. In the absence of a free press and of the privacy of the mails, these workers are so many 'walking delegates' of political agitation, too numerous to be spotted out by the most watchful police.

"A handful of 'Nihilists,' recruited from among the college-bred class, could easily be exterminated,—the Baptists cannot be exterminated. The demand for religious and political liberty is growing among the masses of the Russian people, from whom the soldiery are recruited; hence, the day may come when the army can no longer be relied upon to suppress the agitation for popular government."

FINANCING THE NATION.

A NUMBER of interesting figures about the finances of the United States, and the way in which revenue is raised and disbursed, are given by Mr. Frank Bryant in the *June Success*. The people have in their possession now about two billion three hundred and fifty million dollars, or \$29.34 for every person. Seven years ago, the *per capita* circulation was \$21.10, and at the beginning of the Civil War it was \$13.85. In Great Britain, the corresponding figure is \$18.29; and in Germany, \$19.92. In supplying the country with currency, seven assay offices, five mints, and a great printing office are kept busy. The assay offices are at New York, Charlotte, St. Louis, Boise City, Deadwood, Helena, and Seattle; the mints are at Philadelphia, New Orleans, Denver, and San Francisco. All the paper money is made in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, at Washington.

THE OUTPUT OF CURRENCY.

"Three thousand people are kept busy under the shadow of the Washington Monument keeping the country supplied with new paper money, postage stamps, and internal-revenue stamps. The present daily output of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, which, like the new mint at Philadelphia, ranks as the finest institution of its kind in the world, is one hundred and thirty-six thousand sheets of silver and gold certificates and United States notes, twenty-five thousand to fifty thousand sheets of national

bank currency, two hundred and fifteen thousand to two hundred and fifty thousand sheets of internal-revenue stamps, and fifteen to twenty million postage stamps. Last year, there were one hundred and sixteen million seven hundred thousand pieces of new paper money issued, of an aggregate value of four hundred and sixty-six million eight hundred thousand dollars, or one-fifth of the entire national circulation. The silver certificates are one dollar, two dollars, and five dollars; the United States notes, ten dollars only; while the gold certificates, as stated, range from twenty dollars to ten thousand dollars. The demand is for notes of the small denominations. In 1890, there were thirty-seven million pieces of government paper issued, of the average value of six dollars and sixty-one cents; last year, the quantity had been trebled, and the average value had fallen to four dollars. The average value is now only three dollars and sixty-two cents. The actual increase in the paper currency, last year, was seventy-six million dollars. The number of coins struck at the mints was one hundred and ninety-one millions, of the value of ninety-five million dollars, of which sixty-two million dollars were gold. The Philadelphia mint handles the gold received at New York, the San Francisco mint the output of the Pacific coast and Alaska, while the new mint at Denver will receive the product of the central West."

THE COST OF RUNNING OUR GOVERNMENT.

"This year, the expenditures will be about six hundred and fifty-one million dollars, including one hundred and thirty-two million dollars for the postal service, which is nearly self-sustaining. The revenues will amount to about six hundred and ninety-four million dollars, leaving a surplus of forty-three million dollars. Last year's surplus was ninety-one million dollars, of which some seventy millions were used in the redemption of government securities. The heaviest item in our national expenditure is the pension account, which now amounts to one hundred and thirty-eight million dollars a year, or nearly four hundred thousand dollars a day. On the army, this year, we shall spend one hundred and thirty million dollars; on the navy, eighty-five millions. The civil establishment will cost one hundred and twenty-six millions. To the Indians we shall give thirteen millions. The interest on the public debt will be twenty-seven million dollars."

HOW THE MONEY IS SPENT.

"It is interesting to note how some of the six hundred and fifty million dollars is spent. The

House of Representatives costs us three million dollars a year, and the Senate one million four hundred thousand dollars, while the public printing office uses more than six millions. The executive office calls for only one hundred and twelve thousand dollars, a bagatelle compared with the four millions England gives the royal family. On foreign intercourse, we spend two million seven hundred thousand dollars, but consular fees and other receipts cut this figure to a million less. In the Treasury Department, the customs service costs, including the revenue-cutter service, nine millions; the collection of the internal revenue, four million six hundred thousand dollars; the lighthouse establishment calls for four millions; the life-saving service for one million seven hundred thousand dollars; the engraving and printing works, two million six hundred thousand dollars. The pay of the army is thirty-seven million dollars; the quartermaster's department uses thirty-two million dollars; guns cost eleven million dollars; the expenditures on rivers, harbors, and forts, sixteen million dollars; the pay of the navy is fifteen million dollars; the cost of new vessels, twenty million dollars."

THE SOURCES OF PUBLIC INCOME.

"Nearly all the public income is collected from two sources,—customs and internal revenue. This year, the customs duties will amount to three hundred million dollars, and the internal-revenue taxes to two hundred and twenty-two million dollars. From a score of miscellaneous sources, forty million dollars more will be collected, the principal item being some ten million dollars of profit on the coinage of silver. Two great corps of revenue-collectors, maintained at an annual cost of nearly fifteen million dollars, gather the moneys due the Government from Key West to Bering Sea. Special agents scour the country for smugglers, moonshiners, and other evaders of the revenue laws, and hardly a year goes by without at least one government officer losing his life in running down moonshiners. Some of the Government's income is derived from peculiar sources. Sundry persons donated to the United States, last year, two hundred and eighty-eight dollars; persons unknown, to relieve their consciences, sent anonymous communications to the Treasury with inclosures amounting to \$35,868.22. Bribes offered to government officers and by them turned into the Treasury amounted to \$612.91. Seamen's wages, unclaimed for six years, reverted to the Treasury to the extent of \$9,803.13."

Thus, it appears that Uncle Sam's miscellaneous receipts are not to be despised.

THE COST OF COLLECTION.

"To collect the customs costs eight million dollars a year; to gather the internal revenue, four million six hundred thousand dollars; or, to collect a dollar of customs costs a trifle more than three cents, while the cost of collecting a dollar of internal revenue is a little less than one and three-quarter cents. The great customs port is New York, which turns into the Treasury duties amounting to one hundred and seventy million dollars a year, not far from a third of the entire expenditure of the Government outside the postal service. The collection of customs at New York employs twenty-two hundred persons, and the cost of collecting a dollar is one and nine-tenths cents. This low record is equaled at Chicago, where import duties of nearly ten million dollars are collected. The great internal-revenue town is Peoria, Ill., the center of the bourbon whiskey distillery district. The Government's revenue-collections there amount to thirty-one million dollars, or more than enough to pay the interest on the public debt. Only nineteen men are employed to collect this tax, and the cost of collecting a dollar is but four-tenths of a cent. Among the two hundred or more towns designated as 'ports of entry' for the collection of customs, there are many that do not receive enough money to pay their running expenses. At Cherrystone, Va., last year, the Government spent nearly a thousand dollars to collect two dollars; at La Crosse, Wis., it cost three hundred and sixty dollars to collect five dollars; at Albemarle, N. C., one thousand seven hundred dollars were paid to collect two dollars; and at Teche, La., three thousand dollars were required to collect forty-five dollars. Nearly fifty revenue ports are unprofitable to the Government, but they must be kept manned to prevent smuggling."

A NEW CURRENCY PLAN.

OF the various methods proposed for retiring the greenbacks and providing an elastic currency, one of the most interesting and suggestive is the scheme elaborated by Mr. Alexander Purves, the treasurer of Hampton Institute, in the *Bankers' Magazine* (New York). It is impossible even to summarize the technical features of this proposed system; we must content ourselves with a brief *résumé* of the advantages sought by its originator, supplemented by his statement of the practical *modus operandi* of the machinery to be called into existence by the plan, in the meantime referring our readers to the *Bankers' Magazine* for details.

The author of these suggestions has had two objects especially in view,—(1) retiring permanently the United States notes, and (2) utilizing the credit of the federal government in such a manner that the people at large may be benefited.

GOVERNMENT LOANS TO COUNTIES.

"To accomplish this, it is proposed that by a gradual process the Government shall sell its interest-bearing bonds, so securing a supply of gold which, when added to the special gold reserve in the division of issue and redemption, will furnish funds for the complete retirement of the United States notes, and then, by lending its credit to its conservative communities upon deposits of county bonds bearing a low rate of interest (issued under certain restrictions and limitations, as hereinafter particularly set forth), use such deposits of county bonds as the basis for an issue of currency to take the place of the present issue of greenbacks. At the same time, it is proposed to make certain provisions whereby the banks may be enabled to furnish a limited additional amount of currency, of an elastic character, without making too radical a change in the present laws, and also to embody certain desirable revisions in the existing system along lines somewhat similar to what has already been suggested in that direction.

"It must ever be borne in mind that the United States notes are promises to pay; that they were not issued with the idea that they should be continued in circulation beyond the time when the Government should be in a position, financially, to redeem them; and that they are in reality an unliquidated debt of the United States. The aim, therefore, should be to accomplish the complete retirement of the issue at the smallest possible cost compatible with safety and sound finance.

"Realizing that an issue of interest-bearing bonds with which to pay off the non-interest-bearing demand obligations would meet with strong opposition from many quarters, by reason of the resulting increase in the annual interest charge to be paid out of the public revenue, it becomes necessary, in case the selling of interest-bearing bonds be an important feature of the plan, to make provision whereby an increase in revenue may be secured from entirely new sources with which to meet the interest on the bonds sold so long as they run, and to provide a fund for the final redemption thereof without burdening the federal government therewith."

WHAT STATES WOULD BE BENEFITED.

After outlining the specific features of the plan, several of which are modifications of those em-

bodied in the Aldrich bill, Mr. Purves proceeds to show how the different sections of the country would be affected by its provisions. He says :

"Upon consideration of the probable operations of the plan, it will be found that the most direct advantage to be gained thereunder, by reason of the opportunity of securing public loans at an abnormally low rate of interest, would accrue to the Southern and Western agricultural States. To them particularly should the plan appeal ; and while it is probable that the counties of the Eastern and Middle States can, without the assistance of the general government, borrow funds at a favorable rate of interest, and so fail to be especially attracted by the borrowing features of the plan, they should, nevertheless, by reason of their immense commercial, manufacturing, and financial interests, be quite as much interested and benefited (though in more indirect channels) through the strengthening of the currency system and the resulting influence upon private and public credit. The gain to banking interests should be plainly apparent ; necessarily, a business consisting of the trading in credits must be assured of the foundation upon which all credits stand.

"It will also probably be found that in a large degree the counties of some of the so-called silver States, and other communities suffering from the effects of undue land speculation, will not be in a position to avail themselves of the benefits to be derived under the plan.

"Putting aside, then, the Eastern and the most northern of the Middle States, with their population of twenty-one millions, and the smaller Western mining States and Territories, and Kansas, with their total population of five millions, whose counties could participate in only a moderate degree, it will be found that in the remaining States—viz., Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Nebraska, California, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas—we have a list of agricultural States containing almost fifty millions of people, over three-fifths of the entire population of the country, and about three-fourths of the population that may be classed as rural. It is to these States that we should expect the greatest benefit would accrue ; and from the information afforded by the census of 1900, it is shown that of the 2,068 counties therein contained, 1,885 thereof come within the numerical provisions suggested. And from the latest and most authentic information obtainable, the county indebtedness is shown to be so small (in most cases, no debt whatever)

that it may be claimed with reasonable safety that these counties are almost without exception in such a financial position as to enable them to participate in the plan through the issue of bonds as above provided."

Considering the importance to national defense of an improved system of roads, Mr. Purves suggests that the general government might wisely expend money to provide the best expert information, advice, and supervision over the building or rebuilding of the roads of the borrowing counties, within reasonable limitations.

JUST WHAT WOULD BE ACCOMPLISHED.

As to the immediate effects of such a measure, Mr. Purves is confident that through its operations it will be entirely practicable,—

"1. To accomplish the complete and permanent retirement of the United States notes from our currency without expense to the general government, and thus to release the \$150,000,000 special gold reserve.

"2. To provide independent revenues from entirely new sources with which to meet the interest on government bonds issued for the above purpose, and to furnish funds for the ultimate redemption of said bonds without burdening the federal government therewith.

"3. To furnish a new form of currency with deposited security therefor as a substitute for the retired notes.

"4. To relieve the Treasury Department of the burden of furnishing gold either for export or for other purposes, and to put upon the banks the burden of maintaining the gold standard.

"5. To justify the issue of a large additional amount of United States low-rate bonds, which should naturally become the basis for the extension of national bank note issues, with said bonds as security.

"6. To make possible and profitable a fluctuating issue of bank notes based upon deposits of specified assets other than government bonds ; and

"7. To enlist the support of the agricultural districts in the general movement for a desirable currency reform by incorporating certain provisions that should operate for their benefit ; that is to say :

"(a) To give financial assistance to the country districts in the movement for a better public-school system through the proposed issues of county bonds, and through the same medium ;

"(b) To make possible an extensive and decided improvement of the country roads (at small cost) through the scientific rebuilding thereof by the intelligent utilization of the materials that may be at hand."

A FRENCH SANATORIUM FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

IN connection with the subject of modern hospital facilities for tuberculosis patients, which is treated elsewhere in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, it is interesting to note the success of the Hauteville Sanatorium, designed for the treatment of the indigent consumptives of Lyons,—the first institution of the kind to be opened in France for the benefit of the very poor. A writer in the *Revue de Paris* describes this sanatorium and its methods.

Every month, a day is set apart in the out-patients' department of the Lyons Hospital for the examination of those who desire to be treated for consumption. The number of beds in the sanatorium is one hundred and nineteen, and the open-air treatment is supposed to last four months; accordingly, only thirty new patients can be taken in each month, and the thirty have to be chosen out of some hundred applicants. It is difficult to make the poor of Lyons realize that the treatment is of use only to those who are *not*, as it were, too far gone in the disease, and it is pitiable to see men, women, and children in the last stages of consumption presenting themselves at the hospital doors in the firm belief that the worse they look the more certain they will be of help and succor!

The Lyonese sanatorium was opened only six years ago, and though at first a purely charitable institution, the whole of the sum required being raised in a very few months, much was due to the active help of yet another most admirable French society, also due to private enterprise, which has for its object that of providing the workers of Lyons with economical lodgings, and with good cheap food.

This society, which has now been in existence for seventeen years,—its capital is \$1,000,000,—is in no sense a charity, for it has always paid a reasonable interest on the money invested. The committee which manages the society had every reason to know how terrible were the ravages brought about by consumption; accordingly, they offered those who were trying to deal with the problem in a sensible manner all the help in their power.

There are now at the Hauteville Sanatorium two doctors, fifteen nuns, and half a dozen cooks, the latter being regarded as among the most important members of the staff, for in open-air treatment the food question is of vital importance, the household bills of the Hauteville Sanatorium coming to the very considerable sum of \$12,500 each year.

In the summer, the patients are expected to rise at 6:45 A.M., at 7:30 they have a good breakfast, then follow a short walk and a long rest

in the open air; at 10 o'clock, lunch is served, then comes another long rest; at midday, dinner, at 4:30 P.M. tea, at 7 o'clock supper. At 9 o'clock, every one goes to bed, and at 9:30 the lights are put out. The menus of each meal are carefully considered, specimen menus given in the article being of a nature that would make Lucullus envious.

HOW BUBONIC PLAGUE WAS DRIVEN OUT OF THE PHILIPPINES.

THE banishment of yellow fever from Cuba by American physicians and officials has had its counterpart achievement in the extermination of the bubonic plague by the American administration in the Philippines. The whole story has been told in the reports of the Philippine Commission, where only a few will ever read it, and the *National Geographic Magazine* has done a good service in presenting the main facts in its May number.

RAVAGES OF THE PLAGUE IN MANILA.

Bubonic plague was discovered at Manila on December 26, 1899, and slowly but steadily increased in its ravages up to December, 1901.

"The deaths in 1900 numbered 199, and in 1901 reached a total of 432. The disease was at its worst each year during the hot, dry months of March, April, and May, nearly or quite disappearing during September, October, November, and December. It will be noted that the number of cases in 1901 exceeded that in 1900 by 200, while the number of deaths was about two and a half times as great, and the percentage of mortality among persons attacked increased from 73.4 in 1900 to 91.7 in 1901.

"This heavy increase in plague for the year 1901 justified the apprehension that a severe epidemic would occur in 1902. Strenuous efforts were made to improve the general sanitary condition of the city, but the habits of the Chinese residents and the lower class of Filipinos were such as to render the enforcement of proper sanitary regulations well-nigh impossible.

A CAMPAIGN AGAINST HOUSE RATS.

"On account of the important part which house rats are known to play in the distribution of bubonic plague, a systematic campaign was inaugurated against these rodents in Manila. Policemen, sanitary inspectors, and specially appointed rat-catchers were furnished with traps and poison, and both traps and poison were distributed to private individuals under proper restrictions. A bounty was paid for all rats turned over to the health authorities, and stations were

established at convenient points throughout the city where they could be received. Each rat was tagged with the street and number of the building or lot from which it came, was dropped into a strong antiseptic solution, and eventually sent to the Biological Laboratory, where it was subjected to a bacteriological examination for plague. During the first two weeks, 1.8 per cent. of the rats examined were found to be infected. This proportion steadily increased, reaching the alarming maximum of 2.3 per cent. in October. At this time numerous rats were found dead of plague in the infected districts, and, in view of the fact that epidemics of plague among the rats of a city in the past have been uniformly followed by epidemics among human beings, the gravest apprehension was felt, the rapid spread of the disease among the rats after the weather had become comparatively dry being a particularly unfavorable symptom.

HOUSE INSPECTIONS.

"It was deemed necessary to prepare to deal with a severe epidemic, and a permanent detention camp, capable of accommodating fifteen hundred persons, was accordingly established on the grounds of the San Lazaro Hospital. Hoping against hope, the board of health redoubled its efforts to combat the disease. The force of sanitary inspectors was greatly increased, and under the able supervision of Dr. Meacham their work was brought to a high degree of efficiency. Frequent house-to-house inspections were made in all parts of the city where the disease was known to exist. The sick were removed to the hospital if practicable; otherwise they were cared for where found and the spread of infection guarded against.

"Plague houses were thoroughly disinfected, and their owners were compelled, under the direction of the assistant sanitary engineer, to make necessary alterations. Cement ground-floors were laid; double walls and double ceilings, affording a refuge for rats, were removed; defects in plumbing were remedied; white-wash was liberally used, and, in general, nothing was left undone that could render buildings where plague had occurred safe for human occupancy. Buildings incapable of thorough disinfection and renovation were destroyed. Buildings in which plague rats were taken were treated exactly as were those where the disease attacked the human occupants. The bacteriological examination of rats enabled the board of health to follow the pest into its most secret haunts and fight it there, and was the most important factor in the winning of the great success which was ultimately achieved.

THE PLAGUE STAMPED OUT.

"With very few exceptions, there was no recurrence of plague in buildings which had been disinfected and renovated. As center after center of infection was found and destroyed, the percentage of diseased rats began to decrease, and in January, 1902, when, judging from the history of previous years, plague should have again begun to spread among human beings, there was not a single case. In February, one case occurred. In March, there were two cases, as against 63 in March of the preceding year, and before April the disease had completely disappeared.

"This result, brought about at a time when the epidemic would, if unchecked, have reached its height for the year, marked the end of a fight begun by the board of health on the day of its organization and prosecuted unremittingly under adverse conditions for seven months, with a degree of success which has not been equaled under similar conditions in the history of bubonic plague.

"During 1901, plague appeared at several points in the provinces near Manila. Agents of the board of health were promptly dispatched to the infected municipalities, and radical remedial measures were adopted, including, in several instances, the burning of infected buildings, the result being the complete disappearance of plague in the provinces as well as in Manila."

The chief health inspector, Dr. Franklin R. Meacham, to whom the greatest credit is due for the success of these repressive measures, lived only to see the battle won. Exhausted by the strain of the long struggle, he died in April, 1902, but not till after it could be truly said that he had freed the Philippines of bubonic plague.

The epidemic of Asiatic cholera that immediately followed the successful fight against the plague diverted attention for a time from the admirable work of the health officials, and yet there can be no doubt that this disease also was in many instances checked in its ravages by the vigorous quarantine and inspection measures that had been made familiar to the people by Dr. Meacham's persistent campaign.

HOW LONG AGO WAS AMERICA PEOPLED?

THE antiquity of man on this continent is a subject of unending debate among the ethnologists, but it would seem that the geologists have prior claims to be regarded as an authoritative court of last resort for the decision of this mooted question. At any rate, we look to the geologists for estimates of the duration of the glacial and post-glacial periods, and man is

connected, by the strongest of evidence, with the glacial period. An editorial article in the *American Geologist* for May summarizes the conclusions reached by glacial geologists regarding the measure of time that the glacial age may be presumed to have occupied.

For the time since the end of the ice age, the accepted estimates range from five thousand to twelve thousand years. About eight thousand years would be regarded by the writer of this article as near the truth. This period was apparently of nearly equal length in America and Europe.

"It is more difficult to secure a probable estimate, on which glacialists will so well agree, for the length of the glacial period, which is found on both continents to have been very complex and long, as measured by years, though short in comparison with preceding geologic periods. On both these vast land areas, it involved nearly the same sequence in the stages of growth and decline of the ice-sheets, in their first accumulation, great recessions and readvances, and their final melting away. From the beginning to the end of the glaciation are counted several stages or epochs of growth and wane, the principal times of ice-advance and deposition of drift-sheets and moraines in North America being named the Albertan, Kansan, Illinoian, Iowan, and Wisconsin stages.

AGE OF THE KANSAN DRIFT.

"Some glacialists have estimated the antiquity of the Kansan stage of glaciation, when the ice-sheet extended farthest on the west side of the Mississippi, as from fifteen to fifty times as long ago as the end of the ice age—that is, between 100,000 and 400,000 years ago, while the Albertan stage and the beginning of the ice-accumulation were still older. Others, however, recognizing the necessary limitations of the whole time of life on the earth, from the very ancient Algonkian period until now, considered by astronomers and physicists to be perhaps only about 20,000,000 years and quite surely no more than 100,000,000 years, and comparing the somewhat well-known ratios of the geologic eras and periods, have concluded that the portion of time belonging to the relatively very short glacial period, in all its stages, cannot exceed 100,000 years.

"Such a measure of this period would place its Kansan stage some 50,000 to 25,000 years before its end; and the Iowan stage, to which the fossil man of Lansing, Kan., is referred, would be only 12,000 to 15,000 years ago. These estimates seem to me compatible with the characters of the Kansan and Iowan drift-form-

ations. Instead of the great antiquity attributed by some to the Kansan drift on account of its plentiful pebbles of decayed rock, supposed to have rotted since the ice age, I would refer these to a much later derivation from stream gravels that had been affected during a long preceding period by subaerial decay, or to glacial erosion from preglacially weathered and decaying rock surfaces. The pebbles or eroded rock fragments would hold their form during the glacial erosion, transportation, and deposition, by being then frozen. Again, the patchy occurrence of the oldest till deposits in some places near the extreme boundary of glaciation, often found on heights but absent from lower ground, I would not refer to subsequent erosion, implying a great lapse of time, but to originally unequal and patchy deposition, analogous with the tendency of the ice-sheet in its Wisconsin stage to add till to the heights of growing drumlins, in localities of their abundant development, while sometimes leaving little till, or none, on intervening low tracts of the bedrock. With these explanations, I think we may accept a moderate estimate of the age of the Kansan drift, consistent with a duration of the entire glacial period as only about one hundred thousand years, and with a close relationship of the Iowan and Wisconsin stages, both belonging to the Champlain epoch, or time of land-depression terminating the ice age."

As to the probable antiquity of the fossil man of Lansing, Kan., described in the *Review of Reviews* for April, this writer ventures no assertion beyond the inference that the skeleton marks the differentiation of the American, or red, race from the white, yellow, and black races at a time before our continental ice-sheet had passed its Iowan stage.

ARE AMERICAN FAMILIES DWINDLING?

PRESIDENT ELIOT'S observations as to the decreasing size of the families of university graduates are strikingly confirmed by the vital statistics of three of the smaller Eastern colleges, as collated by Prof. Edward L. Thorndike in the *Popular Science Monthly* for May.

In the case of Middlebury College, Vermont, the average number of children to each graduate, one hundred years ago, was 5.6. This average was based on a total of 64 instances, during the years 1803-09. After that period, there was a steady decline, until 1875-79, when the average of only 1.8 (based on a total of 32 cases) was reached. Wesleyan University, at Middletown, Conn., showed a fall in the average, between the years 1830 and 1869, from 4.5 to 2.6,

the latter average being based on 250 cases. In approximately the same period, New York University's average dropped from 4 to 2.5. The Harvard average for the '70's was 1.99.

IN CITY AND COUNTRY.

Commenting on the statistical showing made by the reports of the three colleges, Professor Thorndike remarks:

"These figures are from a sufficient number of cases to be substantially reliable. For instance, there is not one chance in a thousand that the Harvard average is 10 per cent. too low. The existence and approximate amount of the decrease in the size of family is thus certain. Its substantial identity in Middlebury, a country college in Vermont with a local attendance; in New York University, a city college, and in Wesleyan University, a strongly sectarian college with an attendance drawn from the Northeastern States, makes it probable that it has prevailed throughout the college population of the north Atlantic States. It must depend upon some fundamental cause.

"City life and advanced age at marriage are out of question. The former cause would work to a far greater extent upon New York University or Harvard graduates than upon Middlebury graduates, all of whom come from and most of whom go back to life in small towns. Yet in the statistics there is little difference. An increase in the age at marriage cannot have been the cause, for the simple reason that such increase, as I have elsewhere shown, amounts only to a very few months. An increase in the age at marriage of the wives of our group of men would be a more efficient cause. I know of no available statistics to decide the question, but it would seem extremely unlikely that the age of wives should have increased much when the age of husbands has increased so little.

"The most plausible explanation attributes the change to the custom of conscious restriction of offspring. Greater prudence, higher ideals of education for children, more interest in the health of women, interests of women in affairs outside the home, the increased knowledge of certain fields of physiology and medicine, a decline in the religious sense of the impiety of interference with things in general, the longing for freedom from household cares,—any or all of these may be assigned as the motive for the restriction. The only other explanation which to the present writer seems adequate assigns the decreased productivity of college men to real physiological infertility of the social and perhaps of the racial group to which college men and their wives belong."

RACE SENESCENCE.

The suggestion that the decrease may be the result of race infertility is supported by an editorial article in the same magazine, in which it is maintained that race sterility is quite possible.

"It seems to conflict with the principle of natural selection, as fertility might be supposed to have a high selective value. Natural selection, however, can only select,—it cannot produce variations. If size of head is more variable than size of pelvis, and is equally important for survival, the increasing difficulties of childbearing are not inexplicable on the theory of natural selection. If sterility increases, we must assume that the conditions of the environment have altered too rapidly for variation and natural selection to keep pace with them. * Indeed, the existing conditions may be due in part to our interference with natural selection. The decreasing death rate on which we pride ourselves may in part be responsible for the decreasing birth rate. When children who cannot be born naturally or cannot be nursed survive, we may be producing a sterile race. No statistics in regard to miscarriages are at hand, but there is good reason to believe that they increase as the number of children decreases.

"There is no positive proof of race senescence in man. On the contrary, we know that the Italians and the French Canadians have large families, though there is as much reason for them to suffer from racial exhaustion as the inhabitants of France, and the Chinese seem to be in no danger of extermination. But we know that animals bred for special traits tend to become infertile, and selection for our civilization may have the same result. Physicists tell us that the earth may be uninhabitable in twenty million years; it may be uninhabited by men in twenty centuries."

CAN I AFFORD AN AUTOMOBILE?

THE question of what a good motor costs, and the yearly expense of maintenance, is discussed in the June *World's Work* by Mr. Henry Norman. He gives a careful calculation of the expense of getting and running two typical classes of automobiles. It is to be remembered, however, that no particular calculation would hold true for everybody. The same machine will cost one man twice as much as it will cost his neighbor, so far as maintenance is concerned. "One owner will keep no account, allow his driver to take the machine to the repair shop as often as he likes, make no attempt to understand it himself and bring his own more educated in-

telligence to bear upon its problems; let his accumulators be injured by running down and his bearings worn by his oil-cup not being kept full, pay 30 cents a gallon for his gasoline and \$1.75 a gallon for his lubricating oil, leave cuts unrepaired in his tires, and permit his machine to be left all night with the mud on. The other will study his machine till he knows what it is doing and what should not be done to it, keep every want of his machine regularly supplied, find a keen pleasure in doing all trifling repairs at home, insist that its body and wheels should be as scrupulously washed and leathered as the most costly brougham, pay 20 cents a gallon for his gasoline and \$1.25 for his oil, and generally act toward his property like a careful and sensible man."

With this understanding, that no figures can be true for all automobile-owners, Mr. Norman proceeds to inquire what two classes of machines will cost,—the first, one such as a man who has kept a horse, carriage, and groom might think of adopting instead; the other, such as a man who has never kept a horse might consider within his means.

The machine for the first of the two classes will cost from \$1,500 to \$2,000. This will purchase a ten-horse-power, two-cylinder, four-speed, full-leather-upholstered, smart-looking machine, capable of a maximum speed of from twenty-five to thirty miles an hour on the level, and an average all day of from sixteen to eighteen miles. The depreciation account will be about 20 per cent. per annum if the automobile is carefully kept. Tires will cost, perhaps, \$100 a year; gas-



TYPE OF THE MORE COSTLY GASOLINE CARS, SEATING FOUR.

oline, at an average of twenty miles to a gallon, will cost for, say, four thousand miles a year, \$44. Other supplies, such as lubricating oil, kerosene for the side-lamps, and calcium carbide for the headlight, are placed at \$75. Repairs and replacements ought not to exceed \$50. Adding to the sum of these figures the cost of the driver and his special clothing, Mr. Norman figures out

that the total yearly cost of keeping an automobile of this class is \$2,179.

Coming to the second typical class chosen for purpose of illustration, for the family who would not keep a horse, it is assumed that they will buy a two-seated automobile. This may be a graceful, good-looking vehicle of five or six horse-power, with pneumatic tires, upholstered



STEAM MOTOR STANHOPE.

(Weights less than 500 pounds and costs from \$350 to \$750. Gasoline is the fuel producing the steam.)

in leather, capable of climbing any reasonable hill on its low speed, and of running from twenty to twenty-five miles an hour on its higher speed on the level. Such an automobile will cost from \$650 to \$1,000.

An automobile of this kind, if taken care of, should sell for half its cost at the end of two years. The expenses of running it are tabulated as follows, assuming that the owner manages the machine without the services of a driver:

AUTOMOBILE FOR TWO, WITHOUT DRIVER.

Cost (loss on sale after two years' use, per annum).....	\$350.00
Tires (two years' average).....	75.00
Gasoline (4,000 miles at 20 miles per 22 cents gallon).....	44.00
Oils, etc.....	50.00
Repairs.....	26.00
	<hr/>
	\$445.00
Less saving in cab and railway fares.....	75.00
	<hr/>
Net yearly cost.....	\$370.00

"I fancy that the possibility of the ownership of a charming and efficient little machine, with all the pleasure, the variety, the health, and the advantages it will add to his life for a total sum of \$370 (and I think it can be done for \$340), will come as a surprise to most people of modest means. I would on no account mislead them,

and I feel confident that, given intelligent and careful management, these figures may be regarded as substantially accurate."

WOMAN AND MUSIC.

IN the *Gentleman's Magazine* for May there is a very interesting article contributed by Mr. J. Cuthbert Haddon, entitled "Woman and Music." Mr. Haddon regrets that as yet their sex has not produced a truly great composer; but this he considers largely due to the fact that women have not been and are even yet not allowed to devote the time to the study of music that is indispensable. He says:

"As has been truly remarked, it needs but a glance at the lives of the great composers to show us that the high gift of original creation has ever had to be fostered by active care and congenial surroundings—that, moreover, it exacts for its full fruition a degree of detachment from the common concerns of life which would be sure to overwhelm the solicitous soul of many a woman with the obloquy it would bring upon her. And it is just here that woman, either of her own choice or of necessity, has failed to secure the advantages and conditions necessary to her development as an artist."

Mr. Haddon gives as an example the case of Mendelssohn's sister, Fanny, who in her early years offered the greater musical promise. But, because she was a girl, what happened?

"Precisely what has always happened, and what, under similar circumstances, would probably happen still, in spite of the boasted emancipation of the sex; the training of each gradually diverged,—stopped short, in fact, with the girl, while the boy was encouraged and assisted by every available means. The girl was simply taught, as girls are taught now, to dally with the keys of an instrument; the boy was prepared for an exacting art in an exacting manner."

Even now, the very fact that a woman is a woman is made the pretext for criticising her work differently from that of a man. "'For a woman,' says the critic, 'the composition is remarkably good.' Just as if art were a matter of sex!"

INSTRUMENTS SUITED TO WOMEN.

Speaking of woman as an instrumentalist, Mr. Haddon considers wind instruments to be essentially for men. It is not easy for one to imagine a woman struggling with the bassoon, or the ophicleide, or the saxophone. "A woman must look very charming indeed to look nice when she is throwing the whole strength of her lungs into a wind instrument." But, he says, there

are no instruments better suited for handling by a woman than the violin and the violincello, and that this is becoming more and more appreciated is shown by the fact that at the Guildhall School of Music, not long ago, there were two thousand lady students of the violin, while at the Royal College of Music, last session, there was not a single male student of the violincello, all the students being ladies. In a great many cases, lady violinists in orchestras are declared to be, in many respects, more satisfactory than men. Mr. Haddon rejoices in the fact that "we have got the length of recognizing that the piano is not the only instrument suitable for women; the full result of this recognition must be only a question of time."

In conclusion, Mr. Haddon hopefully declares that, although as yet there have been no great women composers, it does not follow that there will never be.

A NEW SOURCE OF HEAT: RADIUM.

SINCE the discovery of radium, in 1898, the chemists and physicists have been kept busy trying to account for its wonderful properties, among which have been noted its power of giving out light perpetually without any exciting cause, its emission of rays that penetrate solids like the X-ray, its faculty of acting on sensitized plates, and of causing air to conduct electricity. As if these were not sufficient distinctions for this remarkable substance, it has been found, within the past few months, that radium emits heat. This discovery was announced by MM. Curie and Laborde at a meeting of the French Academy of Sciences held in March. Some of the difficulties attending the experiments are set forth by Dr. Henry Carrington Bolton in the *Popular Science Monthly* for May.

It is safe to say that very few people who have read about radium in the scientific journals and elsewhere have any conception of the rarity of the material. Dr. Bolton thinks that a teaspoon would probably hold all the pure radium as yet prepared; its price would amount to thousands of dollars. This fact has, of course, been a serious bar to experiments. "Tons of minerals," says Dr. Bolton, "have been submitted to laborious processes in the chemical laboratory to obtain a few grams of the precious material; and at the end of the task the conscientious scientist can only claim that the product is such and such a salt, containing a small, unknown percentage of radium." When we are told that a very small sample of the material is valued at twenty-five dollars, we can readily understand that experimentation with radium has been a

costly, as well as a laborious, undertaking. The wonder is that so much has been learned about the properties of this new body in so short a time.

As explained by Dr. Bolton, the discovery by Curie and Laborde that radium emits heat was the result of two experiments. "By a thermoelectric method they ascertained that a specimen of barium chloride containing one-sixth of its weight of radium chloride indicated a temperature 1.5°C . (2.7°F .) higher than a sample of pure barium chloride; the temperature was determined by comparing the heat emitted with that excited in a wire of known resistance by an electric current of known intensity. In the second experiment, they employed a Bunsen calorimeter. The experimenters found that one gram of active barium chloride emits about fourteen small calories per hour. The specimen contained only about one-sixth its weight of radium chloride, but on testing 0.08 gram of purer material they obtained identical results, from which it can be calculated that one gram of radium would emit 100 small calories per hour, on one atom-gram (225 grams) would emit, each hour, 22,500 calories, an amount comparable with the heat disengaged by the combustion in oxygen of one atom-gram of hydrogen.

HEAT WITHOUT COMBUSTION.

"The continuous emission of such a large quantity of heat cannot be explained by any chemical action, and must be due to some modification of the atom itself; if so, such a change must be very slow. As a matter of fact, Demarçay observed no change in the spectrum of radium examined at intervals of five months.

"An English writer, commenting on the figures given by M. Curie, says that a radium salt in a pure state would melt more than its own weight of ice every hour; and half a pound of radium salt would evolve in one hour an amount of heat equal to that produced by burning one-third of a cubic foot of hydrogen gas. And the extraordinary part of this is that the evolution of heat goes on without combustion, without chemical change of any kind, without alteration of its molecular structure, and continuously, leaving the salt, at the end of months of activity, just as potent as in the beginning. Yet this state of things must have a cause, for it must not be imagined that perpetual motion has been at last attained."

Dr. Bolton closes his interesting paper with these questions:

"Do the other rare bodies, polonium, actinium, and thorium, that behave in many respects like radium, also share its most recently discovered

power of emitting heat? Will not scientists be compelled to revise some of the theories of physics that they regard at present as cardinal? And what are the conditions in the earth beneath our feet, when inert matter manifests energy to such an amazing extent without a known cause? The future opened to students and to philosophers is fraught with mysteries the solution of which will be eagerly awaited by the rest of the world."

THE FRENCH CHILD CRIMINAL.

DURING late years, juvenile depravity and criminality has increased terribly all over France, and more especially in Paris; indeed, the outskirts of the French capital have been terrorized by bands of boys who, assuming the picturesque nickname of "Iron Hearts," have shown themselves expert burglars, garroters, and occasionally murderers. In the *Nouvelle Revue*, M. Garien writes a thoughtful article concerning the very serious problem of the French juvenile criminal.

Some forty years ago, a society was founded which undertook the defense of young criminals, and in connection with the society were organized several admirable institutions which undertook the care of those lads who, if not fit for prison, were yet more unfit to be once more let loose on society. One important law, passed many years ago, caused every criminal under the age of eighteen to be considered still a child, and as such unfit for prison. When this excellent law passed into effect, it was found that many of those who most benefited by it bitterly regretted the change, so much did the juvenile criminal prefer prison life to that of an industrial school or a reformatory.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE REFORMATORIES.

The "houses of correction" to which the French juvenile criminal is now sent are twelve in number; six are to all intents and purposes agricultural colleges; in the six others are taught town trades. The state has also three houses of correction for girls, and in addition to these public reformatories there are in France twenty private reformatory schools, where each pupil is paid for by some charitable soul, and where occasionally an incorrigibly naughty boy or girl is sent by its parents!

Very curious and intelligent is the management of these institutions. During the first three weeks of a child's stay, he is isolated from the others, and carefully watched, in order that something may be learned of his character, his temperament, and his aptitudes. Sometimes the poor creature is little more than a baby; when

this is the case, he is most kindly treated, and until the age of ten he has very little to do but to grow strong and healthy; then follow three years of schooling, and from thirteen to sixteen comes learning of a trade. In the agricultural houses of correction, each boy is taught gardening in all its branches, and many boys, after leaving, become prosperous market gardeners in the neighborhood of Paris.

One important point, and one characteristic of French, is that every effort is made to keep the children in touch with their homes. Once a month, they spend one Sunday with their parents, supposing, of course, that the latter are respectable people; once a year, also, each child spends four weeks at home. The task of the house of correction does not cease when the boy or girl passes out into the world; he and she are encouraged to remain on friendly terms with the devoted men and women to whom they owe so much, and everything is done to make them feel that there has been nothing shameful or degrading in the way in which their childhood and youth have been spent.

POST-MORTEM ACTION OF THE HEART.

PROF. H. E. HERING makes an interesting contribution to our knowledge of the mechanism of the action of the heart in the last number of the *Centralblatt für Physiologie*.

Death is not instantaneous, for many of the different tissues of an animal continue their activities long after the organism as a whole may be said to be dead. This is especially noticeable in some of the lower animals. Ciliated cells may be taken from the gills of a clam, or the trachea of a dead frog, and their action observed under the microscope for a long time. If isolated cells are supplied with a nutrient solution, they may be kept alive much longer, cells from the brain of a frog having been kept alive in this way for over a week, as shown by their changes of shape in response to stimuli.

The heart of many animals will continue to beat long after its removal from the body. The heart of the frog will beat for hours, and that of the turtle or snake for several days, or perhaps a week, after the animal has been killed.

ISOLATION OF THE MAMMALIAN HEART.

From previous experiments made on the rabbit, cat, dog, and monkey, Professor Hering found that the mammalian heart can be uncovered and all its workings observed, as well as the effects of the stimulation of its nerves, if it is kept supplied with physiological salt solution.

In these investigations, the heart was not cut

out after killing the animal, but, instead, all superfluous fluid was removed, and the heart, without the lungs, was left in communication with the rest of the body by means of the great blood vessels and the nerves.

It was found that the stimuli which normally cause more rapid beating of the heart continue to produce stronger and more rapid beating of the ventricle when the auricle has been cut away as far as the wall separating it from the ventricle. When the auricle is removed in this way, a small remnant of the musculature of its walls necessarily adheres to the ventricle, and the question arises whether the effects are brought about directly by the action of stimuli upon the ventricle or indirectly through the action of the small part of the auricle which remains.

The writer believes that the changes in rate and intensity of the contractions are effected through the remnant of the auricle. As far as the observations extended, no results were produced by stimulating the vagus nerve, branches of which extend to the heart.

If the auricle is cut away from a beating heart, the ventricle is still for a time, and after this pause begins to beat again, but more slowly than before. It appears to be immaterial whether the last stroke of the knife cuts the wall of the auricle or the partition between the auricle and the ventricle, and the inaction of the ventricle, apparently, is not the result of the shock, but is due to a sudden lack of stimulation.

The action of electrical stimuli, as well as of various poisons, such as atropine, muscarin, and others, was also tried. It appeared that every action of the heart, both spontaneous and induced, can be observed when it is exposed in this way and supplied with physiological salt solution, whether the heart is left intact or the auricle is cut away.

MOTION ONCE STOPPED CAN BE RESUMED.

If a solution of potassium chloride is injected into the blood vessels, the heart stops beating, but after some time all parts begin to beat rhythmically together again. Potassium injected in this way acts directly upon the heart musculature, which, according to the amount injected, becomes less and less responsive to stimulus, finally not responding at all, and later regains its activity because the potassium has been washed away. The fact that the motion of the heart can be stopped and the different parts again be brought into coördinate activity is of interest, as it has not before been possible to regain coördinate motion in the mammalian heart after it has once been lost.

THE CAPITAL OF ALL THE RUSSIAS.

BECAUSE St. Petersburg is a youthful city—as age is counted in Europe—and because its architecture is largely Western, travelers sometimes pass it by with the thought that it has little or nothing to distinguish it from other European cities. This, according to Mr. Edmund Noble, who writes on the subject in the *Chautauquan* for April, is a serious mistake in judgment. He declares that the Russian capital is one of the most instructive examples of national development of which there is any mention in history. "It is here, at any rate, that through the genius and foresight of a single man there began that assimilation of Russia with the West which, certain to come sooner or later, came sooner because Peter was born alike into the desire and the power to help it forward.

VENETIAN EFFECTS.

"To-day, all that struggle with nature and that compulsion of man out of which St. Petersburg emerged from a Finnish marsh belongs to the past; and to-day it is the fruits of the splendid experiment of 1703 which seize on the imagination of the visitor as, beneath domes and spires decked out in the hues of the rainbow, one walks through far-reaching thoroughfares, or finds one's self in spacious squares, or follows for miles the footway of granite squares, with objects everywhere richly spread for the eye of the gazer—palaces that tell of private wealth, monuments recalling events in the nation's history, statues eloquent of reputation and personal achievement. But St. Petersburg has been called 'amphibious,' and there is a certain appropriateness in the term, for it has welcome contrasts of mainland and island which to some have suggested Venice, and to others Amsterdam. Between hundreds of water-separated sections of the city, throughout the warmer months of the year, there flow, like 'roads that run,' the innumerable fluent branches and canals of the Neva.

"So far as the metropolis is mainland—and this may be said of its southern half—it suggests in shape, strangely enough—and, let us hope, prophetically—a liberty cap with the slope and point turned toward the northeast. The Great Neva, with its source in Lake Ladoga, fifteen miles away, moves upward on the right, turns the point sharply, then descends the slope, finally entering the Gulf of Finland on the left. North of the Great Neva, yet connected with the mainland by bridges, are the islands on which the northern sections of St. Petersburg are built—the great, diamond-shaped Vasilyevsky Ostroff, or Basil Island, on the lower left; then, on the right, across the Little Neva, the long and narrow Peter's Island; finally, north of these, and separated therefrom by branches of the Little Neva and Middle Neva, the Krestovsky, Apothecary's, Zhelagin, and Stone islands. There is also a section on the extreme right, due northeast, which is known as the Vyborg Side of St. Petersburg.

THE ICE-BOUND NEVA.

"The finest of the city's nearly two hundred bridges are those which bind the islands to the mainland; and though the river is deeply frozen in winter, there is no cessation of traffic over it. Roads are made over the ice, with an ample provision of electric lamps. On other sections of the congealed river, fairs are held, nor is it unusual to see it occupied by some colony of Lapps, who, accompanied by their reindeer, migrate from the far north to make St. Petersburg their home for the winter. The famous ceremony of the blessing of the waters takes place in January; a still finer, and certainly less artificial, spectacle is the breaking up of the ice in April. During the prevalence of southwest winds, the Neva is sometimes a source of danger to the city, and warning against possible floods is conveyed by the firing of guns. The news of conflagrations is given from high towers in various parts of the city—by balls in the daytime and by lanterns at night."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

THE London Stock Exchange is described in the June *Century*, with pictures by André Castaigne suggesting that this institution is no less strenuous than our New York exchange. The London institution is really a private club, formed, in 1783, for the purpose of dealing in stocks and shares. It virtually controls all legitimate transactions of that nature, just as the Turf Club controls racing matters and the Marylebone Cricket Club is the supreme authority in the cricket world. The original capital of the company has grown from the modest sum of £20,000 in 1801 to the subscribed capital of £240,000, with an authorized debenture capital of £750,000, of which £450,000 is issued. The shares are unlimited, and £12 is considered to have been paid upon them. They return a dividend of 75 per cent., and command a market price of about two hundred and thirty pounds. These shares can be held only by members of the Stock Exchange, but members do not have to be shareholders. At present there are 1,169 shareholders, while the number of members elected for 1901 was 4,764. Each member has to pay forty guineas a year, and an entrance fee of five hundred guineas.

REPLENISHING THE SALMON SUPPLY.

An excellent article on "The Salmon Fisheries," by Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, includes some account of the curious life-history of the Pacific salmon, which pushes its way up fresh-water streams sometimes for a thousand miles, jumping seemingly impossible falls,—never eating during this period,—to the shallow rivulets, where it spawns, and then dies. The salmon fisheries of the Pacific amount to an annual product of twenty million dollars now, and with the numberless and wholesale devices for capturing the fish, the question naturally arises, how long will this supply last? The United States Government and the States of Oregon and Washington are attempting to supply the place of the tremendous annual catch by planting fry at the head-waters of the Sound rivers. The hatcheries tributary to the Columbia River alone produced, in 1901, fifty-eight million fry. The fry are obtained from the native salmon, caught in large numbers and artificially spawned. The eggs are hatched under conditions which prevent the very large losses of the natural spawning-beds and of the young fry after hatching. Oregon and Washington appreciate keenly the importance of this growing industry, and their fish wardens control and restrict taking the fish, the size of the nets, the distance between nets, and the definite seasons set for fishing, the object being to permit enough fish to pass up the streams every year to maintain the spawning supply.

HOW TO DO AWAY WITH THE "BOSS."

Governor Garvin, of Rhode Island, tells how the State political boss may be dethroned. He advises the system in partial operation in Switzerland and Belgium, and portions of Australasia. Its essential features are that single districts shall be abolished, that a considerable number of legislators shall be elected from each district, that the members chosen shall be apportioned to each party, however small, in

the ratio of the vote cast by the several parties, and that the vote of each elector shall be counted for one candidate only.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

"THE Tragedy of a Map" is the title given by Mr. Collins Shackelford to his sketch in the June *Harper's* of Bering, the Dane who discovered Bering Sea, Bering Strait, and Bering Island. He was born in 1680, entered the Russian navy, and attracted the attention of Peter the Great, who sent him to discover the northwest passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. In 1725, Bering went overland to Kamchatka, built two vessels, and began an exploration of the coast of Asia which lasted five years. In 1740, the Empress Anna sent him to look for the northwest passage, and it was on this trip that Bering Sea was discovered. The adventurous explorer had all sorts of trouble on this trip, which ended in the destruction of his ship and his own death, some survivors of the party reaching home to report the results of the voyage which made the Russian sailor a famous man for all time.

An article on the mountaineers of the Alleghanies, under the title "Our Appalachian Americans," by the late Julian Ralph, will cause some readers to revise their views of the uneducated and feudatory mountain folks of West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Georgia, Alabama, Maryland, and the Carolinas. Mr. Ralph's article points out that from this mountain stock came Andrew Jackson, Andrew Johnson, Abraham Lincoln, Daniel Boone, the Logans, Carters, Buchanans, Pikes, Clays, Knotts, and ever so many other old American families with distinguished members. He calls these people exponents of an arrested civilization, and says they are not degenerate. They make illicit whiskey because their ancestors made it a prominent product of the corn belt, and they drink less of it than almost any other people in the United States; they carry on feuds and commit murders because they have been isolated sufficiently long to have undertaken their own communal control in their own way, and because in doing so they have lost their individual self-control.

In "Uncovering a Buried City," Dr. Alexander Macalister tells of the excavations which have lately been made at Tel-el-Jezair, between Jaffa and Jerusalem; no less than four different cities at different levels have been uncovered by the explorers. Dr. Henry C. McCook gives an interesting account of the life-history of the ant, in "The Royal Mother of Ants," and there are a number of contributions of fiction and verse, as befits the first month of summer.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the series of articles on the various departments of the United States Government running in *Scribner's*, there appears in the June issue one on the War Department, by Brig.-Gen. William H. Carter, U.S.A. It is chiefly an historical retrospect showing the development of the War Department from the time of the Board of War and Ordnance, established on June 12, 1776. According to General Carter, we find it difficult to realize at home what a problem lies before the

army in the Philippines. He considers that the War Department has come out of the criticism and discussion of the military conduct of Philippine affairs very well indeed; and as to the soldiers in the islands, he says: "In the years to come, the names of the heroes in the swamp and jungle campaigns of the recent past will be found upon the pages of history with those of Yorktown, Molino del Rey, and the Wilderness."

Mr. Edward Whymper, the well-known mountain-climber and writer, begins this number with an account of "A New Playground in the New World,"—the region in the Canadian Rockies around Mount Shaughnessy and Mount McNicoll, and the Ice River Valley. In the spring of two years ago, Mr. Whymper, with four expert European mountain guides, invaded this wonderful territory, whose wild beauty is well shown in the author's photographs reproduced in this article. The pleasures of mountaineering here are enhanced by the possibilities of discovering, as Mr. Whymper did, beautiful absolutely virgin valleys, not on the map. In other parts of this new wonderland, railroad enterprise has brought hotels, which mitigate the severities of mountain-climbing and exploration.

Gen. John B. Gordon's reminiscences of the Civil War come in this number to Antietam and Chancellorsville; in the former fight, General Gordon was wounded four times, and it was at Chancellorsville that Stonewall Jackson lost his life. The pleasant part of this chapter of General Gordon's reminiscences is his account of the windfalls that came to him in the way of beautiful riding-horses, astray on the battlefield, and of the intelligence and courage of the chargers that he was fond of.

An essay on "The Modern French Girl" is from Mrs. Philip Gilbert Hamerton, who chronicles a very decided change in the French manners and customs in the past generation. Whereas the French girl thirty years ago was modest, retiring, simple in dress, diffident in talk, and respectfully obedient to her parents, she would be astonished to-day if she were told not to take the leading part in conversation, not to giggle loudly, not to set her arms akimbo, and never to talk privately with a young gentleman.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

FROM the June *McClure's* we have selected the sketch of Peter Cooper Hewitt, by Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, to quote from among the "Leading Articles of the Month."

Mr. P. T. McGrath, the Newfoundland journalist, gives a dramatic account of Cape Race and its shipwrecks and rescues, under the title "An Ocean Graveyard." Some three thousand ships are reported every year at the cape, besides those which pass after night, in the fog, or beyond telescope range. Some of the most terrible tragedies in marine annals have occurred on this rugged, dangerous shore. In the past forty years, there is a record of ninety-four complete wrecks of ocean-going vessels, involving a loss of two thousand lives and thirty million dollars in hulls and cargoes. The ships which stranded and afterward escaped are not included. These disasters are due to the fogs, and to the puzzling currents, which are variable and uncharted. Mr. McGrath says that this dangerous coast has not the series of powerful fog alarms it needs because the Newfoundland government cannot afford to establish and maintain them. It is Canada's ship-

ping that is most affected, and the Dominion is held to be the one which should move in the matter. Lloyd's shipping agency is also deeply interested, and between the three parties he thinks it probable that the coast will be properly sentineled with coast aids before many years.

Under the heading "Comedy of the Catechised," Mr. A. M. Jones quotes many amusing answers made by civil-service applicants to the routine questions. Here is a sample batch: "To the pertinent and not too academic question, 'What kind of food is given to birds of prey in captivity?' a cautious applicant replied, 'The latter.' To the more abstruse question, 'What marked difference is there between animals exhibited at a circus and those exhibited at a city menagerie?' the comprehensive reply was given, 'The city tell of the names of the animals by a sign.' Another candidate defined a menagerie as 'an abode which contains the five structural divisions of nature (except man) for the benefit of man.' In answer to a request to name three birds of prey, the following lists were received:

1. The canary, the dove, and the sparrow.
2. The eagle, the chicken, the hawk.
3. Tiger, lion, leopard.

To the question, 'What common form of physis is employed in a circus or menagerie?' came the startling response, 'Men only.' Occasionally a candidate is gifted with a style of more or less elaboration, which leads to the use of striking expressions. One gentleman seeking to become a fish inspector reported of certain scallops presented for his verdict: 'They look good, but not seeing their savory juice, am compelled to unanswer their value.'

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

AN article in the June *Cosmopolitan* on "The Sugar Beet in the United States" gives an idea of the very rapid growth of this branch of sugar-production. Many people will be surprised to learn that the United States produces such a small amount of sugar, relatively, from both cane and beet sources; although we consume one-fourth of the world's supply, our domestic production is less than one-twentieth of the world crop. For the manufacturing year 1901-02, our factories produced about one hundred and eighty-six thousand tons of beet sugar. So recently as 1888, the year's manufacture was less than one thousand tons. To show what a large future there is still before our beet-sugar industry, this writer gives the figure of Germany's annual production as 1,800,000 tons, and that of Austria and France as 1,000,000 tons each. To the farmer, the beet-sugar problem looks about as follows: It costs \$30 per acre to produce sugar beets. The average yield per acre throughout the country in 1901 was 9.6 tons. The average yield secured by the more intelligent growers, however, is 12 tons an acre. The factories pay \$4 to \$4.50 a ton, giving a gross return of \$48 to \$54 per acre, and a net profit of \$18 to \$24. The average gross returns from all cultivated lands in the country was less than \$10.50 per acre, and for cereal crops only \$8.02 per acre.

In an article in the series "Making a Choice of a Profession," Dr. Albert Shaw discusses the selection of the profession of journalism. He compares the young men working in Mr. Whitelaw Reid's *Tribune* office with the young lawyers and law clerks in Mr. Choate's law office, to get a line on the comparative conditions of the two professions, and gives his own opinion that the

newspaper men not only average a good deal better pay than the young lawyers, but are engaged in a very much more interesting and diverting sort of work. The journalist's creed is given by Dr. Shaw as follows: "There is one thing that the journalist must say to himself every day, and if he is in danger of forgetting it, he should place it in bold letters over his desk where he cannot fail to see it. He may forget all else, but he must not forget this: *the journalist must serve the public, and no other master.* He must not be afraid to print the legitimate news without bias. He must treat all political parties fairly; he must never under any circumstances serve the interests of political bosses or franchise-seeking corporations. He must, in short, keep his self-respect and his independence. In the United States, newspapers rather than politicians lead the public mind in matters of statesmanship and policy."

An interesting little sketch of Senator Knute Nelson, of Minnesota, is given in one of the departments, under the heading "A Self-Educated Senator." Knute Nelson came to this country from Norway with his widowed mother when he was less than five years old, and earned his first money selling newspapers upon the streets of Chicago. Later, when he and his mother were settled on a little sandy farm out in Wisconsin, he got some little education from the district school. "Senator Nelson tells that he journeyed in an ox-cart of home construction, the wheels of which were sections of a big log, to the little village academy from which he graduated. On this cart was a large wooden chest which contained, in addition to his scanty wardrobe, sufficient provisions from the farm to last him half the term. He did his own cooking, living as simply as did Daniel when he was in training to stand before Babylon's triumphant king."

THE WORLD'S WORK.

MR. HENRY NORMAN'S article examining into the cost of getting and keeping an automobile, appearing in the *World's Work* for June, is quoted from in another department. This June number of the *World's Work* is given over to recreation features, a half dozen or more articles on fishing, camping, hunting with a camera, the coming yacht races, horseback riding, mountain-climbing, and such timely subjects appearing, with many illustrations. Mr. Lawrence Perry, writing on "The Business of Vacations," says that the larger railroad systems count the summer vacation travel as worth millions of dollars to them. In 1890, the figures for the amount of money paid hotels, boarding-houses, and guides were taken for the White Mountains and other regions, and amounted to \$5,000,000 for New Hampshire alone. In Lenox, Mass., small corner lots now sell for \$15,000, and farming lands at \$1,000 an acre.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

THE opening article in the June *Atlantic* is Mr. Oswald Garrison Villard's on "The Negro in the Regular Army." Mr. Villard pays a great tribute to the negro troops led by white officers. He has no difficulty in giving ample proof of the courage and loyalty of the black troops, and he shows that they have many other points of excellence when properly managed. The negroes are natural horsemen and riders, and take great pride in their mounts, as also in their uniforms.

"In no white regiment is there a similar feeling. With the negroes, the canteen question is of comparatively slight importance, not only because the men can be more easily amused within their barracks, but because their appetite for drink is by no means as strong as that of the white men. The dark sides are that the negro soldiers easily turn merited punishment into martyrdom, that their gambling propensities are almost beyond control, that their habit of carrying concealed weapons is incurable, and that there is danger of serious fighting when they fall out with one another."

A well-written and amusing personal recital of a young consul's emotions and experiences is from Mr. John B. Osborne, "The Glamour of a Consulship;" in a readable sketch of "Barataria: The Ruins of a Pirate Kingdom," Mr. Leonidas Hubbard, Jr., describes the island haunts of Jean Lafitte in the Gulf of Mexico; the centenary celebration of Emerson's birth is marked by the publishing of the address on that occasion by President Eliot, of Harvard, and also by an ode by Professor Woodberry.

WHAT NAPOLEON MIGHT HAVE DONE.

In an essay on "The Cult of Napoleon," Prof. Goldwin Smith says that the title of Emperor was taken by Bonaparte with the idea in view of turning the states of Europe into provinces of an empire having its seat at Paris. "Had this man been good, had he even not been very bad, had his heart been open to noble emotions or aspirations, though he could not exactly have played the part of Washington, the material with which he had to deal and the situation not being the same, he apparently might, with the power which fortune had put into his hands, have founded liberal institutions, and thus have saved France from the century of revolutions and counter-revolutions through which she has since passed."

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE May number of the *North American* opens with a contribution to the discussion of the negro problem by Mr. Archibald R. Colquhoun, who has traveled in almost every quarter of the globe and has been an attentive student of race questions in many lands. His point of view is simply that of the English official class, accustomed to shouldering the white man's burden and accepting the responsibilities of the superior race as axiomatic. He is unable to regard education as a panacea in any sense. The Jamaica negroes have had very deficient schooling, but their "discipline" has been excellent. The people of the United States should organize a system of negro development. Every State should have such a system, and all the States should endeavor to bring their systems into unison. It is a national problem.

EMERSON'S INFLUENCE ABROAD.

Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll, writing on Ralph Waldo Emerson, testifies to the force with which the American sage acted on the minds of young men in Scotland early in the sixties. Many who could not afford to buy the new books of Carlyle and Tennyson were able to purchase the cheap reprints of Lowell, Longfellow, Emerson, and other American authors, whose works were not then protected by any copyright convention. Very recently, a shilling edition of Emerson's essays was published in England, and twenty thousand copies were sold at once. Dr. Nicoll also refers to the recent state-

ment that the most reactionary and powerful of Russian statesmen kept a copy of Emerson always beside him, and consulted it as an oracle.

THE WARRING NATURE-STUDENTS.

Mr. John Burroughs' recent *Atlantic Monthly* criticism of Mr. Ernest Thompson-Seton and other nature writers is itself the subject of a scathing review by one of Mr. Burroughs' victims, the Rev. W. J. Long. The two main counts in his indictment of Mr. Burroughs as a critic are, that he has overlooked the individuality of animals and the adaptiveness of nature, and that he makes the actions of animals on his own farm the rule by which to predicate the actions of animals everywhere. To Mr. Burroughs' affirmation that "all animals do exactly and instinctively what their parents did," Mr. Long retorts with the questions, "How, then, are there any domestic animals? Why does the tame canary sing, while a wild canary or one brought up in solitude only chirps and twitters?"

ELECTRICITY AS A RAILROAD MOTIVE POWER.

Mr. C. L. De Muralt outlines some of the advantages, from the engineering as well as from the financial point of view, of having all trains on trunk lines propelled by electricity. He presents figures which show that the adoption of electricity as a motive power should effect an annual saving in operating expenses of \$4,762,277 for the Pennsylvania system, and of \$3,938,353 for the New York Central. These figures imply a saving of only 10 per cent. in the cost of fuel; but if water power can be used, the saving in this single item of fuel will be at least 88½ per cent. The New York Central, for instance, can supply practically its entire system from the water power of Niagara Falls, the upper Hudson, and the St. Lawrence.

PRESENT TENDENCIES OF RUSSIAN POLICY.

Mr. Charles Johnston makes an able defense of Russia as a world power. He shows that two-thirds of the agreement with China for the evacuation of Manchuria has already been carried out. The Russian troops have been withdrawn from Chinese territory to the conceded areas which are Russian soil. Mr. Johnston also expresses the hope that the Russians will soon be on more friendly terms with Japan. He thinks that the peace of the world is rendered more secure by the recent additions that Russia has made to her Siberian fleet, which now consists of five first-class battleships and seven armored cruisers, as against six battleships and seven cruisers in the Japanese fleet. Mr. Johnston's rose-colored predictions are not fully borne out by the news dispatches of the past few weeks.

NAVY LEAGUES.

Lieutenant-Commander Gibbons, U.S.N., sets forth the advantages and usefulness of navy leagues like the one recently organized in New York State, modeled largely after the navy leagues of Great Britain. The object of these leagues is to direct public attention to the importance of the national navy. All kinds of educational methods have been adopted by these leagues in England, and it is recommended that in this country active coöperation with schools, lyceums, and lecture bureaus be established, and that prizes be offered for essays on naval subjects not strictly technical. Another purpose of such leagues would be the encouragement of the naval militia and of naval reserves.

OTHER ARTICLES.

"Why Germany Strengthens Her Navy" is the subject of a paper by Karl Blind; Mr. P. Chalmers Mitchell writes on "The Future of the Tropics;" Sir A. E. Miller considers "The Monroe Doctrine from a British Standpoint;" Mr. W. D. Howells reviews the fiction of Miss Edith Wyatt, Mr. George Ade, and Mr. F. P. Dunne—grouped together as "the Chicago school;" and Lord North contributes a sketch of his great-grandfather, who was prime minister of England when the American colonies declared their independence. In our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," we have quoted at some length from Mr. Stephen Bonsal's study of "Castro: A Latin-American Type."

THE ARENA.

THE first three articles in the *Arena* for May are devoted to Mormonism and polygamy. President Joseph F. Smith, of the Mormon Church, gives a brief exposition of the cardinal tenets of his faith. In view of the recent election of Apostle Reed Smoot to the United States Senate, perhaps the most interesting part of President Smith's paper is the paragraph which sums up the attitude of the hierarchy toward the State, as follows:

"It teaches submission to law and promotes true patriotism. It recognizes the institutions of this country as established under divine direction. It does not unite Church and State. It supports each in its own sphere, but regards them as separate and distinct, and holds that neither should encroach upon the domain of the other. The 'Mormon' Church does not dictate the politics of its members or direct citizens how they shall vote. The only restraint it claims to exercise as to political office is, that before any man who holds an ecclesiastical position demanding his entire services for the church becomes a candidate for a secular office that would take him from his church duties, he shall obtain permission to do so from its presiding authorities. This is absolutely necessary to proper church discipline, and is only reasonable and just. When that consent has been obtained, no man occupying a political office in this land is freer than he to perform his duty to his country, nor enjoys greater liberty as an American citizen. Notwithstanding all that is said and imagined as to the interference of the church in political affairs, no citizen can truthfully assert that he has been deprived by the church of his freedom, or that the church has attempted to coerce or control conventions, elections, or legislatures."

The paper by President Joseph Smith, of the reorganized Mormon Church, is chiefly a continuation of the controversy regarding the date of the institution of polygamy in the church, and the responsibility therefor. The reorganized church contends that the dogma and practice of polygamy are contrary to Scripture, as well as opposed to the laws of man. It is held that the prophet Joseph Smith never practised polygamy himself, and never enjoined it upon his followers. Mr. John T. Bridwell, of the National Anti-Mormon Missionary Association, squarely contradicts the position of the sons of the prophet, maintaining that the "seer" was a practical polygamist both at Kirtland and in Missouri; and this, we may add, is the commonly accepted version of the facts. The historical discussion can have only an academic interest. The American people are

more directly concerned to find out whether polygamy is at present practised in Utah.

CAN OUR NEGROES BE COLONIZED?

In seeking a solution of the negro problem, Col. William Hemstreet reverts to the colonization scheme of the last century, selecting Cuba as the land to be populated by our surplus of blacks. Among the advantages of such a migration, Colonel Hemstreet mentions the absence of a color line in Cuba, the suitability of the climate, and, last but not least, the probability that all American negroes would vote for the annexation of the island to the United States! "Any Congressman should deem it the most useful and honorable act of his life to vote a hundred millions of federal cash to buy and equip small farms and transport to Cuba all the surplus and threatening blacks of the South."

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

A N editorial article in *Gunton's* for May reviews the United States Court of Appeals' decision in the Northern Securities case with some asperity, but the wrath of the writer is mainly directed against the Sherman act. He says:

"This merger decision will have a tendency to prevent the progress of productive industry in the United States. Its enforcement would be the most effective means of disorganizing industry; and so long as it stays on the statute book it will be a dangerous weapon in the hands of an erratic or demagogic President. There will be no safety in the expansion of industrial enterprise in this country again until the Sherman act is repealed. It is a bad law, conceived for a bad purpose; and in the hands of an unscrupulous or unduly ambitious and impulsive President it becomes a danger to the country."

OUR MERCHANT MARINE.

Mr. Edwin Maxey, writing on "The Future of Our Merchant Marine," shows that American capital is invested in shipping to a far greater extent than is commonly assumed by writers on the subject. Thus, the steam tonnage engaged in our foreign trade and controlled by American capital increased from 424,000 tons in 1894 to 1,400,000 tons in 1902. Add to this the 475,000 sail tonnage engaged in foreign vessels, and it will be found that we have engaged in foreign trade a fleet larger than that of any other country except Great Britain and Germany. Including our coasting tonnage of 4,858,000, our merchant marine is second to that of Great Britain alone. The International Mercantile Marine Company, an American corporation, maintains a fleet superior in all elements of efficiency to the entire French merchant fleet of 690 steamers.

EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. Burgess Shank adduces the following, in addition to facts more generally known, to show that the results of our educational policy in the Philippines have been satisfactory:

"A thousand schools have now been running nearly two years in which the language used is English.

"Many thousand Filipinos have learned to understand, read, speak, and write English to a considerable extent. Thousands have been trained to teach the language, and many have been doing it successfully for more than a year.

"The experiment has shown the people as a whole that they can get an enlightened language; that, *so far*

as language goes, their aspiration to be a part of the enlightened world is an attainable aspiration.

"In communities where schools have been established, one meets many persons, children and adults, who can carry on a tolerable English conversation.

"Classes of little children, entering school for the first time, learned to read and write as much and as well as an American first-grade class.

"Young men and women learned enough English in a year to be able to write a better letter than most American adults."

SCHOOLING FOR SOUTHERN FACTORY CHILDREN.

Mrs. Leonora Beck Ellis describes a remarkably successful school conducted at Columbus, Ga., for the children of the mill operatives. The girls are instructed in cooking, sewing, laundering, and general house-cleaning; the boys learn carpentering; and pupils of both sexes are taught gardening, the beginnings of pottery, basketry, hat-making, weaving, and other forms of manual training. Although no systematic use is made of books in this unique school, Mrs. Ellis says that in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, and history, the pupils compare very favorably with those of an ordinary public school. Drawing and color studies are especially emphasized.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

IN the *Nineteenth Century* for May we have noticed elsewhere the papers on the Irish land bill, with which the number opens.

Mr. G. F. Shee pleads for the adoption of universal military and naval service, and points out that in Germany and France universal service greatly improves the physique of the people, whereas the physique of the English people is going from bad to worse. This, he says, is proved not only by the alarming percentage of rejections of recruits, but also from other indications.

"1. The steady and rapid decline in the birth rate, from 36.3 per 1,000 in 1876 to 29.4 in 1898. 2. The increase in the death rate of infants under one year old from 149 per 1,000 in the period of 1871-80 to 168 per 1,000 in 1898. 3. The increase in deaths among infants owing to 'congenital defects' from 1.85 to 4.06, or 130 per cent. in less than thirty years. 4. The rapid increase in the proportion of female children born. 5. The increase of deaths from premature childbirth by 800 per cent. in the last fifty years."

THE VALUE OF IRISH BOGS.

Sir Richard Sankey, in a paper entitled "The Future of Irish Bogs," prophesies as to the way in which the Irish bog is going to prove the regenerator of Irish industries. He says that ten tons of bog peat are worth a ton of ordinary coal. If it could be treated and turned into fuel on the spot, it could be used for the generation of electricity. Any part of Ireland can be reached from the bogs of Mayo by an electric main one hundred and fifty miles long. In America, it is quite a common thing to transmit electricity two hundred miles, and only to lose 20 per cent. of the current by the way. All Irish bogs, therefore, are within the range of any part of Ireland. Sir Richard calculates that the Irish bogs contain the equivalent of 5,000,000,000 tons of coal, one-half of which is certainly available for steam-raising or gas-producing purposes. This is the equivalent of a constant output of 300,000 horse-power for 412 consecutive years. Sir Richard thinks that before many years

it will be possible to generate electricity at the cost of one farthing per horse-power per hour. He says that he has underestimated everything, but even if his estimates are reduced by 50 per cent., hope would seem to be hidden in the bogs of Ireland.

OPTICS AND ASTRONOMY.

The Rev. E. Ledger writes on "The Canals of Mars," a subject which is dealt with also in the *Monthly Review*. But whereas the writer in the *Monthly* is doubtful whether the markings are really canals, the writer in the *Nineteenth Century* thinks there are no markings at all. Some of the canals have been seen double; but this Mr. Ledger regards as an optical delusion and a common result of fatigue of the eye. But even the single canals may not exist. The junctions of the canals, as seen, are always marked by large patches supposed to represent lakes or oases; and it is a well-known fact that the eye has a tendency to create non-existent lines between such patches when seen indistinctly.

FACTS ABOUT RADIUM.

Another scientific article is Mr. William Ackroyd's on "Radium and Its Place in Nature." Most of the article is too technical for brief explanation, but Mr. Ackroyd gives some facts worth mentioning. One is that there are probably not two tons of radium on the whole earth, and that if such a quantity were collected it would be valuable enough to liquidate the whole national debt of Great Britain. Radium has an atomic weight of 226, and like most heavy elements, it is valuable.

"In the following table, two chemical family groups of elements are compared, and by the side of the atomic weight of each substance is placed the troy weight in ounces which is purchasable for the approximate sum of four guineas:

Element.	Ounces.	Element.	Ounces.
Copper, 63.....	2,286	Calcium, 40.....	7,349
Silver, 108.....	42	Strontium, 87.....	2,450
Gold, 197.....	1	Barium, 137.....	3,675
		Radium, 226.....	0008 "

THE PROBLEM OF LONDON'S TRAFFIC.

Captain Swinton, L.C.C., has an interesting paper on "London Congestion and Cross-Traffic." He says:

"They talk of fifty millions to arrange a system of tubes deep down in the London clay. Would it need any more capital if a few strong men, backed by Parliament, backed by the credit of London, backed, as they well might be if envy and spoliation were ruled out, by those great ground landlords,—in most cases not individuals, but corporate bodies, hospitals, and charities,—whose property would be improved, were empowered to drive through the meaner streets four, five, or six arterial ways, scientific and up-to-date as they could be made? In the bowels of the earth there would be laid drain-pipes and water-pipes and tunnels, capable, perhaps, of carrying railway carriages and trucks running in from all over the country. Just under the surface, shallow tramways and galleries for the thousand and one wire connections which will soon be the necessity of all our lives. On the surface, people, carriages and horses, all that moves slowly and wishes to stop by the way. Above, raised so as to be independent of cross-traffic, moving platforms and a bicycle and motor road. Everywhere new values would be created; and, given large powers, given financial capacity and probity, no money would be lost, and London would be encouraged to live and thrive and be healthy and happy."

Tunneling and bridging, not broadening, is the only way to deal with congested traffic, the difficulty being the cross-traffic.

GERMAN SOCIALISM.

Mr. O. Eltzbacher writes one of his usual well-informed papers, the subject being "The Social Democratic Party in Germany." The programme of the party, he says, is as follows:

- "1. One vote for every adult man and woman; a holiday to be election day; payment of members.
- "2. The government to be responsible to Parliament; local self-government; referendum.
- "3. Introduction of the militia system.
- "4. Freedom of speech and freedom of the press.
- "5. Equality of man and woman before the law.
- "6. Disestablishment of the churches.
- "7. Undenominational schools, with compulsory attendance and gratuitous tuition.
- "8. Gratuitousness of legal proceeding.
- "9. Gratuitous medical attendance and burial.
- "10. Progressive income tax and succession duty."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Lawson Walton, K.C., replies to Lord Halifax on "The Crisis in the Church." Mr. Leonard Courtney deals with the advantages of foreign trade, criticising Mr. Hobson's "Imperialism" in several respects. Mr. M. A. R. Toker writes on "The Lost Art of Singing."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for May opens with a paper by Mr. J. A. Spender on "The Liberal Opportunity," in which Mr. Spender pleads for union and declares that now is the last chance of the party.

"But let us be quite clear in our minds that if the Liberal party is to exist any longer as we have known it, the effort must be now or never. A third successive defeat at a general election would in all probability lead to a definite disruption among its rank and file, and would certainly leave its front bench in a desperate plight. It is a weakness now for the first time being revealed in our constitutional system that, short of a return to power for however short a time, an opposition party has no means of renewing its leaders. Even in its worst days, the Conservative party contrived to secure short tenures of office which enabled it to replenish its front bench and present itself to the public as a reorganized party. The Liberal party has now been longer continuously out of office than any party since the Reform Bill, and for officially recognized leaders is obliged to rely on the survivors of a ministry which came into existence eleven years ago. Not a few of the difficulties of the party are already attributable to this cause alone."

A RUSSIAN REPRESENTATIVE AT KABUL.

Mr. Demetrius Boulger writes on this subject. He is, of course, opposed to allowing Russia to have a representative anywhere in Afghanistan, and he thinks that the plea that Kabul is unsafe, even for an English representative, is, apart from the fact that Afghanistan is within the British sphere of influence, a good answer to the Russians. However, Mr. Boulger does not think Russia's move in this direction is meant seriously. It is only a demand put forward by the Czar's government which can be abandoned in return for concessions elsewhere.

THE BAGDAD RAILWAY.

Dr. Dillon contributes a paper on the Bagdad Railway which would have great importance if the question of British participation were still open. He is opposed to such participation, and insists that the railway is essentially a German scheme. But he does not think that England should oppose or attempt to wreck it. It is a work of civilization.

"Putting, therefore, aside all petty feelings of jealousy, it would be wise not, indeed, to make all the sacrifices, commercial or political, demanded; but to refrain from thwarting the success of the railway, to offer no discouragement to British capitalists ready to risk their money in the venture, and even to provide a terminus at Koweit on the condition, too vaguely touched upon by Mr. Balfour, that the influence accorded to Great Britain should be proportionate to the value of those services and the magnitude of her interests."

A DEFENSE OF MUNICIPAL TRADING.

Mr. Robert Donald contributes his second paper on municipal trading. He maintains that municipal trading can be justified on the general business principle adopted by great private firms of making everything they require themselves. As it is, every department of a municipality must necessarily carry out a certain amount of direct labor in executing street works, repairs, etc.

"Municipal tramways are, again, an enterprise which must be accompanied by a certain amount of direct labor if the full advantage, industrially, is to be reaped. Tramway companies have their own car-repairing sheds, and sometimes build their own cars. Similarly, municipalities must also have their own car sheds, as repairing is continuous and is more economically carried out directly than by contractors. The fact that they have repairing shops leads some of them to undertake the construction of cars, the greater proportion of the parts of which are bought in the market ready to be fitted together. They construct cars, but do not manufacture them. If municipal tramways are to be judged from the financial results, and comparisons made between company and municipal ownership, then it is clear that both should have equal opportunities for economical management."

As for the growth of municipal indebtedness being greater than the growth of the national debt, Mr. Donald points out with justice that the municipal debt merely represents money invested for productive purposes, whereas the national debt almost altogether represents money lost.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THE first article in the May *National*, after the usual *chronique*, is a paper signed "Intelligence Department," entitled "Our First Interest in Europe," which the writer declares to be the independence of Holland and Belgium, which are threatened by German ambitions. Both countries are fairly well defended, but their defense would depend largely upon the assistance of the British fleet, which assistance the writer thinks should be given. He says, however, that it is the permeation of German influence which is to be feared rather than open attack.

"The danger that lies in front of the Low Countries is not the arrival of the Uhlans at Utrecht before breakfast, but the slow, steady, silent, insidious infiltration

of German ideas, which gain ground slowly, but are ever making fresh conquests, ever exercising imperceptible pressure, and slowly drawing the Dutch oyster into the capacious maw of the Teutonic octopus. No one, of course, can say what may not occur during one of those internal revolutions or social disorders to which the Low Countries are always and peculiarly liable, owing to the influence of labor agitations and Socialist doctrines; but these things are matters, not of calculation, but largely of accident, whereas the domination by ideas is certain, if slow."

THE BAGDAD RAILWAY.

Just as the number opens with a warning against Germany, so it closes. Sir Rowland Blennerhassett, in a paper on "The German March to the Persian Gulf," declares that Germany's appeal for foreign support in making the Bagdad Railway was merely to give it the superficial character of an international undertaking and therefore to avoid offending Russia. Englishmen in any case must not console themselves that the railway will prevent a Russian approach to the Persian Gulf. On the contrary, Germany will probably help Russia to compensation. A compromise between Germany and Russia seems an absolute certainty if the policy which is at the root of the Bagdad Railway is to be successful. Sir Rowland Blennerhassett, therefore, argues that England's true interest is to come to terms with Russia as regards Asia and southeastern Europe.

THE CONVENT IN ENGLAND.

Sir Godfrey Lushington points out the moral for England of the Nancy "Good Shepherd" scandal which Mr. Maxse dealt with last month. There are at present nine houses of the Good Shepherd in England, while of other orders there are a great many both in Great Britain and Ireland. He regards all religious establishments which carry on business as so many factories which as factories need to be watched. Publicity is also needed; and while seclusion is the rule of life for those under vows, there is no reason for the seclusion of women and children who are merely employed on the premises.

BIRMINGHAM AND THE DRINK TRAFFIC.

Mr. Arthur Chamberlain writes on his famous "Scheme of Surrender." He maintains that five years' experience has shown:

"1. That reduction proportionately increases the value of the remaining licenses, and that compensation paid from any other source than the pockets of the brewers themselves is *pro tanto* a free gift to the remaining license-holders. 2. That the Birmingham scheme, which has been in existence for the last five years, satisfies the present need for an adjustment of the incidence of reduction, and that no new parliamentary powers are required to enable licensees to take advantage of the scheme if they so desire. 3. That fresh legislation at the present time is not only unnecessary, but that it will be actually injurious, possibly by restricting the present free discretion of the justices, certainly by creating a vested interest where none now exists. 4. That the taxpayer will ultimately be called on to liquidate this vested interest, though its first incidence may be on the license-holder."

In 1897, a limited company was formed by the Midland brewers for the purpose of facilitating surrenders and acting in accordance with the Birmingham Licensing Committee

"The mode of procedure by this company is as follows: They appoint a small committee of their body to meet an equal number of magistrates, in agreement with whom an area is selected for treatment. This area is then visited, and it is determined which houses shall be surrendered (as a rule, the houses at the corners and in the principal streets are maintained and the others closed). This being settled, the company takes over the licenses of any number required for surrender, at a price to be agreed, or, in case of failure to agree, to be ascertained by arbitration. The method usually adopted is to refer the question to a valuer, and to give the owner of the property the option of selling at the price fixed by such valuer, or to go to arbitration, the price being paid on the surrender of the property. In 1903, above two hundred houses have been surrendered under its provisions, being at the rate of 40 licenses per annum out of a total of 2,296, or in the proportion of less than 2 per cent. per annum."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Sir Vincent Caillard deals with the defenders of free trade, his ideal being free trade within the empire and reasonable protection against the rest of the world. Mr. R. Murray White writes on "Scouting." There is another contribution from the pen of the King of Sweden and Norway.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW.

THE *Monthly Review* for May is an interesting number. Mr. H. C. Thompson writes on Kaffir labor and Kaffir marriage. He thinks the labor question could be solved without having recourse to the expedient of taxing the natives' wives, and he says that there is ample margin for an increase of native wages between the Kaffir's 50 shillings or 60 shillings a month and the white man's £30. He regards the taxing of polygamy as a dangerous experiment, and thinks it will lead to serious difficulties.

"By all means tax the natives more heavily if £2 be thought insufficient, but let it be a tax that is not antagonistic to tribal custom. All our experience of subject races has taught us (notably so in India) that we should hesitate greatly about doing anything that conflicts with social or religious usage; nothing inflames suspicion so readily, and no suspicion, when aroused, is so difficult to allay. Why should this experience be disregarded in South Africa?"

"The wife tax, as it stands, is a more galling intermeddling with domestic life than we have ever ventured upon in India (which is a polygamous country just as much as South Africa is), and it is surely the very furthest limit to which government interference should go. A less provocation led to the Indian Mutiny."

LIFE ON MARS.

Mr. A. R. Hinks deals with Mr. Percival Lowell's telescopic investigation of Mars and his theory that the planet is inhabited. Mr. Lowell thinks that the "canals" are certainly artificial, and therefore prove intelligent existence. His theory is that they are constructed for the purpose of irrigation, the melted Polar snows being brought thus down into the inhabited regions. It is, of course, not the canals themselves that we see, but the belt of vegetation which lies on their banks. Mr. Hinks regards all this as a theory. The canals do not run in the directions which would be taken by an engineer; and they have lately been discovered to run

right through the so-called "seas" as well as through the supposed dry land. The circular spots at the junctions of the canals, which are supposed to represent towns, are arranged so regularly as to make it necessary to conclude that the canals were made first and the towns created at their junctions.

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

IN the *Westminster* for May, Mr. Evelyn Ansell launches a somewhat audacious article concerning the housing of the people in London. He makes the surprising report:

"With 235,000 houses built in 1850-70, the number of squares formed was 68, and the length of the new streets was 1,073 miles. The number of houses since built is over 500,000, the number of squares formed is but 41 (and of these only a miserable seven since 1890), and these 500,000 houses are crowded into 1,372 miles of streets—but little greater mileage (only 300 more) than the less than a quarter of a million houses built during the earlier period. Progress has halved the breathing space! O sanitation! O humbug!"

He urges that a duly authorized public body be empowered to secure lands under the Lands Clauses Consolidation Acts at approximately their present value. He would create a circular belt of open spaces, at least a quarter of a mile wide, at a radius of about six miles from Charing Cross. He would prohibit building upon public squares and upon all existing fore-courts.

HOW "DE BLOWITZ" MADE HIS NAME.

"Observer" gives this account of "the mysterious Monsieur de Blowitz":

"His original name was Oppen, and not Blowitz. Blowitz was the name of the townlet in Bohemia where he was born. Oppen, Oppert, and Opp are various forms of a Jewish name which at first was Oppenheimer,—that is, a man from Oppenheim, in Rhenish Hesse. It has been the frequent habit of Germans of Hebrew descent to assume towns' names.

"When taking up his abode in France, Oppen soon called himself 'Oppen de Blowitz.' This might mean either a person of aristocratic descent or one that hails from a town called Blowitz. The transition to 'M. de Blowitz' was then easy enough.

"After becoming a convert to Roman Catholicism under the Second French Empire, he received, through episcopal intercession, the regular governmental permission to change his name of Oppen into that of 'de Blowitz.' Henceforth, dropping his pre-name, which is said to have been Abraham, he, in apparently high aristocratic fashion, used no Christian name at all, but was from then figuring before the world, in simple grandeur, as Mons. de Blowitz."

HOW AUSTRIA SOLVES THE RELIGIOUS DIFFICULTY.

Noel Buxton, writing on freedom and servitude in the Balkans, reports that in Bulgaria the schoolmaster is compelled by law to take his pupils on Sunday afternoons for a natural-history ramble. He reports "the splendid achievement" of the Austrian Government in Bosnia:

"Thirty years ago, Moslem, Roman Catholic, and Greek Catholic lived in perpetual and blood-stained feud; now their children sit together in the school, the rival clerics collect their followers in different rooms during the hour for religious teaching (content that the

'atmosphere' should at other times be merely patriotic), and then the rival sectarians, so lately at war, gather again for play-time in the school-yard."

He tells of a young Englishman going to the Balkans in search of health for a weak throat to whom the late Turkish ambassador laconically replied, "It is not a very good place for throats." Mr. Buxton remarks on the contrast between the free and the enslaved provinces. Entering Turkey, he says, you leave prosperity and beauty at once. He bears witness to the deplorable oppression of the Christian population.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

THE *Quarterly Review* is gradually undergoing a transformation. In the new number there are no fewer than five signed articles, one of which is illustrated; there is, besides, a map.

WHAT MONTESQUIEU OWED TO ENGLAND.

The first article—a long one, over thirty pages—is written by Mr. J. Churton Collins. It is entitled "Montesquieu in England." The article, which is very interesting, is for the purpose of showing that Montesquieu's visit to England transformed him. Before he went, he wrote the "Persian Letters"; after he had been in England, he wrote his "Esprit des Lois." Mr. Collins recalls the fact that Montesquieu said that Germany was made to travel in, Italy to sojourn in, France to live in, and England to think in. It was the study of British institutions, manners, and customs that supplied him with material for the production of his great work. It was in England that he learned and understood what liberty meant intellectually, imperially, politically, and socially. On the conclusions that he drew were founded most of the generalizations which have made him immortal. It is not too much to say that the "Esprit des Lois" would either never have seen the light or would have appeared without many of its most shining parts had Montesquieu never set foot on British shores.

A LEPROUS EMPIRE.

The writer of an article on leprosy says that leprosy in an endemic form exists in practically all British possessions beyond the seas. It is not limited to tropical and sub-tropical regions. It is pretty generally distributed throughout the African Continent; it is very prevalent in the West Indies. So that the problem of leprosy is not one of the least of the many burdens which the white man has to bear. In dealing with this disease, prevention is to be aimed at rather than cure; but it can be cured, or at least may become spontaneously arrested in its development and flicker out. Among Europeans, satisfactory results may be obtained by removal to a temperate climate, coupled with good food, hygiene, and the use of certain drugs. In England, leprosy does not flourish, and although there are lepers there, they have never been known to communicate it to any one else. The importation of East Indian coolies has led to an increase of the disease in British Guiana.

THE LONDON EDUCATION BILL.

It is an illustration of the dissatisfaction excited even in the most conservative quarters with the education policy of the British Government that the *Quarterly Review* concludes a long article upon the Education

Act by expressing its grave misgivings about the London bill as follows:

"It seems doubtful whether the government, in attempting to conciliate a number of interests, have not set up too wide and heterogeneous a combination; whether the borough councils should be represented at all upon the central authority; and whether a body in which the County Council representatives are in so distinct a minority is not likely to fall out with its superior. At all events, in the proportions of representation on the educational committee, as at present proposed, there is a very serious departure from one of the fundamental principles of the Act of 1902."

THE REFORM OF THE CONSULAR SYSTEM.

The *Quarterly*, abandoning its natural rôle of defender of all existing institutions, devotes an article to an exposition of the faults and shortcomings of the British consular system. After going point by point through its indictment, it says:

"We claim to have shown that the whole system stands in urgent need of thorough reform; and that need was never so great as to-day, when our commerce is threatened on all sides as it never has been before by active, enterprising, and intelligent rivals. The materials for that reform are ready to hand. We assert that public economy has in this particular instance been carried to a point at which it ceases to be compatible with efficiency and becomes the worst form of extravagance. But we have also shown that, even if no addition is made to the present parsimonious votes, the nation should and can obtain a better, far better, return for its outlay than it now gets."

THE ISLAND OF SCHOLARS AND OF SAINTS.

The writer of an article upon Irish university education begins by recalling the early glories of Ireland. He says:

"During the centuries when the Roman Empire lay helpless beneath the hosts of barbaric invaders, and the night of the Middle Ages had settled down upon Continental Europe, Irish scholars preserved and perpetuated the tradition of learning; and Ireland, as a writer of the ninth century expresses it, despising the dangers of the deep, migrated with almost her whole train of philosophers, destined to rekindle the lamp of learning in the new foundations of Salerno, Bologna, and Paris. The country was covered with prosperous schools; students came from Great Britain and from the Continent in 'fleet-loads,' and Ireland acquired the proud title of *insula doctorum et sanctorum*."

From this it is a considerable come-down to discuss the various schemes brought forward for completing the Irish university system. The reviewer says:

"If the colleges of the reconstituted University of Dublin are not to be 'temples to the demon of religious strife,' the *concordat* which now prolongs the evil existence of the Royal University must be abolished. The government must be left in the hands of academic men; a balance between the creeds on the board of examiners must not be demanded; there must be no suspicion of clerical pretensions unduly to extend the boundaries of 'faith and morals.'"

THE CURSE OF PROTECTION.

In the review of Mr. Haggard's book on British agriculture, the *Quarterly* takes up a very strong line against protection in any shape or form. It says:

"The era of protection, as we read the history of those times, is inseparably associated with violent fluctuations in prices, widespread suffering, agrarian outrages and discontent, high rents for landlords, huge profits for farmers, starvation wages and pauperism for the laborers. Its record is the praise of hundreds and the curse of millions."

The curse of protection, however, still afflicts the land. The reviewer says:

"But the hardship to agriculturists is that protection still flourishes in favor of every class except themselves. It is protection that has saddled agricultural land with the load of onerous expenditure for imperial service. It is protection that, as compensation for the artificially high price of agricultural produce, suffered personally to escape its share of the burden of local taxation. Above all, it is the protection which railway rates establish in favor of foreigners that drives English producers out of their own markets at home. If these three inequalities were redressed, we believe that English farming might yet have before it a period of quiet, hard-working prosperity, equally distributed among the

three classes most directly interested in the oldest of our national industries."

THE MACEDONIAN MAZE.

The writer of the Macedonian article attributes the greater part of the trouble in Macedonia to the adroit and unscrupulous exploitation of popular discontent by Bulgarian ambition. The Christian peasantry have long been suffering from political subjection, economic exhaustion, and social degradation. They fall a ready prey to the Macedonian Committee—a company of aspirants to the crown of immortality earned by other people's martyrdom. The reviewer maintains that no settlement has any chance of success unless due regard is paid to the Greek and Albanian elements in the problem. The only solution of the problem is dissolution, but this is improbable, owing to the irreconcilable interests of outsiders. The reviewer fears that a crisis may occur at which may force Russia to take the field.

Other articles deal with the poetry of John Gower, "The Provincial Mind," which is described by George Street, and "Hellenism in the East."

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

M. CHARMES devotes a large part of his *chronique* in the second April number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* to a discussion of the recrudescence of the Dreyfus affair. He points out that M. Jaurès desires that the secret *dossier* should be opened because the Socialist party in France would benefit by the reopening of the *affaire* and the consequent disorganization, not only among the other parties in the state, but also in the country itself. M. Charmes adds some striking sentences, in which he shows how the revolutionary element in France would turn the resulting confusion to account in their campaign against both the church and the army.

FRANCE IN ALGERIA.

It is impossible to do more than refer briefly to the two important articles on the striking administrative work which France has done in Algeria, contributed by a writer who does not give his name. The recent visit of President Loubet lends additional interest to these papers, which are by no means conceived in the vein of unrestrained panegyric to which, it is to be feared, Englishmen have become accustomed in regard to their colonial empire. For example, the writer condemns severely the sudden introduction of French law and French judicial administration into Algeria. As for the officials, he makes the significant remark that a knowledge of the language and customs of the country should be made an essential qualification, and that the officials should have fixity of tenure, and should not be chosen in order to satisfy this or that personage.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Among other articles may be mentioned one by the veteran M. Ollivier in which he shows that in 1866 Germany and Italy were really the aggressors against Austria, and that Bismarck could never have accomplished this, which was, so to speak, the first brick in the structure of the future German Empire, without the assistance, or, at any rate, the benevolent neutrality, of Na-

poleon III. Though every consideration of policy and interest should have warned the emperor, his fatal affection for Italy prevented him from interfering with Bismarck's designs. It is only too certain that if he had, there would have been no Franco-German War.

M. Lapauze contributes an interesting paper on the Academy of France at Rome, with reference to its centenary; and M. Banet-Rivet discusses the evolution of industrial chemistry.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

WE have noticed elsewhere M. Garlien's very thoughtful paper in the *Nouvelle Revue* on the way in which France has lately taken in hand the care and the amelioration of her juvenile criminals.

The place of honor is given to M. Raffalovich's elaborate analysis of the new German tariff. The writer, who has made a thorough study of the subject, considers that Germany has now made a retrograde movement, and that the Continent is on the eve of a tariff war, every country which has been affected by the new German customs being likely to retaliate whenever and however it may be possible. This is specially true of Russia, but many of the minor countries are also preparing a peaceable revenge. This is particularly noticeable in Italy, in Switzerland, and in Sweden, also in Austria-Hungary. Time will show, says the writer, significantly, whether the German Government was wise in putting aside the comparatively liberal laws inaugurated by Caprivi, and whether it would not have been wiser to at any rate remain stationary rather than give in to the pressure brought about by the Agrarian party.

Under the title of "The Latin Alliance" is published a curious and suggestive article concerning what the writer hopes will be a future alliance among the Latin races, to render the balance even with the much talked of Anglo-Saxon racial alliance. He points out that the Latins are gradually disappearing from Europe; from Italy alone a steady flood of emigration to the

South American states goes relentlessly on, and in some twenty years close on three million Italians have left their native country. The writer bitterly regrets that no effort was made to direct these hard-working folk toward northern Africa, Tunis, or Algiers.

To certain readers, the most notable article in the *Nouvelle Revue* is entitled "Z. A. S. M.," for it tells the whole story of the Netherlands South African Railway from the point of view of those unfortunate investors who, whatever their nationality, are certainly to be pitied. As those people interested in the matter are only too well aware, Great Britain has refused to accept responsibility in regard to those bondholders who invested in the Z. A. S. M. stock after the outbreak of the South African war, and this although it is admitted that the railway is first and foremost a Dutch enterprise. On the side of the bondholders is the great jurist, Professor Meili, who has more than once been employed by the British Government when its own interests were in question.

REVUE DE PARIS.

ONE of the most interesting articles in the *Revue de Paris* is a paper, noticed elsewhere, which attempts to give some idea of how the various forms of the Christian religion are protected in the Turkish Empire.

All those interested, either directly or indirectly, in theatrical management should make a point of reading M. Antoine's remarkable paper on the actual production of a play, especially with reference to the setting of each act. The writer is himself perhaps the most skillful of stage managers now living; accordingly, his views are of the first importance, and it is curious to note that he deprecates too much realism in the matter of furniture, trees, fires, and so on. Much space is devoted to the question of lighting, for M. Antoine considers the question of lighting a platform or a theater stage to be of capital importance, and one which should be the subject of more thought and consideration than any other concerned with the mounting of plays. Yet another article which touches on the theatrical and musical world deals with a side of Berlioz seldom described,—that is, his life as a critic and journalist. During twenty-eight years, the really great composer,—for so he truly was,—was glad to earn twenty dollars a month by writing notices concerning the work of his friends and rivals; and when finally his talent became sufficiently recognized for him to make his living by the sale of his musical compositions, and by their production, he wrote a pathetic letter in which he mentioned his extreme joy at being able to give up his literary work.

Those who have read Mrs. Humphry Ward's latest novel, "Lady Rose's Daughter," or who are familiar with the famous love-letters of Mlle. de Lespinasse, of which a translation has lately been published, will turn with special interest to M. de Ségur's excellent biographical paper on the Comte de Guibert, the hero of one of the most curious and pathetic of the world's true romances. A brilliant and delightful talker, a brave soldier, and a clever writer on military affairs, it is clear that Guibert possessed that intangible fascination temporaries of any man or any woman who can claim it as an attribute. So great was his reputation that even Marie Antoinette caused him to be presented to

her, and she found him so delightful that she arranged that a play written by him, and which was in no sense a very remarkable work, should be produced at court. But, as M. de Ségur truly says, the Comte de Guibert, however remarkable he may have been, would have been by now quite forgotten had it not been that he inspired perhaps the most wonderful series of love-letters ever written in the French language.

Other articles consist of a very vivid and charmingly written account of a sixteenth-century mystery play, entitled "The Sacrifice of Abraham," which was acted in the year 1535 in Crete; of a highly technical article concerning the production of cold, and dealing with Professor Dewar's inventions and discoveries; of a paper describing the life and adventures of one of Louis the Thirteenth's guardsmen; and Mme. Judith Gautier continues her reminiscences of her famous father and his wide circle of friends.

LA REVUE.

IN *La Revue* for April 1, Prof. Angelo Mosso writes on "Physical Education in the Universities." He deals chiefly with American and English universities, and regards their athleticism as an almost unmixed blessing. On the Continent, the German universities are furthest ahead in this respect, but the writer's country, Italy, is backward, and he regards physical culture as absolutely essential to prevent the degeneration of the Italian governing classes. While in England members of the learned societies are physically superior to the laboring classes, in Italy the educated classes are much inferior, physically, to the peasants. The effect of better food is destroyed by lack of exercise. There is an illustrated article by M. G. Savitch on Mr. G. F. Watts. Mr. Henry Paris writes on "The Theatrical Proletariat in Germany," and points out how much better provided for are the lower ranks of the theatrical profession in Germany than in France.

THE SCENT OF FLOWERS.

In the second number of *La Revue* for April, M. Blanchon writes on "The Perfume of Flowers." He says that most perfumes are in reality excitants which stimulate and then provoke a reaction,—that is, a weakness equal to the quantity of power employed at the moment of excitation. Perfumes, in fact, act as alcohol acts. Their chief virtue is their antiseptic quality. The bacilli of typhoid have been killed in from twelve to eighty minutes by different essences. Scent-giving flowers are not, as is often stated, bad in sick-rooms. But they should be chosen in view of their effect on the nervous system or of their antiseptic qualities. Growing flowers are the best. Flowers with delicate perfumes act favorably on the nervous system.

MESSENGERS TO MARS.

M. A. Le Mée writes on the fascinating subject of "Interplanetary Communications," meaning thereby the actual transportation of human beings to other planets. The problem is, of course, practically insoluble, but M. Le Mée merely inquires whether there is any theoretical difficulty against it, and says there is not. At present, the only conceivable way is Jules Verne's,—that is, the construction of a gigantic cannon with force sufficient to overcome the earth's attraction. M. Le Mée maintains that, provided such a cannon could be built, the mere aiming at another planet pre-

sents no difficulty, and he thinks that human beings in a shell might survive the first shock if slow powder were used. He also argues ingeniously that the collision at high speed between the shell and the planet aimed at might be prevented by having internal mechanism in the shell for retarding its movement. He takes also a sanguine view as to the possibility of human beings finding supportable conditions on some of the planets.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

AN anonymous article on "Providence and the Fall of the Temporal Power" occupies the place of honor in the Liberal-Catholic *Rassegna Nazionale* (April 1), and has attracted all the more attention that it is believed to be from the pen of an ecclesiastic. It opens with the assertion that if there is one fact that stands out in common opinion and through historical evidence as being desired, or at least permitted, by divine Providence, it is the fall of the temporal power. After giving a short historical sketch of the events leading up to 1870, the anonymous writer sums up the actual position as follows:

"The King governs Italy, the Pope governs the Church. Never has the Pope found himself so free in the administration of the Church as in these years of deprivation of the temporal power. The experiment has continued for thirty years. And Rome? Rome, far from suffering any ill effects from this coexistence within her walls of two supreme and diverse authorities, profits through the presence of both one and the other; she enjoys all the advantages of being the capital of a great political kingdom without losing those of being the capital of the Catholic world. In little over thirty years, Rome has doubled her population."

Only a majority of the nation could restore the temporal power to-day, and it is this very claim for the temporal power which more than anything else has alienated the Italian people from the Church. Among the advantages of the present state of affairs, the author mentions the improved relations between Italy and other nations, and the higher spiritual standard observable among the Roman clergy, no longer taken from their proper ecclesiastical duties to perform purely civil functions. Other articles of interest are a good summary of the education crisis in England, in a sense favorable to the recent act, by Count E. di Parravicino, and yet another contribution (April 16) to the "Holy Shroud of Turin" controversy, in which C. di Lesegno, if he does not dare affirm the authenticity of the shroud, at least protests energetically against the controversy being held to be closed in a sense adverse to the relic.

In an exceptionally strong number of *Emporium*—which contains numerous reproductions of the weird symbolical paintings of Leon Frédéric and a copiously illustrated article on book-plates—the palm must be given to an admirable study of the Flemish painter, P. Brueghel the elder, with numerous photographs of his pictures and drawings. He is summed up as "the mordant and scoffing painter, of original talent, of strange conceptions, the proud supporter of the realistic principle in the Flemish school . . . the artist who, developing the comic, intimate, and popular side of art, knew how to create a new *genre*, perhaps the most characteristic in Flemish painting,—he, the unequalled precursor of the 'kermesse' of Rubens."

GERMAN MAGAZINES.

THE *Deutsche Revue* contains the conclusion of the most interesting recollections of Count Reverera. The years which the article covers—1860 to 1868—were full of epoch-making events in St. Petersburg, where he was German ambassador. The liberation of the serfs receives attention in only a short paragraph. Received with great enthusiasm at first, it was soon the cause of serious trouble. The students in St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Kazan revolted. The government wished to employ force, but the Czar telegraphed to Ignatieff, then the governor of St. Petersburg, to "treat the students like a father." Ignatieff read it as meaning "treat the students as my (the Czar's) father," and acted thereon by promptly clapping two hundred of them into prison. The Polish question receives a good deal of attention, but the troubles in Herzegovina are related in detail. The inner working of diplomacy at St. Petersburg is very interesting. Lord Napier, the English ambassador, was twitted with the fact that now a Conservative government, now a Liberal one, was in power in England, and that there was therefore no settled foreign policy. "Oh," he said, "we always stick to three cardinal points, namely: Friendship with America, opposition to Russia, and support of Turkey." "Always?" he was asked. "With exceptions. There are cases when England also shows her teeth to America."

A GERMAN CABLE SYSTEM.

The *Deutsche Rundschau* contains several interesting articles. That by Dr. Richard Hennig upon a national sea cable is largely made up of a growl over the fact that England practically controls the cables all over the world. He imagines a war with England. At once Germany is cut off from all communication with her colonies and ships, and in fact from the whole world outside Europe and parts of Asia. The colonies would be taken and the Fatherland would know nothing about it! He then goes on to discuss the possibility of laying down all-German cables the world over. He deals first with eastern Asia and the Pacific, and then turns to Africa, where he finds the conditions still worse. Africa, he says, is now almost, as regards its important portions, at any rate, nothing but a huge English colony. Dr. Hennig, to meet the case, suggests a coalition cable owned by France and Germany. The possibilities of German cables to North and South America are also discussed. Dr. Hennig does not seem to realize, however, that whoever has command of the sea has also command of the cables, whether they be all-German or all-British.

A GERMAN VIEW OF AMERICAN SOCIETY.

The article upon the American character by W. von Polenz puts into readable form the general feeling in Germany. He points out that American society is now very different from European, and that the tendency is to allow similarity to disappear and pure Americanism to become more and more prominent. The fact that a large portion of the people grow up without any scholastic biblical knowledge is largely the cause of the building up of a different comprehension of duty and good breeding. The corruption in American politics shows that. Of money and money-making, the Americans have quite different ideas from Europeans. The wife is freer; in bringing up children, laxer principles are in force.

WHY AMERICA IS BEATING ENGLAND.

THE REPORT OF THE MOSELY COMMISSION OF TRADE- UNIONISTS.

MR. MOSELY and his twenty-three trade-unionists have issued a report as to the result of their tour of investigation into the industrial conditions of the United States of America. It is one of the first and most comprehensive attempts yet made to enable representative workmen to ascertain by careful and prolonged examination the facts of American competition. It is an extremely interesting book; from the sociological as well as from the industrial point of view, it is of first importance. Here we have the deliberate judgment of twenty-three picked judges, men possessing the confidence of all the more important English trade-unions, upon conditions of labor in the country which every day tends to become a more dangerous competitor in the markets of the world. It is true that the survey was somewhat rapid, and the conclusions at which its members have arrived must necessarily be somewhat superficial,—here and there there are obvious mistakes,—but when all that is admitted, there is no mistaking the importance of what is practically the unanimous finding of this picked body of trade-unionists.

THE NEED FOR ANOTHER COMMISSION.

The cynic may sneer at the fact that these British workmen should have with one consent pronounced a judgment in their own favor and in condemnation of their employers, but as Mr. Mosely, who is an employer, concurs in their finding, there is not much point in the cynic's sneer. The practical conclusion at which every one must arrive on reading these series of reports is that the next thing to be done is for Mr. John Burns to organize a personally conducted tour of twenty-three leading representative employers of labor, who should, under his guidance, proceed to the United States and go over the same ground as that traversed by the Mosely Commission. We should then have another report from the employers' point of view as to how the land lies.

WHAT THERE IS IN THE BOOK.

The general conclusions at which all, or nearly all, the members of the commission have arrived are as follows:

The Americans are superior to the British in the following points:

1. In the education of their people.
2. In the superior intelligence and enterprise of their employers.
3. In closer coöperation between masters and men.
4. In the superior morality of the American workman.
5. In the greater readiness of Americans to use labor-saving machinery.

Upon these points all the commissioners and Mr. Mosely are practically agreed. The other findings of the commission are as follows:

1. The best American workmen are often British-born.
2. The American workman is not hustled and hurried and driven much more than the British workman.

As to the question of the comparative well-being of American and British workmen, opinions differ.

These conclusions will startle a good many people; it is, however, necessary to quote the evidence from which they were arrived at.

I.—MR. MOSELY'S REPORT.

First, we quote from Mr. Mosely's preface the statement as to why he undertook to bear the cost of this commission, and what are the conclusions at which he has arrived after taking part in the investigation which he set on foot:

"In my travels round the world, and more particularly in the United States, it became abundantly evident to me that as a manufacturing country America is forging ahead at a pace hardly realized by either British employer or workman. I therefore came to the conclusion that it would be necessary for the workers themselves to have some insight into these developments, and I decided to invite the secretaries of the trade-unions representing the principal industries of the United Kingdom to accompany me on a tour of investigation of the industrial situation across the Atlantic."

We learn that Mr. Mosely's personal conclusion is that the true-born American is a better-educated, better-housed, better-fed, better-clothed, and more energetic man than his British brother, and infinitely more sober; he is also more capable, in consequence of using his brains as well as his hands.

"One of the principal reasons why the American workman is better than the Britisher is that he has received a sounder and better education, whereby he has been more thoroughly fitted for the struggles of after life; and I believe all my delegates were themselves immensely impressed with the generally high standard of education in the United States—a standard it would be well for our own nation to copy as far as practicable.

"If we are to hold our own in the commerce of the world, both masters and men must be up and doing. Old methods must be dropped, old machinery abandoned. Practical education of the masses must be instituted and carried out upon a logical basis, and with efficiency. The bulk of our workmen are already both sober and intelligent, but with many of them there is urgent need for them to become more sober, more rational, more ready to adopt new ideas in place of antiquated methods, and improved machinery whenever produced, and to get the best possible results from a day's work. Manufacturers for their part must be prepared to assure their men a piece price that will not be 'cut' when the latter's earnings exceed what has hitherto been considered sufficient for them. Modern machinery must be introduced, coöperation of the workmen sought, and initiative encouraged in every possible way. Without such a modernized system, we cannot hope to compete with countries like the United States, which has this advantage, and is, moreover, blessed with natural resources such as we do not possess."

"The true solution of the whole problem is profit-sharing in some shape or form, and it is toward this goal that I feel both masters and men alike should turn their eyes. It is a difficult problem, but one that I am convinced can be solved in time. Capital and Labor are partners, and they must work as such.

"If there is one lesson that in my opinion has been amply demonstrated to the delegates on this commission, it is this fact as to machinery—not, of course, that I think they themselves have ever opposed it (as that day is happily fast passing away among intelligent men), but they must have been pleased to see such positive proof of what they have been for long past trying to impress on the rank and file in their respective unions."

II.—BRITISH EDUCATIONAL INFERIORITY.

All the members of the commission speak with one voice as to the superiority of the American educational system to that which exists in Great Britain. Mr. Flynn, of the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, says:

"It is a humiliating fact that the children of our industrial population receive an education very much inferior to that given to the children of the United States of America. Not only is education in that country free, but it is continued up to the age of eighteen, and in some States even university education is free. So far as American law is concerned, every boy and girl starts life with at least a high-school education. The traditions and social considerations which uphold Eton and Harrow, and similar educational institutions, is so much dust in the mouth of an American citizen. He reckons his country is better without them. With us, the poverty of parents means compulsory ignorance of the children. In America, poverty of the father is another reason why his children should receive the best education the nation can give. So thoroughly is this conviction part and parcel of American life that I have heard employers express their extreme reluctance to employ any one under eighteen in their works."

Equally emphatic is the evidence of Mr. Walls:

"Education is given unsparingly, from the elementary to the higher-grade and technical schools. In the Northern States, no child is allowed to leave school till it is fourteen years old. An inquiry at what was said to be an average school in a working-class locality elicited the statement that 50 per cent. of the children remained at school until they were fifteen, and nearly 25 per cent. until they were sixteen. At the technical college, the full course of engineering is four years, and junior course two years. Some go in for an all-round training, and others for special training in one subject."

In one point, and in one point only, do any of the members find British educational methods superior to those of the Americans. Mr. Steadman, who has been chairman of the London County Council Technical Education Board, while admitting that the educational system of the United States is better than the British, says he found no public technical schools for the sons of the working classes equal to the London Institution. He believes that the apprenticeship system is dying out in America, and that in cases where boys are apprenticed it is for a period of only three years. From what some of his colleagues say, it would appear that four years is the maximum. Mr. Barnes points out that the English apprenticeship system, with all its shortcomings, is the better of the two.

III.—THE SHORTCOMINGS OF THE BRITISH EMPLOYER.

Mr. Barnes, of the Amalgamated Engineers, reports that American managers are more enterprising than the British; they work harder, and are often the first in the workshop and the last out. Mr. Steadman is very emphatic upon this point. He says:

"The English worker has nothing to learn from America, but the employers have a lot. I do not assume for one moment we are the best, but this I do say—we cannot be beaten in the world for good, solid, well-finished work that will stand the test of years to come. Let our employers realize that labor is as much a partner in the business as his capital, and that the success or failure of that business depends upon both; he has the best material to work upon. Treated properly, he need have no fear of American competition, or that of any other country in the world, for high wages pay both the employer and the employed. In America, they know this and act up to it; hence the secret of their success."

More than one of the commissioners hold that the British employer has more to learn from America than the British workman. The same idea would seem to be held by Mr. Mosely, for he owns that in all his previous trips to America he had been forcibly impressed with the up-to-date methods of production, both from a business standpoint and as regards the equipment of the workshops.

On this point almost all of the members of the commission are in agreement. When British employers will pay more attention to elementary conditions of success in manufacture, they can be assured of results equal to, if not better than, those of America.

IV.—BRITISH LACK OF COÖPERATION BETWEEN MASTER AND MAN.

It will come as a surprise to many to know that most of the delegates, though not all, find the American employer much more fraternal in his relations with his workman than the English master. Mr. Deller, of the Operative Plasterers' Union, bears emphatic testimony to the fact that American employers are much more considerate to their employees than English masters are to their men. He says:

"I have no hesitation in saying it is not the British workman that is at fault, but the British employer. While the American employer adopts all the latest in machinery, his British competitor works his obsolete machines until the output is almost nil, and then blames his workman. Again, the former allows plenty of breathing space for his employees, studies their comfort, and in any matter of disagreement deals with the recognized officials of the men's unions, while the latter invariably ignores all the latter points. I do not pretend to think that the American employer loves his workman more than does the British employer, but he recognizes that to do all that which is mentioned pays, while the other does not. It is with the former a matter of £ s. d.; with the latter, a matter of dignity.

Mr. Robert Holmshaw, of the Sheffield Cutlery Council, says:

"Employers and men seem generally more in touch with each other in the States than is the case in England. The employer talks over the work, and invites the opinion of the men upon any new project, and the men are encouraged to make suggestions for the good of the business. If a man has a complaint to make, he

can go direct to his employer, which would be a somewhat unusual proceeding here."

Mr. Steadman, writing in the same sense, says:

"No doubt the best factories and workshops are far better than our own. Workmen are treated as men by their employers, who are always accessible to their men, and in most cases have far better opportunities for promotion than in this country, and are not subject to the same supervision. Thousands of Englishmen are employed, and in many cases hold positions of trust at good salaries. Taken as a whole, the Americans do not turn out better work than ourselves; in fact, to give my honest opinion, I do not consider it so good. As everywhere else, there are good and bad firms."

On the other hand, a dissentient note is sounded by Mr. James Cox, of the Associated Iron and Steel Workers, who says that he does not think the relations between employers and employed in the iron trade are better than they are in Great Britain; in wages disputes, they have much to learn from Great Britain.

V.—THE INFERIOR MORALITY OF BRITISH WORKMEN.

It is to the credit of the twenty-two trade-unionists that they bear unhesitating testimony to the superiority of the morality of the American workmen to those of Great Britain. Mr. Holmshaw calls attention to the remarkable fact that although there is no religious education in America, secular education there produces results that outwardly, at any rate, bear comparison with the British. There is a remarkable absence of bad language in the streets. This was particularly noticeable in the Saturday night crowds. It is not only outwardly that the Americans are more moral than the British.

Mr. Ashton finds that "gambling on horse-racing, etc., does not enter so largely into the life of the American workmen as into that of the English workmen." He goes on to say that he "considers the American workmen more sober than the English workmen, and this is quite clear in every industrial center where a visitor may spend some time." This means, as explained in Mr. Holmshaw's report, that "it is unusual to see intoxicated men in the streets." In another part of his report, Mr. Holmshaw remarks:

"It is undoubtedly true that there is less drinking among American workmen than we find among our own. This applies not only to native Americans, but to Englishmen settled in America, who speedily fall into the accepted customs of the country. The workmen in the States commence work in the morning to time, and work steadily through the day. The Sheffield workman works harder than the American, and, of course, is in many cases equally sober; but it cannot be denied that there are many instances where the fatal drinking habits result in great waste of time, and consequent annoyance to the employer. The cause and remedy for this are, perhaps, the most serious questions that could engage the attention of the Sheffield manufacturer. Personally, I believe—especially after this brief glance at American workshops—that some of our obsolete customs of workshop management are at the root of this deplorable state of things. Enforced loss of men's time for trivial causes through no fault of their own too often gives the opportunity for leaving work which would otherwise not be sought."

The proof of the pudding is the eating thereof, and it is rather odd that betting and intemperance should thrive in the land of denominational education and be

almost eliminated in a country whose education is frankly secular.

VI.—IMPROVED MACHINERY.

It seems, however, that American workmen favor machinery more than British workmen do. "Indeed, here lies the distinctive feature of American industry," says Mr. Barnes,—“namely, the hankering after the latest machinery and best methods of working which pervade American industrialism.” Other members of the commission declare that the workman in the States welcomes machinery more readily than the workman in Great Britain, and Mr. Mosely shows that labor-saving machinery is encouraged by the trade-unions and welcomed by the men, because experience has shown them that machinery is their best friend. He is very emphatic on this point, holding that the eagerness to adopt the latest machinery in America has saved the workman enormous manual exertion, raised his wages, tended toward a higher standard of life, and increased rather than diminished the number of men employed.

VII.—AMERICAN WORKMEN NOT “DRIVEN.”

The statements made under this head will surprise most English readers. These have believed that one great element of American success was the fact that American workmen were driven at a tremendous pace. This delusion is dispelled by the report of the Mosely Commission. Mr. Barnes directly contradicts the assertion that American workmen operate two or three machines each. He also denies that piecework is general in America. Mr. T. Ashton, of the Operative Cotton Spinners, comes to a different conclusion.

"I don't think that the American workmen do more work in their early manhood than the English workmen, but they worry their minds more about what they have got to do, and this, combined with their hurry-scurry system of getting through their work, may have the effect of deteriorating their physical powers and causing their working years to be shortened. The American workmen are thrown out of employment at an earlier age than the English workmen, and this is the opinion of all the workmen I conversed with upon the subject."

Mr. Flynn says American employers believe that machines rather than men or women ought to be driven, and the clever workman who, by invention or suggestion, enables his employer to carry out this ideal is encouraged in a manner delightfully real and sincere.

Thus, Mr. P. Watts, of the National Federation of Blast-Furnace Men, though he admits American superiority in the machinery used in his trade, failed to find evidence of the American workman running machinery at high pressure. The skilled men at the furnaces are mostly British; the unskilled are Poles, Scandinavians, and Italians—men of small stature and poor physique. "In the barrow-fitting department I did not see a man who could work beside a British blast-furnace man for a single shift." He looked in vain for the extraordinary "hustling" of which one so often reads.

In most cases, the hours of labor were found to be longer than in England, and holidays fewer, while wages in all cases were very much higher, in some of the trades twice the English figure. Piecework is common, but where weekly wages are paid, the men, according to Mr. Ashton, who is supported by those of his colleagues referring to the subject, "appear to act on the principle of giving a fair day's work for a fair day's wage, and in my opinion personal energy and initiative meet with fair reward from the employers."

Neither are the American workmen worked to death at an early age. Then, again, as Mr. Barnes points out, the American manager is more enterprising than the English manager, and more ready to introduce the latest and best of everything; he is a man who works hard himself, often the first in the workshop and the last out. Mr. Barnes, whose report is one of the most exhaustive and impartial in the book, agrees with Mr. Steadman that the American factories turn out work "qualitatively inferior to British work."

VIII.—THE COMPARATIVE WELL-BEING.

Mr. Mosely, as will have been seen from the passage before quoted, believes that American workmen are better housed, better fed, and better clothed. But Mr. Barnes does not seem to be quite so sure about that. He says:

"The American workmen are better housed, but rents are much higher, in many instances double what they are in England. Underclothing and a coarser kind of clothes and boots are no dearer than here, but good outside clothing is from 40 to 50 per cent. higher. Food costs about the same as in England. After careful investigation, I came to the conclusion that, comparing wages and the cost of living, there is at least an average of 25 per cent. in favor of the American workman. A careful, sober man can undoubtedly save more money

than in England, and, judging from the range of our observations, heavy drinking is far from being customary. Betting on horse-racing is practically unknown to the American workman."

As a consequence of the high wages, Mr. Mosely says the average married man owns his own house. Mr. Barnes agrees, and adds what will make his fellow-engineers at home marvel: "It is quite an exception for a man to pay rent to a landlord." Where rents are paid, however, they are very much higher than in English towns, and this fact is adduced by Mr. J. Cox, of the Associated Iron and Steel Workers, in explanation of the effort made by American workmen to buy their own houses. In large cities, the flat system prevails more than it does in England, and, according to Mr. Holmshaw, the average American workman is not housed any better than the average English workman. Mr. Hornidge, of the Boot and Shoe Operatives, declares that "so far as domestic comfort is concerned, we could give them points."

Women workers seem to be much better paid than they are in England. In one office, in Chicago, visited by Mr. Bowerman, of the London Society of Compositors, he found the women typesetters receiving the same wages as the men, but in the government printing office in Washington the women were paid two dollars a day as against four dollars paid to the men.

THE OLDEST CODE OF LAWS IN THE WORLD.*

ACCORDING to the dates still religiously printed at the head of each column on every page in the Bible appointed to be read in our churches, the world, with its satellites, the sun, the moon, and the stars, was created 4,004 years before the birth of Christ; 2,349 years before our era, the whole human race, with the exception of Noah and his family, was destroyed by a flood. In 1921 B.C., Abraham left Ur of the Chaldees for Canaan. In 1491 B.C., the Children of Israel made their famous exodus from Egypt; in the same year, the Ten Commandments, inscribed by the finger of God on tables of stone, were brought down from Sinai, and forty years later Moses died, having before that date written out the first five books of the Bible which bear his name.

To this day, it is probable that the majority of those who attend church on Sunday accept this chronology as part of the Word of God, a devoutly inspired and historically accurate narrative of the beginnings of the history of mankind.

THE DATES OF OTHER CODES.

Of late years, scholars dissecting the writings which are known as the Word of God, and subjecting them to critical analysis in philological crucibles, have made sad havoc with the simple faith of earlier times. Without entering into details or going into matters of controversy, it is now held by orthodox scholars that the earliest period to which we can date back the first written fragments of the law is the tenth century before Christ, or nearly five hundred years after the death of Moses.

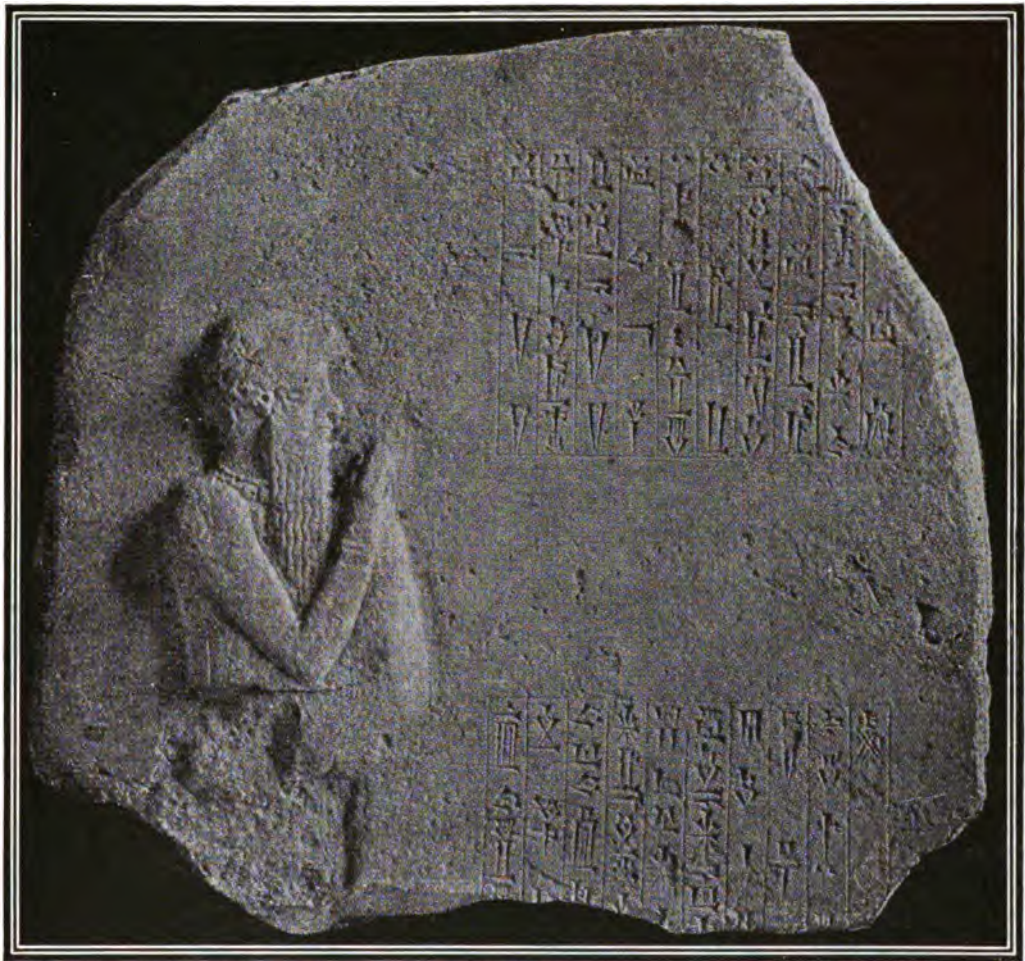
*"The Oldest Code of Laws in the World. The code of laws promulgated by Khammurabi, King of Babylon, B.C. 2285-2242." Translated by C. H. W. Johns, M.A. (T. & T. Clark, London.)

Whoever wrote the "five books of Moses," Moses did not. The dates at which they were compiled vary, some coming down as late as the sixth or seventh century before Christ. But even when the higher criticism had done its worst, the laws of Moses were still *primus inter pares* among the ancient codes of the world. The Institutes of Manu do not pretend to go back beyond the tenth century, and they were first said to have been seen by any one in the fourth century. The laws of the Twelve Tables of the ancient Romans were engraved in brass 450 B.C. Confucius flourished in the sixth century. Solon framed the laws of Athens about 600, and Lycurgus those of Sparta in 800.

The Hebrew code, therefore, still had a respectable claim to primacy among all the laws framed in the name of God for the guidance and governance of men.

THE ANTIQUITY OF THE KHAMMURABI CODE.

It is, however, no longer possible to claim for the Decalogue and the Levitical Law the pride of place which has for so many centuries been regarded as their incontestable right. Recent discoveries made by diligent diggers in Susa, in Persia, have brought to light a whole code of laws which date back to the year 2300 B.C., a period as far antecedent to the conventional date of the delivery of the law on Mount Sinai as the Norman Conquest was to the battle of Waterloo. These laws were collected and codified by the great King Khammurabi, who reigned at least twenty-two, and possibly twenty-three, centuries before Christ. Some of these laws in all probability date back for a thousand years and more before the reign of this monarch. "The oldest code in the world" was like the Code Napoleon, the summary and condensation of laws which had existed



PORTRAIT OF KHAMMURABI.

long before the birth of the man who gave it his name. Nevertheless, there is no need to go further back than Khammurabi to establish for this newly unearthed monument the right to be regarded as the most venerable code of laws in the archives of mankind.

THE AMRAPHEL OF THE BIBLE.

Who was Khammurabi, whose name sounds so unfamiliar? It is the fashion to identify him with Amraphel, King of Shinar, one of the four kings who, in the fourteenth chapter of Genesis, are said to have defeated the five kings of the plain, and were afterward overtaken and pursued by Abraham with three hundred and eighteen men. The dates do not correspond. Khammurabi was not King of Shinar, but of northern Babylonia, and the theory that the Napoleon of his time could be hunted with his three allies from Dan to Damascus is about as easy to believe as that von Moltke and the German legions, after conquering France, were chased across the frontier by the Lord Mayor of London and the Beefeaters of the Tower. Nevertheless, if you want to read up what there is known about Khammu-

rabi in the encyclopædias, biblical and otherwise, you must turn to Amraphel.

WHAT IS KNOWN OF KHAMMURABI.

The latest edition of "The Encyclopædia Britannica," under the heading "Babylonia," gives the following brief account of the king:

"The Elamite supremacy was at last shaken off by the son and successor of Sin-muballidh, Khammurabi, whose name is also written Ammurapi and Khammuram, and who was the Amraphel of Gen. xiv. 1.

"The Elamites, under their king, Kudur-Lagamar, or Chedorlaomer, seem to have taken Babylon and destroyed the temple of Bel-Merodach; but Khammurabi retrieved his fortunes, and in the thirtieth year of his reign he overthrew the Elamite forces in a decisive battle and drove them out of Babylonia. The next two years were occupied in adding Larsa and Yamudbal to his dominion, and in forming Babylonia into a single monarchy, the head of which was Babylon. A great literary revival followed the recovery of Babylonian independence, and the rule of Babylon was obeyed as

far as the shores of the Mediterranean. Vast numbers of contract tablets, dated in the reigns of Khammurabi and other kings of the dynasty, have been discovered, as well as autograph letters of the kings themselves, more especially of Khammurabi."

THE BURIED LIBRARIES OF BABYLON.

The discovery of the long-lost records of the early dynasties of Babylon dates back as far as 1874, when Mr. George Smith began to unearth clay tablets in the ruins of Nineveh and Babylon which tended to show that our accounts of the Creation and the Deluge in Genesis were really modified versions of the same stories committed to writing in Babylon long before the Mosaic era. Royal libraries were subsequently unearthed whose contents confirmed the importance of Mr. Smith's discoveries. But it was not until the end of the year 1901 that the great discovery was made which has enabled us of the twentieth century after Christ to read the very text of laws codified in Babylon in the twenty-third century before Christ.

THE MONUMENT OF BLACK DIORITE.

The following account of the discovery of the important record is taken from an interesting article in the *London Times*:

"The monument itself is a pillar of black diorite, eight feet high, was found by M. de Morgan at Susa, in the Acropolis mound, on December and January, 1901-02, and the whole has been carefully photographed and published, with a translation by Father V. Schiel, O.P., the Assyriologist of the expedition, by order of the French minister of public instruction, by Messrs. E. Leroux et Cie. The obverse of the column is surmounted by a plaque in bas-relief which represents the king standing before the throne of a seated divinity, from whose shoulders flames of fire proceed to form wings, who is dictating to the king the laws.

"The inscription which covers this stately monolith is the longest Babylonian record ever discovered. It contained originally about three thousand lines of writing, divided into forty-nine columns; but five columns on the front have been erased by some Elamite king, probably Sutruk Nakhunt, who served the stele of Naram-Sin in a similar manner. The writing is a very beautiful type of the best archaic script, a kind of black-letter cuneiform, long used by kings for royal inscriptions, after the cursive writing was invented—as, for example, the Cyprus monolith of Sargon II., B.C. 721, in the Museum at Berlin. The inscription opens with a long enumeration of the king's titles, of his installation as king by the gods, and of the elevation of Babylon to the position of capital."

KHAMMURABI AS HE SEEMED TO HIMSELF.

From this preliminary inscription we learn at least what King Khammurabi thought about himself. It begins thus:

"In that day, I, Khammurabi, the glorious Prince, the worshiper of my God, justice for the land for witness, plaintiff and defendant; to destroy the tyrant, and not to oppress the weak like unto the Sun god, I promulgated.

"(I am) the settler of the tribes, the director of the people, who restored its propitious genie [winged bull] to the city of Assur, who caused it to shine with splendor; the King who in the city of Nineveh, in the temple Dubdub (?), has made brilliant the adornments of the goddess Istar.

"The law of the land as to judgments, the decisions of the land as to decisions, my precious decrees for the information of the oppressed, upon this stone I wrote and placed in the temple of Merodach in Babylon.

"I was a master who was unto my people as the father who had begotten them.

"Law and justice I established in the land, I made happy the human race in those days."

The monument enters into some detail as to the god whom Khammurabi worshiped. In the opening of the inscription he is called "the Supreme God, the King of the Spirits of Earth, the Lord of Heaven and Earth who foretells the destiny of all." Nippur is his holy city, and his temple "the Mountain House." So much for the author of the code and the god in whose name he promulgated it. Now for the code itself.

THE SCOPE OF THE CODE.

It is full of quaint and interesting regulations which shed a flood of light upon the civilization of the Euphrates valley five thousand years ago. If it does not fully bear out what Mr. Boscawen says as to the high position and equal rights enjoyed by women in these ancient days, it shows that they were not regarded as the mere chattels of man. Less could hardly be expected from a race whose name for the mother was "the Goddess of the Home." The code consists of two hundred and eighty-two articles; about sixty, or more than a fifth, are devoted to the definition of woman's rights. About thirty of the articles still extant regulate the tenure and taxation of land. There are many articles prescribing punishment for various kinds of assault, the system being that of the eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth subsequently adopted by the Hebrews. The code insists much on the sanctity of the oath, to which an importance was attached that seems strange in these days when perjury is so common.

THE ORDEAL OF THE HOLY RIVER.

There is also frequent insistence on trial by ordeal of water. It was evidently believed that the Holy River, the Euphrates, was an infallible court of last appeal. One of the first articles runs thus:

"If a man has placed an enchantment upon a man, and has not justified himself, he upon whom the enchantment is placed to the Holy River [Euphrates] shall go; into the Holy River he shall plunge. If the Holy River holds [drowns] him, he who enchanted him shall take his house. If, on the contrary, the man is safe, and thus is innocent, the wizard loses his life and his house."

THE LICENSING LAWS FOUR THOUSAND YEARS AGO.

The same expedient was resorted to in case of a breach of the licensing laws. In Babylonia, curiously enough, all the wine merchants appear to have been women.

"If a wine merchant has not received corn as the price of drink, has received silver by the great stone, and has made the price of drink less than the price of corn, that wine merchant one shall put her to account to throw her into the water."

A rather drastic penalty for selling drink too cheap. It was, however, less severe than the punishment for allowing disorder on licensed premises.

"If a wine merchant has collected a riotous assembly in her house, and has not seized those rioters and driven them to the palace, that wine merchant shall be put to death."

The law as to desertion is clear. The wife of a man who fled from his city was free to marry again, nor could her husband, on his return, compel her to return. If a husband was carried away as captive, his wife was free to marry again if she had no means of livelihood. If she had maintenance, and married again, "one shall put that woman to account and throw her into the waters." If, however, she had no means of livelihood and had children by her second marriage, her husband could compel her to return to him when he returned from captivity, but the children by the second marriage remained with the father.

If a man wished to put away his wife or concubine who had borne him children, "to that woman he shall return her her marriage portion, and shall give her the usufruct of field, garden, and goods, and she shall bring up her children."

After the children were grown up, "from whatever is given to her children, they shall give her a share like that of the son, and she shall marry the husband of her choice."

If a childless wife is put away, he shall give her money as much as her dowry, and shall repay her her marriage portion which she brought from her father's house.

GROUND FOR DIVORCE.

In cases of misconduct by the wife, the dowry was forfeited.

"If the wife of a man who dwells in the house of that man has set her face to go forth, and has acted the fool, and wasted his house, and impoverished his house, they shall call her to account. If the husband shall say, 'I put her away,' he shall put her away. She shall go her way; for her divorce he shall give her nothing."

The wife could divorce her husband if she hated him and said "Thou shalt not possess me," providing that she could prove that she had been economical and had no vice; and if her husband had gone out and greatly belittled her, in that case she was entitled to her marriage portion. If, however, she had not been economical, but had been "a goer about," had wasted her house and belittled her husband, "one shall throw her into the waters."

THE MARRIED WOMAN'S PROPERTY ACT B.C. 2200.

A wife could inherit land, house, or goods from her husband, but although she could leave such inheritance to her children whom she loved, she could not give it to her brothers. Neither wife nor husband could be seized for the ante-nuptial debts of the other, but for debts contracted after marriage both were answerable. A wife who on account of another man had caused her husband to be killed was sentenced to death by impalement.

The property of a wife went to her children or to her father at her death; her husband had no right to inherit it. The children of a second marriage shared equally with those of the first marriage in their father's property. If a slave married the daughter of a gentleman, the children were free. Her marriage portion was her own on the death of her husband, and her owner could only take half of the slave's property at death.

AN EYE FOR AN EYE.

If a man struck his father, his hand was cut off. If a man caused the loss of a gentleman's eye, his own

was torn out; but if it was only a poor man's eye, he paid one mina of silver. The same rule was applied when a limb was shattered. If a tooth was knocked out, "one shall make his tooth fall out."

If a wound were caused by accident, such must be attested by oath, and the man who caused it "shall answer for the doctor."

If a man struck a gentleman's daughter so that she miscarried, he had to pay ten shekels; but if the woman died, "one shall put to death his daughter." The penalty was five shekels in the case of a poor man's daughter, and two shekels in the case of a gentleman's maid-servant.

FOR THE PROTECTION OF PROPERTY.

The laws for repression of theft were severe. Brigands and burglars were doomed to death. Any man caught stealing from a burning house was thrown into the flames and burned to death. A constable who neglected to perform a mission or hired some one else to do it was put to death. So was any one who harbored a fugitive slave and refused to produce him at the demand of the commandant. The stealing of the son of a freeman was punishable with death. A thief who stole ox, sheep, ass, pig, or ship had to pay thirtyfold, or, if he were a poor man, tenfold. If he could not pay, he was killed. The receiver of stolen goods was put to death. So was any one who stole goods from temple or palace, and so, also, was any one who uttered threats against a witness.

DOCTORS AND CONTRACTORS.

Doctors' responsibilities were severely enforced. If a patient treated with a lancet of bronze for a severe wound were to die, or if he lost an eye through the opening of an abscess, "one shall cut off his hands."

The fee for curing the shattered limb or the diseased bowel of a gentleman, a poor man, and a gentleman's servant was five, three, and two shekels, respectively.

"If a brander, without consent of the owner of a slave, has branded a slave with an indelible mark, one shall cut off the hands of that brander."

A contractor whose house fell upon the owner of the house and killed him was put to death; if no life was lost, the builder must rebuild the house at his own cost. A boatman who wrecked a ship which he hired had to render ship for ship to the owner.

SUMPTUARY LAWS.

Several articles set forth the wages to be paid to various descriptions of workmen. Others fix the hire of oxen, of wagons, of boats, etc.

If a man handed over his wife, his son, or his daughter to deliver himself from distraint for debt, they were to be set free in the fourth year.

A very curious law ordered any judge who altered his judgment after it was pronounced to pay twelvefold the penalty in the said judgment, after which he was expelled from the judgment seat.

Most of those who have written about the Code of Khammurabi have professed themselves surprised at the resemblance between it and the so-called Laws of Moses. But the difference is greater than the likeness. The ethical superiority of the Levitical Law to that of Khammurabi is as great as the superiority of the head of a man to the head of a chimpanzee.

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Indians, American, Games of the, S. Cullin, O.
Ireland: "Mid the Hills of Kerry," C. Wilkinson, AJ.
Irish Bogs, A Future for, R. Sankey, NineC.
Isis and Osiris, Mysteries of, H. R. Evans, OC.
Italy in 1819, Journey into, Maud Lyttelton, NatR.
Italy, May Customs in, Grace V. Christmas, Cath.
Italy, Municipalization of the Public Services in, A. Majorana, RSoc, April.
Jackson, Andrew, and John Calhoun, E. N. Vallandigham, Pear.
Japan: The Battle of Shimonoseki, P. Carus, OC.
Jefferson, Thomas: His Service to Civilization, B. O. Flower, Arena.
Jesus, Inner Life of, J. G. Tasker, LQ, April.

- Jesus, Virgin Birth of, A. Brown, LQ, April.
 Job and Faust, W. C. Rhoades, MethR.
 Johnson, Lionel: A Celtic Poet, J. R. Hayes, BL.
 Journalism, English Religious, Personal Forces in—VI., D. Williamson, LelsH.
 Judicature, Federal, Century of—V., Van V. Veeder, GBag.
 Keller, Helen: A Psychological Autobiography, J. Jastrow, PopS.
 Kimberley Mines, Romance of the, S. E. Moffett, Cos.
 Kindergarten:
 Drawing and Picture Study in Schools, F. Koch, KindR.
 Group Morality of Children, G. E. Vincent, Kind.
 International Kindergarten Union, Tenth Annual Meeting of the, Kind.
 Kindergarten as a Preparation for the Highest Civilization, W. T. Harris, Kind.
 Lullabies, Group of Old-Fashioned, Laura E. Poulsson, KindR.
 "King John," J. Knight, Harp.
 Klausen, a Tyrolean Paradise, Charlotte H. Coursen, Cath.
 Knots, E. Arnold, Cos.
 Knowledge in Its Foundations and Tests, D. S. Gregory, Hom.
 Koll, Baron de, Countess of Jersey, NineC.
 Labor, a Federation of, J. A. Slanker, Arena.
 Labor and Capital, Harmonizing of, M. Cokely, Eng.
 Labor's Complaint Against Capital, F. Hay, Eng.
 Lacrosse, Romance of, M. Woodward, Pear.
 Lakes, Great, On the, C. T. Chapman, O.
 Latin Alliance, G. de Contenson, Nou, April 1.
 Laurels and Laureates, Estelle Gardiner, BL.
 Lawyer's Duty with a B-d Case, F. T. Hill, Ev.
 Legal Profession, Educational Status of the, E. G. Dexter, GBag.
 Leprosy, G. Pernet, QR, April.
 Liebig, Justus von, W. A. Shenstone, Corn.
 Literary Fathers and Sons, C. Kahn, Nou, April 15.
 Literature, Form and Fashion in, Minnie D. Kellogg, BL.
 Literature, Uncertainties of, E. Flower, Crit.
 Loafers and the Police, W. Hemstreet, Gunt.
 Locomotives: Great Eastern Railway Decapod, J. Holden, CasM.
 London, Business Prospects in, Corn.
 London Congestion and Cross-Traffic, G. S. C. Swinton, NineC.
 London Hospital, a Day's Work at the, P. H. O. Williams, PMM.
 London: The Evolution of a Slum, W. H. Hunt, LQ, April.
 Lopez, Femao, the Earliest Exile of St. Helena, H. Clifford, Black.
 Louisiana Purchase Centenary:
 Builders of the Louisiana Purchase States, W. B. Allison, NatM.
 Development of the Louisiana Purchase States, D. R. Francis, NatM.
 Liberty, Spirit of, in the Province of Louisiana, W. B. Stevens, NatM.
 Louisiana Purchase Exposition, F. M. Crunden, AMRR;
 E. S. Hoch, NatM.
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 Louisiana Purchase, Significance of the, F. J. Turner, AMRR.
 Napoleon's Sale of Louisiana, H. S. Ballou, Ed.
 Lung-Fish, Obituary Notice of a, B. Dean, PopS.
 Lytton, Bulwer, Temp.
 Lytton, Lord, Art of, F. Gribble, Fort.
 Macedonia: Boris Sarafoff, Emancipator, S. F. Whitman, and E. P. Lyle, Jr., Ev.
 Macedonian Caldon, H. O. Dwight, MisR.
 Macedonian Conspiracy, H. Vivian, Fort.
 Macedonian Maze, The, QR, April.
 Machine Tools, Modern American, C. H. Benjamin, CasM.
 Magic, Modern, The Strangest Feat of, B. Matthews, Scrib.
 Mankind in the Making—VII., H. G. Wells, Cos; Fort.
 Manxland, My Visit to, J. M. Bacon, LelsH.
 Mars, Canals of: Are They Real? E. Ledger, NineC.
 Mars, The Evidence of Life on, A. R. Hinks, MonR.
 Martineau and Modern Unitarianism, W. T. Davison, LQ, April.
 Merchant Marine, Future of Our, E. Maxey, Gunt.
 Milton, John, An Utopia Attributed to, Atlant; J. W. Mackall, QR, April.
 Mine Accounting, Practical System of, E. Jacobs, Eng.
 Miracle Play, The Sixteenth-Century, J. Psichari, RPar, April 15.
 Missions:
 Bombay Church, Diamond Jubilee of the, J. E. Abbott, Mish.
 China, Outlook for Missions in, A. H. Smith, MisH.
 Doshisha of To-day, G. E. Albrecht, MisH.
 India, Dr. Charles Cuthbert Hall in, E. E. Hume, MisR.
 India, Industrial Missions in, J. T. Gracey, MisR.
 India, Notes on Islam in, J. Monro, MisR.
 India, Women of, Mrs. J. T. Gracey, MisR.
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 Philippines, Evangelization of the, H. C. Stuntz, Hom.
 Prayer in the Missionary Meeting, Belle M. Brain, MisR.
 Self-Support in Siam and Laos, A. J. Brown, MisR.
 Monroe Doctrine from an English Standpoint, A. E. Miller, NAR.
 Montesquieu in England, J. C. Collins, QR, April.
 Mormonism and Polygamy—I., The "Mormonism" of To-day, J. F. Smith; II., Plural Marriage in America, J. Smith; III., Origin of American Polygamy, J. T. Bridwell, Arena.
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 Morocco, With the Sultan of, A. Schneider, Cent.
 Morris, William, as I Remember Him, A. Stringer, Crafts.
 Moryson, Fynes, an Elizabethan Traveller, Edin, April.
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 Motor-Cars of King Edward, A. W. Myers, Cass.
 Motoring, Economical, C. G. Matson, Bad.
 Mount Bryce, Canada, First Ascent of, J. Outram, FRL.
 Müller, Max, Cornelia Sorabji, Temp.
 Multiplying on the Fingers, C. F. Jenkins, Mun.
 Municipal Affairs:
 Cemetery, Park or Landscape, W. Miller, SocS.
 Corporations, Public Control of, R. R. Bowker, MunA.
 Electric Lighting, Municipal, Opposed, J. B. Cahoon, MunA.
 Electric Lighting, Municipal Ownership of, V. Rosewater, MunA.
 Franchises, Local, Municipal Operation Needed to Correlate, J. De W. Warner, MunA.
 Gas Plants, Municipal, A. D. Adams, MunA.
 Gas Supply and the Public, W. S. Allen, MunA.
 German Municipal Exposition, G. E. Hooker, AMRR.
 Germany, Municipal Ownership in, E. T. Heyn, MunA.
 Great Britain, Municipal Ownership in, Recent Attacks on, R. Donald, MunA.
 Great Britain, Municipal Trading in—II., R. Donald, Contem.
 Growth of Demand for Municipal Ownership, C. R. Woodruff, MunA.
 Labor Clauses in Franchise Grants, R. V. Ingersoll, MunA.
 Lighting, Municipal: In Chicago, E. B. Ellcott; In Wallingford, Conn., A. L. Pierce; In Detroit, F. F. Ingram, and J. E. Lockwood, MunA.
 Louisiana, Municipal Ownership Experiments in, W. W. Howe, MunA.
 Municipal Operation: European and American Methods and Results Compared, R. P. Porter, MunA.
 Municipal Ownership Convention, New York, February 25 to 27, 1903, Arena.
 Municipal Ownership, Problem of, J. G. Agar, MunA.
 Owning and Leasing, City, E. M. Shepard, MunA.
 Parks and Playgrounds, J. Strong, SocS.
 Parks and Possibilities, Mira L. Dock, SocS.
 Pittsburg: A City Ashamed, L. Steffens, McCl.
 Playground at Albany, Lillian C. B. McAllister, SocS.
 Public Service Corporations: How They Should Be Controlled, C. T. Lewis, MunA.
 Public Service Corporations, Regulation and Taxation of, A. R. Foote, MunA.
 Recreation Grounds for Employees, F. G. Ford, SocS.
 Referendum and Initiative in Relation to Municipal Ownership, G. H. Shibley, MunA.
 Street Railways, Experience of Massachusetts in, L. D. Brandels, MunA.
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 Street Railways, Private Control of, C. T. Yerkes, MunA.
 Taxation of Franchise Values, E. R. A. Seligman, MunA.
 Taxation of Public Utilities, W. H. Peckham, and J. Ford, MunA.
 Telephone, Reasons for Public Ownership of the, F. Parsons, MunA.
 Telephones, Superiority of Corporation Ownership of, U. N. Bethell, MunA.
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 Toronto, Public Franchisees in, T. Urquhart, MunA.
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 Muskrat, Story of the, C. McIlvaine, CLA.
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 Natural History, Smaller Museums of, W. Orr, PopS.
 Nature, Study, Modern School of, W. J. Long, NAR.
 Naval Scouts, B. W. Lees, USM, April.
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 Navy Leagues, J. H. Gibbons, NAR.
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 Nebulae, Photographing the, G. W. Ritchey, Harp.
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 Negro, The Case of the, W. H. Johnson, Dial, May 1.
 New England Primer, The, C. Johnson, NEng.
 New England Elections, O. T. J. Alpers, NineC.
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- Jews, Newly Arrived, Start and Rise of the, H. Hapgood, WW.**
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Street Railway Emergency System, W. L. Mallabar, Pear.
Transporting New York's Millions, W. W. Wheatly, WW.
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New Zealand, Woman Suffrage in, Mrs. A. R. Atkinson, RRM, March.
North, Lord, the Prime Minister, Lord North, NAR.
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Oberstdorf, Germany, The Wild Men of, J. Salters, Str.
Ocean, Crossing the, for the First Time, H. Morris, LHJ.
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American Development, NatGM.
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Artistic Photography of To-day, A. H. Hinton, MA.
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Preacher's Appeal to the Emotions, J. W. Van Cleave, MethR.
Prefaces and Epilogues, Margaret Laughlin, BL.
President of the United States: The Hampered Executive, H. L. Nelson, Cent.
Printer, Art and the, A. L. Cotton, MonR.
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Race Problem, Mulatto Factor in the, A. H. Stone, Atlant.
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Radioactivity, Recent Advances in, F. Soddy, Contem.
Radium: A New Source of Heat, H. C. Bolton, PopS.
Radium and Its Position in Nature, W. Ackroyd, NineC.
Railway Accounts, Need of a Depreciation Fund in, C. H. Grinling, BankL.
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Rochdale Coöperative Movement in California, C. Y. Roop, Arena.
Rocky Mountains of the North, Crossing the, R. Dunn, O.
Roemer, Olaus, Historical Sketch of, T. J. J. See, PopA.
Rome, Fountains in, E. McAuliffe, Cath.
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Russia:
Archangel, Impressions of, F. R. Sanderson, Cham.
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Moscow Philanthropist, A. G. C. Frankland, Long.
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Russian Policy, Present Tendencies of, C. Johnston, NAR.
Sackett's Harbor, Battle of, 1813, J. Brown, JMSI.
Sailor, The Deep Sea: Life on a Liner, B. Brandenburg, FrL.
Saint Denis and Its Royal Tombs, Mary R. Gray, Cath.
St. Francis, Gospel Read to, M. Carmichael, Dub, April.
St. Louis—a Strong Western City, W. F. Saunders, AMRR.
St. Louis Congress of Arts and Sciences, H. Munsterberg, Atlant.
St. Louis Robbed of Fifty Million Dollars, B. O. Flower, Arena.
St. Paul's Cathedral, Monuments in, A. Higgins, NineC.
St. Pierre (Martinique), The Second, P. T. McGrath, Eng.
Salt Meadows, A Day in the, S. Hartmann, Harp.
San Francisco, Humbler Restaurants of, R. Whittle, Over.
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Saraffoff, Boris, Emancipator, S. F. Whitman and E. P. Lyle, Jr., Ev.
Saxon and Slav: Two Imperial Creations, F. A. Ogg, Chaut.
Scent-Distillation, R. H. Wallace, Cham.
Scholarly Men in America, Careers of, E. L. Thorndike, Cent.
Science, International Congress of, in Rome, A. Gotti, RasN, April 1.
Science Teaching: Is It Passing Away? G. E. Boxall, West.
Scotland: Lowland Life and Character, R. Richardson, Gent.
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Sea, How to Travel by, L. Perry, CLA.
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Seville Cathedral, H. Ellis, Mac.
Shakespeare: Had He Read the Greek Tragedies? J. C. Collins, Fort.
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Shakespeare's Working Classes, E. Crosby, Crafts.
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Ship Armor and Its Attack, USM, April.
Ships, Giant, for Our Oriental Trade, F. N. Stacy, AMRR.
Shop Girl, Autobiography of a: Life Outside the Store, FrL.
Siberia, Western, and Turkestan, G. F. Wright, Chaut.
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Social Ideals, C. M. Geer, Hart.
Social Success of a Girl, Elements of, J. O. Hobbes, PMM.
Socialism, Free, W. L. Garver, Arena.
Socialist Systems, E. Fournière, RSoc, April.
Sociology, Formative Principal of, B. T. Stafford, BibS, April.
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Somaliland, Letters from, Hawkins-Whitshed, USM.
Somnambulism and the Somnambule, A. C. Halphide, Mind.
South Africa: Kaffir Labor and Kaffir Marriage, H. C. Thomson, MonR.
South Africa: Natal, R. Russell, West.
South Polar Expedition, British, NatGM.
Spain's New Battleship *Alfonso XIII.*, J. P. de Guzman, EM, April.
Spiritual? Is the World, J. Bascom, BibS, April.
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Sprinter, What Makes Man a, P. S. Phillips, O.
Stage Management, A. Antoine, RPar, April 1.
Standard Oil Company, History of the—VII., The Crisis of 1878, Ida M. Tarbell, McCl.
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Steam Turbine Applications, Recent, G. L. Parsons, CasM.
Steel Trust, The Men Who Made the, D. G. Phillips, Ev.
Steele, Dick, J. K. Tullo, Gent.
Strawberry Culture for Profit, A. E. Colcord, J. S. Crawford, J. O. Chapin, E. W. Wooster, W. D. Barnes & Sons, CLA.
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Sunday-School Problem, J. T. Prince, EdR.
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Taxation, Equable, A Method of, J. B. Walker, Cos.
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 Trout Culture as a Business, A. R. Dugmore, CLA.
 Trout Fishing for Everybody, E. Sandys, O.
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 United States a Nation of Inventors, C. D. Davis, WW.
 United States—Land and Waters, C. C. Adams, NatGM.
 Vacation, How to Spend a: The Things to Do and How to Do Them, A. R. Dugmore; A Walking Vacation, F. Auld; How I Built My Vacation Home, E. B. Rawson; Vacation in a Mountain Wagon, M. W. Cole; A Camping Vacation, Katherine Chandler; A House-boat Vacation, C. Emery; Vacation Camps for Boys, S. W. Truslow, CLA.
 Vandeleur, Seymour, NatR.
 "Vanity Fair" and Its Contemporary Critics, A. B. Maurice, Bkman.
 Venezuela, the Land of Stand-Still, J. Barnes, Out.
 Venezuelan Affair, Aftermath of the, E. Maxey, Arena.
 Verlaine, Paul, Posthumous Work of, G. Kahn, Revue, April 15.

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 Wages and Distress for Debt, Delcourt-Hailot, RefS, April 1 and 16.
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 Warfare in Mountain Ranges—IX., T. M. Maguire, USM.
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 Water Powers, Small, with High Heads, T. Reid, CasM.
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 Wesley, John: His Preaching and Hints to Preachers, W. H. Meredith, Hom.
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 White, Stewart Edward, L. Denison, Bkman.
 Wildfowler, The, D. C. Macmichael, Bad.
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 Woman and Music, J. C. Hadden, Gent.
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 Woman of the People, The, Mrs. J. Van Vorst, Harp.
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 Woman's Eyes, Power and Beauty of, Ella A. Fletcher, Cos.
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 Women Editors of London, R. de Cordova, Cass.
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 Wordsworth, William, The Secret of, W. E. Henley, PMM.
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 Workingwomen in England, Priscilla E. Moulder, Cham.
 World, The End of the, S. Newcomb, McCl.
 Writers, Scottish and English, J. M. Bulloch, Lamp.
 Wyndham, The Right Hon. George, W. T. Stead, AMRR.
 Yacht: What It Costs to Put One in Commission, J. F. Tama, O.
 Yachting: Class Racing in the Solent, H. L. Reisch, Bad.

Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.	Ed. Education, Boston.	NC. New-Church Review, Boston.
AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y.	EdR. Educational Review, N. Y.	NEng. New England Magazine, Boston.
AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.	Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y.	NineC. Nineteenth Century, London.
AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago.	Era. Philadelphia.	NAR. North American Review, N. Y.
ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis.	EM. España Moderna, Madrid.	Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.	Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y.	NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome.
AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.	Fort. Fortnightly Review, London.	OC. Open Court, Chicago.
ANat. American Naturalist, Boston.	Forum. Forum, N. Y.	O. Outlook, N. Y.
AQ. American Quarterly, Boston.	FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.	Out. Outlook, N. Y.
AngA. Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.	Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London.	OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal.
Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.	GBag. Green Bag, Boston.	Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y.	Gunt. Gunt's Magazine, N. Y.	PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Arena. Arena, N. Y.	Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y.	Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
AA. Art Amateur, N. Y.	Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn.	Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y.
AI. Art Interchange, N. Y.	Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y.	PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y.
AJ. Art Journal, London.	IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila.	PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
Atlant. Atlantic Monthly, Boston.	Int. International Quarterly, Burlington, Vt.	PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn.
Bad. Badminton, London.	IntS. International Studio, N. Y.	PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London.	JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.	Ptr. Princeton Theological Review, Phila.
BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.	JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.	QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
Bib. Biblical World, Chicago.	Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.	QR. Quarterly Review, London.
BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.	KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.	RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.	LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.	RefS. Réforme Sociale, Paris.
Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.	Lamp. Lamp, N. Y.	RRL. Review of Reviews, London.
BL. Book-Lover, N. Y.	LeisH. Leisure Hour, London.	RRM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
Bkman. Bookman, N. Y.	Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.	Revue. Revue, Paris.
BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago.	LQ. London Quarterly Review, London.	RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y.	Long. Longman's Magazine, London.	RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels.
Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto.	Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.	RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris.
Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London.	McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y.	RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
CasM. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.	Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London.	RSoc. Revue Socialistic, Paris.
Cath. Catholic World, N. Y.	MA. Magazine of Art, London.	Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y.	Meth. Methodist Quarterly, Nashville.	San. Sanitarian, N. Y.
Cham. Chambers' Journal, Edinburgh.	MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y.	School. School Review, Chicago.
Chaut. Chautauquan, Springfield, O.	Mind. Mind, N. Y.	Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
Contem. Contemporary Review, London.	MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston.	Sit. Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Corn. Cornhill, London.	MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y.	SocS. Social Service, N. Y.
Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y.	Mon. Monist, Chicago.	Str. Strand Magazine, London.
CLA. Country Life in America, N. Y.	MonR. Monthly Review, London.	Temp. Temple Bar, London.
Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y.	MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y.	USM. United Service Magazine, London.
Crit. Critic, N. Y.	Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.	West. Westminster Review, London.
Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.	Mus. Music, Chicago.	WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Dial. Dial, Chicago.	NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.	WW. World's Work, N. Y.
Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin.	NatM. National Magazine, Boston.	Yale. Yale Review, New Haven.
Edin. Edinburgh Review, London.	NatR. National Review, London.	YM. Young Man, London.
		YW. Young Woman, London.

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